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MECHANICAL
ENGINEER'S
POCKET-BOOK

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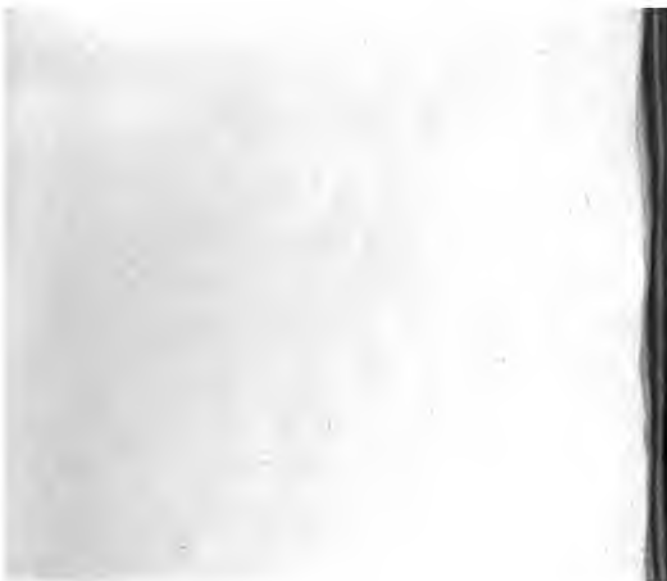
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JOHN WILEY & SONS.

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The Publishers and the Author will be grateful to any of the readers of this volume who will kindly call their attention to any errors of omission or of commission that they may find therein. It is intended to make our publications standard works of study and reference, and, to that end, the greatest accuracy is sought. It rarely happens that the early editions of works of any size are free from errors; but it is the endeavor of the Publishers to see them removed immediately upon being discovered, and it is therefore desired that the Author may be aided in his task of revision, from time to time, by the kindly criticism of his readers.

JOHN WILEY & SONS.

53 EAST TENTH STREET.

THE
MECHANICAL ENGINEER'S
POCKET-BOOK.

*A REFERENCE-BOOK OF RULES, TABLES, DATA,
AND FORMULÆ, FOR THE USE OF
ENGINEERS, MECHANICS,
AND STUDENTS.*

BY

WILLIAM KENT, A.M., M.E.,

Consulting Engineer,

Member Amer. Soc'y Mechl. Engrs. and Amer Inst. Mining Engrs.

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PREFACE.

MORE than twenty years ago the author began to follow the advice given by Nystrom: "Every engineer should make his own pocket-book, as he proceeds in study and practice, to suit his particular business." The manuscript pocket-book thus begun, however, soon gave place to more modern means for disposing of the accumulation of engineering facts and figures, viz., the index rerum, the scrap-book, the collection of indexed envelopes, portfolios and boxes, the card catalogue, etc. Four years ago, at the request of the publishers, the labor was begun of selecting from this accumulated mass such matter as pertained to mechanical engineering, and of condensing, digesting, and arranging it in form for publication. In addition to this, a careful examination was made of the transactions of engineering societies, and of the most important recent works on mechanical engineering, in order to fill gaps that might be left in the original collection, and insure that no important facts had been overlooked.

Some ideas have been kept in mind during the preparation of the Pocket-book that will, it is believed, cause it to differ from other works of its class. In the first place it was considered that the field of mechanical engineering was so great, and the literature of the subject so vast, that as little space as possible should be given to subjects which especially belong to civil engineering. While the mechanical engineer must continually deal with problems which belong properly to civil engineering, this latter branch is so well covered by Trautwine's "Civil Engineer's Pocket-book" that any attempt to treat it exhaustively would not only fill no "long-felt want," but would occupy space which should be given to mechanical engineering.

Another idea prominently kept in view by the author has been that he would not assume the position of an "authority" in giving rules and formulæ for designing, but only that of compiler, giving not only the name of the originator of the rule, where it was known, but also the volume and page from which it was taken, so that its

derivation may be traced when desired. When different formulæ for the same problem have been found they have been given in contrast, and in many cases examples have been calculated by each to show the difference between them. In some cases these differences are quite remarkable, as will be seen under Safety-valves and Crank pins. Occasionally the study of these differences has led to the author's devising a new formula, in which case the derivation of the formula is given.

Much attention has been paid to the abstracting of data of experiments from recent periodical literature, and numerous references to other data are given. In this respect the present work will be found to differ from other Pocket books.

The author desires to express his obligation to the many persons who have assisted him in the preparation of the work, to manufacturers who have furnished their catalogues and given permission for the use of their tables, and to many engineers who have contributed original data and tables. The names of these persons are mentioned in their proper places in the text, and in all cases it has been endeavored to give credit to whom credit is due. The thanks of the author are also due to the following gentlemen who have given assistance in revising manuscript and proofs of the sections named: Prof. De Volsqn Wood, mechanics and turbines; Mr. Frank Richards, compressed air; Mr. Alfred R. Wolff, windmills; Mr. Alex. C. Humphreys, illuminating gas; Mr. Albert E. Mitchell, locomotives; Prof. James E. Denton, refrigerating machinery; Messrs. Joseph Wetzler and Thomas W. Varley, electrical engineering; and Mr. Walter S. Dix, for valuable contributions on several subjects, and suggestions as to their treatment.

WM. KENT.

Passaic, N. J., April, 1895.

THIRD EDITION, APRIL, 1897.

All the typographical and other errors discovered in the first and second editions have been corrected, a few alterations have been made in the text, and the index has been revised and enlarged.

W. K.

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MATHEMATICS.

Al and Algebraical Signs and Abbreviations.

<p>u). traction). us. us. by, $\times b$. . $+ b. 15-16 = \frac{15}{16}$ $= \frac{2}{1000}$. is, : to (proportion). , as 2 is to 4 so is 3 to 6. ded by. of 2 to 4 = 2/4. an. . re or thermometer. r feet. r inches. to distinguish letters, as a''' a_c. read a sub 1, a sub b, — vincula, denoting e numbers enclosed are sken together; as, $: = 4 + 3 \times 5 = 35$. red, a cubed. o the nth power, $= \sqrt[n]{a}$. $2 = \frac{1}{a^2}$ ie 9th power = 1,000,000. sine of a. te aro whose sine is a. $\frac{1}{a}$ in. a. thm. .log. = hyperbolic loga-</p>	<p>\angle angle. \perp right angle. \perp perpendicular to. sin., sine. cos., cosine. tang., or tan., tangent. sec., secant. versin., versed sine. cot., cotangent. cosec., cosecant. covers., co-versed sine. In Algebra, the first letters of the alphabet, a, b, c, d, etc., are gener- ally used to denote known quantities, and the last letters, w, x, y, z, etc., unknown quantities. <i>Abbreviations and Symbols com- monly used.</i> d, differential (in calculus). \int, integral (in calculus). \int_a^b, integral between limits a and b. Δ, delta, difference. Σ, sigma, sign of summation. π, pi, ratio of circumference of circle to diameter = 3.14159. g, acceleration due to gravity = 32.16 ft. per sec. <i>Abbreviations frequently used in this Book.</i> L, l., length in feet and inches. B, b., breadth in feet and inches. D, d., depth or diameter. H, h., height, feet and inches. T, t., thickness or temperature. V, v., velocity. F, force, or factor of safety. μ, coefficient of friction. E, coefficient of elasticity. R, r., radius. W, w., weight. P, p., pressure or load. $H.P.$, horse-power. $I.H.P.$, indicated horse-power. $B.H.P.$, brake horse-power. $h. p.$, high pressure. $i. p.$, intermediate pressure. $l. p.$, low pressure. $A.W.G.$, American Wire Gauge (Brown & Sharpe). $B.W.G.$, Birmingham Wire Gauge. $r. p. m.$, or revs. per min., revolutions per minute.</p>
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denominators except its own for the new numerators, and all together for the common denominator:

$$\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{3}{7} = \frac{21}{42}, \frac{14}{42}, \frac{18}{42}$$

fractions.—Reduce them to a common denominator, then add their sum over the common denominator:

$$\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{3}{7} = \frac{21 + 14 + 18}{42} = \frac{53}{42} = 1\frac{11}{42}$$

subtract fractions.—Reduce them to a common denominator, then subtract the numerators and place the difference over the common denominator:

$$\frac{1}{2} - \frac{3}{7} = \frac{7 - 6}{14} = \frac{1}{14}$$

DECIMALS.

add decimals.—Set down the figures so that the decimal points are in line, then proceed as in simple addition: $18.75 + .012 = 18.762$

subtract decimals.—Set down the figures so that the decimal points are in line, then proceed as in simple subtraction: $18.75 - .012 = 18.738$

multiply decimals.—Multiply as in multiplication of whole numbers, point off as many decimal places as there are in multiplier and dividend taken together: $1.5 \times .02 = .030$

divide decimals.—Divide as in whole numbers, and point off in the dividend as many decimal places as those in the divisor, or add ciphers to the dividend to make its decimal places equal those in the divisor, and as many more as it is desired the quotient: $1.5 \div .25 = 6$, $0.1 \div 0.3 = 0.10000 \div 0.3 = 0.3333 +$

Decimal Equivalents of Fractions of One Inch.

015625	17-64	.265625	33-64	.515625	49-64	.765625
03125	9-32	.28125	17-32	.53125	25-32	.78125
046875	19-64	.296875	35-64	.546875	51-64	.796875
0625	5-16	.3125	9-16	.5625	13-16	.8125
078125	21-64	.328125	37-64	.578125	53-64	.828125
09375	11-32	.34375	19-32	.59375	27-32	.84375
109375	23-64	.359375	39-64	.609375	55-64	.859375
.125	8-8	.375	5-8	.625	7-8	.875
.140625	25-64	.390625	41-64	.640625	57-64	.890625
.15625	13-32	.40625	21-32	.65625	29-32	.90625
.171875	27-64	.421875	43-64	.671875	59-64	.921875
.1875	7-16	.4375	11-16	.6875	15-16	.9375
.203125	29-64	.453125	45-64	.703125	61-64	.953125
.21875	15-32	.46875	23-32	.71875	31-32	.96875
.234375	31-64	.484375	47-64	.734375	63-64	.984375
.25	1-2	.50	3-4	.75	1	1.

convert a common fraction into a decimal.—Divide the numerator by the denominator, adding to the numerator as many ciphers as give a decimal point as are necessary to give the number of decimal places in the result: $\frac{1}{4} = 1.0000 \div 4 = 0.2500 +$

convert a decimal into a common fraction.—Set down the decimal as a numerator, and place as the denominator 1 with as many ciphers as there are decimal places in the numerator; erase the

ARITHMETIC.

The user of this book is supposed to have had a training in arithmetic well as in elementary algebra. Only those rules are given here which are apt to be easily forgotten.

GREATEST COMMON MEASURE, OR GREATEST COMMON DIVISOR OF TWO NUMBERS.

Rule.—Divide the greater number by the less; then divide the quotient by the remainder, and so on, dividing always the last divisor by the remainder, until there is no remainder, and the last divisor is the greatest common measure required.

LEAST COMMON MULTIPLE OF TWO OR MORE NUMBERS.

Rule.—Divide the given numbers by any number that will divide the greatest number of them without a remainder, and set the quotients and the undivided numbers in a line beneath.

Divide the second line as before, and so on, until there are no two numbers that can be divided; then the continued product of the divisors and the quotients will give the multiple required.

FRACTIONS.

To reduce a common fraction to its lowest terms.—Reduce both terms by their greatest common divisor: $\frac{2}{3} = \frac{2}{3}$

To change an improper fraction to a mixed number.—Divide the numerator by the denominator; the quotient is the whole number and the remainder placed over the denominator is the fraction: $\frac{7}{3} = 2\frac{1}{3}$

To change a mixed number to an improper fraction.—Multiply the whole number by the denominator of the fraction; to the product add the numerator; place the sum over the denominator: $1\frac{1}{3} = \frac{4}{3}$

To express a whole number in the form of a fraction with a given denominator.—Multiply the whole number by the given denominator, and place the product over that denominator: $3 = \frac{36}{12}$

To reduce a compound to a simple fraction, and to multiply fractions.—Multiply the numerators together for a new numerator and the denominators together for a new denominator:

$$\frac{2}{3} \text{ of } \frac{4}{3} = \frac{8}{9}, \text{ also } \frac{2}{3} \times \frac{4}{3} = \frac{8}{9}.$$

To reduce a complex to a simple fraction.—The numerator and denominator must each first be given the form of a simple fraction; then multiply the numerator of the upper fraction by the denominator of the lower for the new numerator, and the denominator of the upper fraction by the denominator of the lower for the new denominator:

$$\frac{\frac{3}{4}}{1\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{3}{4} \div \frac{3}{2} = \frac{6}{12} = \frac{1}{2}.$$

To divide fractions.—Reduce both to the form of simple fractions; invert the divisor, and proceed as in multiplication:

$$\frac{2}{3} \div 1\frac{1}{3} = \frac{2}{3} \div \frac{4}{3} = \frac{2}{3} \times \frac{3}{4} = \frac{6}{12} = \frac{1}{2}.$$

Cancellation of fractions.—In compound or multiplied fractions, divide any numerator and any denominator by any number which divides them both without remainder, striking out the numbers thus divided, and setting down the quotients in their stead.

To reduce a compound fraction to a common denominator.—Reduce each simple fraction; then multiply each

decimal point in the numerator, and reduce the fraction thus formed to its lowest terms:

$$.25 = \frac{25}{100} = \frac{1}{4}; \quad .3333 = \frac{3333}{10000} = \frac{1}{3}, \text{ nearly.}$$

To reduce a recurring decimal to a common fraction.— Subtract the decimal figures that do not recur from the whole decimal including one set of recurring figures; set down the remainder as the numerator of the fraction, and as many nines as there are recurring figures, followed by as many ciphers as there are non-recurring figures, in the denominator. Thus:

.79054034, the recurring figures being 054.
Subtract $\frac{79}{99900}$

$$\frac{78975}{99900} = (\text{reduced to its lowest terms}) \frac{117}{148}$$

COMPOUND OR DENOMINATE NUMBERS.

Reduction descending.—To reduce a compound number to a lower denomination. Multiply the number by as many units of the lower denomination as makes one of the higher.

3 yards to inches: $3 \times 36 = 108$ inches.

.04 square feet to square inches: $.04 \times 144 = 5.76$ sq. in.

If the given number is in more than one denomination proceed in steps from the highest denomination to the next lower, and so on to the lowest, adding in the units of each denomination as the operation proceeds.

3 yds, 1 ft. 7 in. to inches: $3 \times 3 = 9, + 1 = 10, 10 \times 12 = 120, + 7 = 127$ in.

Reduction ascending.—To express a number of a lower denomination in terms of a higher, divide the number by the number of units of the lower denomination contained in one of the next higher; the quotient is in the higher denomination, and the remainder, if any, in the lower. 127 inches to higher denomination.

$127 \div 12 = 10$ feet + 7 inches; 10 feet + 3 = 3 yards + 1 foot.
Ans. 3 yds. 1 ft. 7 in.

To express the result in decimals of the higher denomination, divide the given number by the number of units of the given denomination contained in one of the required denomination, carrying the result to as many places of decimals as may be desired.

127 inches to yards: $127 \div 36 = 3\frac{1}{3} = 3.5277 +$ yards.

RATIO AND PROPORTION.

Ratio is the relation of one number to another, as obtained by dividing one by the other.

Ratio of 2 to 4, or $2 : 4 = 2/4 = 1/2$.

Ratio of 4 to 2, or $4 : 2 = 2$.

Proportion is the equality of two ratios. Ratio of 2 to 4 equals ratio of 3 to 6, $2/4 = 3/6$; expressed thus, $2 : 4 :: 3 : 6$; read, 2 is to 4 as 3 is to 6. The first and fourth terms are called the extremes or outer terms, the second and third the means or inner terms.

The product of the means equals the product of the extremes:

$2 : 4 :: 3 : 6; 2 \times 6 = 12; 3 \times 4 = 12$.

Hence, given the first three terms to find the fourth, multiply the second and third terms together and divide by the first.

$2 : 4 :: 8 : \text{what number?}$ Ans. $\frac{4 \times 8}{2} = 16$.

Product of Fractions Expressed in Decimals.

$\frac{1}{16}$	$\frac{1}{8}$	$\frac{3}{16}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{5}{16}$	$\frac{3}{8}$	$\frac{7}{16}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{9}{16}$	$\frac{5}{8}$	$\frac{11}{16}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{13}{16}$	$\frac{7}{8}$	$\frac{15}{16}$	1
.0625	.0089														
.1250	.0078	.0150													
.1875	.0117	.0234	.0532												
.2500	.0156	.0313	.0469	.0625											
.3125	.0195	.0391	.0586	.0781	.0977										
.3750	.0231	.0469	.0703	.0937	.1172	.1406									
.4375	.0273	.0517	.0820	.1098	.1367	.1611	.1914								
.5000	.0313	.0625	.0938	.1250	.1562	.1875	.2188	.2500							
.5625	.0352	.0703	.1055	.1406	.1758	.2109	.2461	.2813	.3164						
.6250	.0391	.0781	.1172	.1562	.1953	.2344	.2734	.3125	.3516	.3906					
.6875	.0430	.0859	.1289	.1719	.2148	.2578	.3008	.3438	.3867	.4297	.4727				
.7500	.0469	.0938	.1406	.1875	.2344	.2813	.3281	.3750	.4219	.4688	.5156	.5625			

$\frac{1}{16}$ $\frac{1}{8}$ $\frac{3}{16}$ $\frac{1}{4}$ $\frac{5}{16}$ $\frac{3}{8}$ $\frac{7}{16}$ $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{9}{16}$ $\frac{5}{8}$ $\frac{11}{16}$ $\frac{3}{4}$ $\frac{13}{16}$ $\frac{7}{8}$ $\frac{15}{16}$ 1

small point in the numerator, and reduce the fraction thus formed to its best terms:

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$$\begin{array}{r} \text{Subtract} \quad .79054054, \text{ the recurring figures being } 054. \\ \quad \quad \quad 79 \\ \hline \quad \quad \quad 78975 \\ \quad \quad \quad 99900 \end{array} = (\text{reduced to its lowest terms}) \frac{117}{148}$$

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127 inches to higher denomination.

$$127 \div 12 = 10 \text{ feet } + 7 \text{ inches; } 10 \text{ feet } \div 3 = 3 \text{ yards } + 1 \text{ foot.}$$

Ans. 3 yds. 1 ft. 7 in.

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The product of the means equals the product of the extremes:

$$2 : 4 :: 3 : 6; \quad 2 \times 6 = 12; \quad 3 \times 4 = 12.$$

Hence, given the first three terms to find the fourth, multiply the second and third terms together and divide by the first.

$$2 : 4 :: 3 : \text{what number?} \quad \text{Ans. } \frac{4 \times 3}{2} = 6.$$

dividing the index of the power by the index of the root, indicating the division by a fraction. Thus, extract the square root of the 6th power of 2:

$$\sqrt[2]{2^6} = 2^{\frac{6}{2}} = 2^3 = 2^3 = 8.$$

The 6th power of 2, as in the table above, is 64; $\sqrt[6]{64} = 8$.

Difficult problems in evolution are performed by logarithms, but the square root and the cube root may be extracted directly according to the rules given below. The 4th root is the square root of the square root. The 6th root is the cube root of the square root, or the square root of the cube root; the 9th root is the cube root of the cube root; etc.

To Extract the Square Root.—Point off the given number into periods of two places each, beginning with units. If there are decimals, point these off likewise, beginning at the decimal point, and supplying as many ciphers as may be needed. Find the greatest number whose square is less than the first left-hand period, and place it as the first figure in the quotient. Subtract its square from the left-hand period, and to the remainder annex the two figures of the second period for a dividend. Double the first figure of the quotient for a partial divisor; find how many times the latter is contained in the dividend exclusive of the right-hand figure, and set the figure representing that number of times as the second figure in the quotient, and annex it to the right of the partial divisor, forming the complete divisor. Multiply this divisor by the second figure in the quotient and subtract the product from the dividend. To the remainder bring down the next period and proceed as before, in each case doubling the figures in the root already found to obtain the trial divisor. Should the product of the second figure in the root by the completed divisor be greater than the dividend, erase the second figure both from the quotient and from the divisor, and substitute the next smaller figure, or one small enough to make the product of the second figure by the divisor less than or equal to the dividend.

$$\begin{array}{r} 3.1415926536 | 1.77245 + \\ 1 \\ \hline 27 \overline{) 214} \\ \underline{189} \\ 347 \overline{) 2515} \\ \underline{2429} \\ 3542 \overline{) 8692} \\ \underline{7084} \\ 35444 \overline{) 160865} \\ \underline{141776} \\ 354485 \overline{) 1908936} \\ \underline{1772425} \end{array}$$

To extract the square root of a fraction, extract the root of numerator and denominator separately. $\sqrt{\frac{4}{9}} = \frac{2}{3}$ or first convert the fraction into a

decimal, $\sqrt{\frac{4}{9}} = \sqrt{.4444 +} = .6666 +$.

To Extract the Cube Root.—Point off the number into periods of 3 figures each, beginning at the right hand, or unit's place. Point off decimals in periods of 3 figures from the decimal point. Find the greatest cube that does not exceed the left-hand period; write its root as the first figure in the required root. Subtract the cube from the left-hand period, and to the remainder bring down the next period for a dividend.

Square the first figure of the root; multiply by 300, and divide the product into the dividend for a trial divisor; write the quotient after the first figure of the root as a trial second figure.

Complete the divisor by adding to 300 times the square of the first figure 30 times the product of the first by the second figure, and the square of the second figure. Multiply this divisor by the second figure; subtract the product from the remainder. (Should the product be greater than the remainder, the last figure of the root and the complete divisor are too

to for the last figure the next smaller number, and correct the trial accordingly.)

remainder bring down the next period, and proceed as before to third figure of the root—that is, square the two figures of the root found; multiply by 300 for a trial divisor, etc.

any time the trial divisor is less than the dividend, bring down another of 3 figures, and place 0 in the root and proceed.

The cube root of a number will contain as many figures as there are of 3 in the number.

Other Methods of Extracting the Cube Root.—1. From *Orth's Algebra*:

$$\begin{array}{r}
 1,881,265,963,625 \overline{)12345} \\
 \underline{1} \\
 300 \times 1^3 = 300 \quad 881 \\
 30 \times 1 \times 2 = 60 \quad \underline{60} \\
 3^3 = 27 \quad \underline{4} \\
 \left. \begin{array}{l} 364 \\ 64 \end{array} \right\} 728 \\
 \hline
 300 \times 12^3 = 43200 \quad 153965 \\
 30 \times 12 \times 2 = 720 \quad \underline{43200} \\
 3^3 = 27 \quad \underline{1030} \\
 \hline
 44289 \quad 182867 \\
 \underline{1089} \quad 20198963 \\
 \hline
 300 \times 123^3 = 4533700 \\
 30 \times 123 \times 4 = 14760 \\
 4^3 = 64 \\
 \left. \begin{array}{l} 453476 \\ 14776 \end{array} \right\} 18218904 \\
 \hline
 300 \times 1234^3 = 456836800 \\
 30 \times 1234 \times 5 = 185100 \\
 5^3 = 125 \\
 \hline
 457011925 \quad 2285059625
 \end{array}$$

the first two figures of the root are found the next trial divisor is by bringing down the sum of the 60 and 4 obtained in completing the trial divisor, then adding the three lines connected by the brace, and so on for the next two figures. This method shortens the work in long examples, as in the case of the last two trial divisors, saving the labor of squaring the 0 figures of the root by division, the divisor employed being three times the square of the part of the root already found; thus, after finding the first three figures:

$$\begin{array}{r}
 3 \times 123^2 = 45387 \overline{)20498963} \underline{45.1} + \\
 \underline{181548} \\
 281416 \\
 \underline{286995} \\
 74813
 \end{array}$$

if due to the remainder is not sufficient to change the fifth figure of the root.

Prof. H. A. Wood (*Stevens Indicator*, July, 1890):
 dividing separated the number into periods of three figures each, counting from the right, divide by the square of the nearest root of the first or first two periods; the nearest root is the trial root.
 to the quotient obtained add twice the trial root, and divide by 3. This is the root, or first approximation.
 Using the first approximate root as a new trial root, and proceeding in the same manner, a nearer approximation is obtained, which process may be repeated until the root has been extracted, or the approximation carried as far as desired.

EXAMPLE.—Required the cube root of 20. The nearest cube

$$3^3 = 9)20.0$$

$$\frac{2.2}{6}$$

$$3)8.1$$

2.7 1st T. R.

$$2.7^3 = 7.29)20.000$$

$$\frac{2.743}{5.4}$$

$$3)8.143$$

2.714, 1st ap. cube root.

$$2.714^3 = 7.365796)20.000000$$

$$\frac{2.7152534}{5.428}$$

$$3)8.1432534$$

2.7144178 2d ap. cube root.

REMARK.—In the example it will be observed that the sec first two figures of the root, were obtained by using for trial ro the first period. Using, in like manner, these two terms for obtained four terms of the root; and these four terms for tr seven figures of the root correct. In that example the last fig 7. Should we take these eight figures for trial root we should c fifteen figures of the root correct.

To Extract a Higher Root than the Cube.—The the square root of the square root; the sixth root is the cub square root or the square root of the cube root. Other roots i veniently found by the use of logarithms.

ALLIGATION

shows the value of a mixture of different ingredients when and value of each is known.

Let the ingredients be a, b, c, d , etc., and their respective vs w, x, y, z , etc.

A = the sum of the quantities = $a + b + c + d$, etc

P = mean value or price per unit of A .

$AP = aw + bx + cy + dz$, etc.

$$P = \frac{aw + bx + cy + dz}{A}$$

PERMUTATION

shows in how many positions any number of things may be row; thus, the letters a, b, c may be arranged in six positions, cab, cba, bac, bca .

Rule.—Multiply together all the numbers used in counting the permutations of 1, 2, and 3 = $1 \times 2 \times 3 = 6$. In how many p things in a row be placed?

$$1 \times 2 \times 3 \times 4 \times 5 \times 6 \times 7 \times 8 \times 9 = 362880.$$

COMBINATION

shows how many arrangements of a few things may be m greater number. **Rule.** Set down that figure which indicate number, and after it a series of figures diminishing by 1, until set down as the number of the few things to be taken in each. Then beginning under the last one set down said number of then set down a series diminishing by 1 until a the lower numbers. Multiply together all the upper the lower numbers to form another

GEOMETRICAL PROGRESSION.

How many combinations of 9 things can be made, taking 3 in each combination?

$$\frac{9 \times 8 \times 7}{1 \times 2 \times 3} = \frac{504}{6} = 84.$$

ARITHMETICAL PROGRESSION,

In a series of numbers, is a progressive increase or decrease in each successive number by the addition or subtraction of the same amount at each step, as 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, etc., or 15, 12, 9, 6, etc. The numbers are called terms, equal increase or decrease the difference. Examples in arithmetical progression may be solved by the following formulæ:

Let a = first term, l = last term, d = common difference, n = number of terms, s = sum of the terms:

$$\begin{aligned} l &= a + (n - 1)d, & &= -\frac{1}{2}d \pm \sqrt{2ds + \left(a - \frac{1}{2}d\right)^2} \\ &= \frac{2s}{n} - a, & &= \frac{s}{n} + \frac{(n-1)d}{2}. \\ s &= \frac{1}{2}n[2a + (n-1)d], & &= \frac{l+a}{2} + \frac{l^2-a^2}{2d}, \\ &= (l+a)\frac{n}{2}, & &= \frac{1}{2}n[2l - (n-1)d]. \\ a &= l - (n-1)d, & &= \frac{s}{n} - \frac{(n-1)d}{2}, \\ &= \frac{1}{2}d \pm \sqrt{\left(l + \frac{1}{2}d\right)^2 - 2ds}, & &= \frac{2s}{n} - l. \\ d &= \frac{l-a}{n-1}, & &= \frac{2(s-an)}{n(n-1)}, \\ &= \frac{l^2-a^2}{2s-l-a}, & &= \frac{2(nl-s)}{n(n-1)}. \\ n &= \frac{l-a}{d} + 1, & &= \frac{d-2a \pm \sqrt{(2a-d)^2 + 8c}}{2d} \\ &= \frac{2s}{l+a}, & &= \frac{2l+d \pm \sqrt{(2l+d)^2 - 8ds}}{2d} \end{aligned}$$

GEOMETRICAL PROGRESSION,

In a series of numbers, is a progressive increase or decrease in each successive number by the same multiplier or divisor at each step, as 2, 4, 8, 16, etc., or 243, 81, 27, 9, etc. The common multiplier is called the ratio.

Let a = first term, l = last term, r = ratio or constant multiplier, n = number of terms, m = any term, as 1st, 2d, etc., s = sum of the terms

$$\begin{aligned} l &= ar^{n-1}, & &= \frac{a+(r-1)s}{r}, & &= \frac{(r-1)ar^{n-1}}{r^n-1}, \\ \log l &= \log a + (n-1) \log r, & & & &= (s-l)^{n-1} - (a-s-a)^n \\ m &= ar^{m-1}, & & \log m &= \log a + (m-1) \log r. \\ s &= \frac{a(r^n-1)}{r-1}, & & = \frac{rl-a}{r-1}, & &= \frac{n-\sqrt[3]{n^3}-n-\sqrt[3]{a^3}}{n-\sqrt[3]{1}-n-\sqrt[3]{a}} \end{aligned}$$

$$a = \frac{l}{r^n - 1}, \quad \leq \frac{(r-1)s}{r^n - 1}, \quad \log a = \log l - (n-1) \log r$$

$$r = \frac{n-1}{\sqrt[n]{a}}, \quad = \frac{s-a}{s-l}, \quad \log r = \frac{\log l - \log a}{n-1}$$

$$r^n - \frac{s}{a} r + \frac{s-a}{a} = 0, \quad r^n - \frac{s}{s-l} r^{n-1} + \frac{l}{s-l} = 0,$$

$$n = \frac{\log l - \log a}{\log r} + 1, \quad = \frac{\log [s + (r-1)a] - \log a}{\log r},$$

$$= \frac{\log l - \log a}{\log (s-a) - \log (s-l)} + 1, \quad = \frac{\log l - \log [l - (r-1)s]}{\log r} + 1$$

Population of the United States.

(A problem in geometrical progression.)

Year.	Population.	Increase in 10 Years, per cent.	Annual Increase, per cent.
1860	31,443,321		
1870	39,819,449*	26.63	2.39
1880	50,155,783	25.96	2.33
1890	62,632,250	24.86	2.25
1895	Est. 69,733,000		Est. 2.174
1900	“ 77,652,000	Est. 24.0	“ 2.174

Estimated Population in Each Year from 1860 to 1899.

(Based on the above rates of increase, in even thousands)

1860	31,443	1870	39,818	1880	50,156	1890	62,632
1861	32,195	1871	40,748	1881	51,261	1891	65
1862	32,964	1872	41,699	1882	52,433	1892	61
1863	33,752	1873	42,673	1883	53,610	1893	64
1864	34,558	1874	43,670	1884	54,813	1894	62
1865	35,384	1875	44,690	1885	56,043	1895	61
1866	36,229	1876	45,733	1886	57,301	1896	57
1867	37,095	1877	46,800	1887	58,588	1897	57
1868	37,981	1878	47,893	1888	59,908	1898	57
1869	38,889	1879	49,011	1889	61,247	1899	57

The above table has been calculated by logarithms, as follows:

$$\log r = \log l - \log a + (n-1), \quad \log m = \log a + (m-1) \log r$$

$$\text{Pop. 1870} \dots 39,818,449 \log = 7.6000841 \quad = \log l$$

$$\text{“ 1860} \dots 31,443,321 \log = 7.4975288 \quad = \log a$$

$$\text{diff.} = .1025553$$

$$n = 11, n-1 = 10, \text{diff.} + 10 = .01025553 \quad = \log r,$$

$$\text{add log for 1860} \quad 7.4975288 \quad = \log a$$

$$\log \text{ for 1861} = 7.50778433 \text{ No.} = 32,195 \dots$$

$$\text{add again} \quad .01025553$$

$$\log \text{ for 1862} \quad 7.51803986 \text{ No.} = 32,964 \dots$$

Compound interest is a form of geometrical progression; the 1 being 1 plus the percentage.

*90,078, estimated error of the census of 1890.

INTEREST AND DISCOUNT.

Interest is money paid for the use of money for a given time; the factors are:

p , the sum loaned, or the principal;

t , the time in years;

r , the rate of interest;

i , the amount of interest for the given rate and time;

$a = p + i$ = the amount of the principal with interest at the end of the time.

Formula:

$$i = \text{interest} = \text{principal} \times \text{time} \times \text{rate per cent} = i = \frac{ptr}{100};$$

$$a = \text{amount} = \text{principal} + \text{interest} = p + \frac{ptr}{100};$$

$$r = \text{rate} = \frac{100i}{pt};$$

$$p = \text{principal} = \frac{100i}{tr} = a - \frac{ptr}{100};$$

$$t = \text{time} = \frac{100i}{pr}.$$

The rate is expressed decimally as a per cent,—thus, 6 per cent = .06,—formulas become

$$i = prt; \quad a = p(1 + rt); \quad r = \frac{i}{pt}; \quad t = \frac{i}{pr}; \quad p = \frac{i}{tr} = \frac{a}{1 + rt}.$$

Rules for finding Interest.—Multiply the principal by the rate annum divided by 100, and by the time in years and fractions of a year.

If the time is given in days, interest = $\frac{\text{principal} \times \text{rate} \times \text{no. of days}}{365 \times 100}$.

Bank interest is sometimes calculated on the basis of 360 days to a year or 12 months of 30 days each.

Bank rules for interest at 6 per cent, when 360 days are taken as 1 year:

Multiply the principal by number of days and divide by 6000.

Multiply the principal by number of months and divide by 200.

Interest of 1 dollar for one month is $\frac{1}{2}$ cent.

Interest of 100 Dollars for Different Times and Rates.

Time.	2%	3%	4%	5%	6%	8%	10%
1 year	\$2.00	\$3.00	\$4.00	\$5.00	\$6.00	\$8.00	\$10.00
1 month	.167	.25	.333	.417	.50	.667	.833
$t = \frac{1}{12}$ year	.00556	.00833	.01111	.01389	.01667	.02222	.02778
$t = \frac{1}{24}$ year	.005479	.008219	.010959	.013699	.016438	.0219178	.0273073

Discount is interest deducted for payment of money before it is due.

The **discount** is the difference between the amount of a debt payable at a future date without interest and its present worth. The present worth is that sum which put at interest at the legal rate will amount to the debt when it is due.

To find the present worth of an amount due at future date, divide the amount by the amount of \$1 placed at interest for the given time. The discount equals the amount minus the present worth.

What discount should be allowed on \$103 paid six months before it is due, the rate being 6 per cent per annum?

$$\frac{103}{1 + 1 \times .06 \times \frac{1}{2}} = \$100 \text{ present worth, discount} = 3.00.$$

Bank discount is the amount deducted by a bank as interest on money loaned on promissory notes. It is interest calculated not on the net amount loaned, but on the gross amount of the note, from which the discount is deducted in advance. It is also calculated on the basis of 360 days a year, and for 3 (in some banks 4) days more than the time specified in the note. These are called days of grace, and the note is not payable until the end of these days. In some States days of grace have been abolished.

ARITHMETIC.

What discount will be deducted by a bank in discounting a payable 6 months hence? Six months = 182 days, add 8 day days $\frac{108 \times 185}{6000} = \3.176 .

Compound Interest.—In compound interest the interest the principal at the end of each year, (or shorter period if agreed). Let p = the principal, r = the rate expressed decimally, n = and a the amount:

$$a = \text{amount} = p(1+r)^n; \quad r = \text{rate} = \sqrt[n]{\frac{a}{p}} - 1,$$

$$p = \text{principal} = \frac{a}{(1+r)^n}, \quad \text{no of years} = n = \frac{\log a - \log p}{\log(1+r)}$$

Compound Interest Table.

(Value of one dollar at compound interest, compounded yearly, 3, 4, 5, and 6 per cent, from 1 to 50 years.)

Years.	3%	4%	5%	6%	Years.	3%	4%	5%
1	1.03	1.04	1.05	1.06	16	1.6047	1.8730	2.1829
2	1.0609	1.0816	1.1025	1.1236	17	1.6523	1.9479	2.2930
3	1.0927	1.1249	1.1576	1.1910	18	1.7024	2.0258	2.4066
4	1.1255	1.1699	1.2155	1.2625	19	1.7535	2.1068	2.5259
5	1.1593	1.2166	1.2763	1.3382	20	1.8061	2.1911	2.6533
6	1.1941	1.2653	1.3401	1.4185	21	1.8603	2.2787	2.7860
7	1.2299	1.3159	1.4071	1.5036	22	1.9161	2.3699	2.9252
8	1.2668	1.3686	1.4774	1.5938	23	1.9736	2.4647	3.0715
9	1.3048	1.4233	1.5513	1.6895	24	2.0328	2.5633	3.2251
10	1.3439	1.4802	1.6289	1.7908	25	2.0937	2.6658	3.3864
11	1.3842	1.5394	1.7103	1.8983	30	2.4272	3.2434	4.3219
12	1.4258	1.6010	1.7958	2.0122	35	2.8138	3.9160	5.5166
13	1.4685	1.6651	1.8856	2.1329	40	3.2620	4.8009	7.0100
14	1.5126	1.7317	1.9799	2.2609	45	3.7815	5.8410	8.9950
15	1.5580	1.8009	2.0789	2.3965	50	4.3833	7.1064	11.6792

At compound interest at 3 per cent money will double itself in 23½ y at 4 per cent in 17½ years, at 5 per cent in 14.2 years, and at 6 per ce 11.9 years.

EQUATION OF PAYMENTS.

By equation of payments we find the equivalent or average time in a payment should be made to cancel a number of obligations due at rent dates; also the number of days upon which to calculate interest upon a gross sum which is composed of several smaller sums at different dates.

Rule.—Multiply each item by the time of its maturity in days from date, taken as a standard, and divide the sum of the products by the sum of the items; the result is the average time in days from the standard date.

owes B \$100 due in 30 days, \$200 due in 60 days, and \$300 due in 90 days. How many days may the whole be paid in one sum of \$600?

$$100 \times 30 + 200 \times 60 + 300 \times 90 = 42,000; \quad 42,000 \div 600 = 70 \text{ days, ans}$$

owes B \$100, \$200, and \$300, which amounts are overdue respectively 30, 60, and 90 days. How many days may the whole amount, \$600, be paid in one sum? **Ans.** 70 days.

PARTIAL PAYMENTS.

pute interest on notes and bonds when partial payments have been

United States Rule.—Find the amount of the principal to the time at payment, and, subtracting the payment from it, find the amount remainder as a new principal to the time of the next payment. If the payment is less than the interest, find the amount of the principal when the sum of the payments equals or exceeds the interest subtract the sum of the payments from this amount. Proceed in this manner till the time of settlement.

—The principles upon which the preceding rule is founded are: that payments must be applied first to discharge accrued interest, the remainder, if any, toward the discharge of the principal. At only unpaid principal can draw interest.

Contingent Method.—When partial payments are made on short interest accounts, business men commonly employ the following

rule: Find the amount of the whole debt to the time of settlement; also find the amount of each payment from the time it was made to the time of settlement. Subtract the amount of payments from the amount of the debt; the remainder will be the balance due.

ANNUITIES.

An **annuity** is a fixed sum of money paid yearly, or at other equal times upon a sum of money. The values of annuities are calculated by the principles of compound interest.

If i denote interest on \$1 for a year, then at the end of a year the amount will be $1+i$. At the end of n years it will be $(1+i)^n$.

The sum which in n years will amount to 1 is $\frac{1}{(1+i)^n}$ or $(1+i)^{-n}$, or the value of 1 due in n years.

The amount of an annuity of 1 in any number of years n is $\frac{(1+i)^n - 1}{i}$.

The present value of an annuity of 1 for any number of years n is $\frac{1 - (1+i)^{-n}}{i}$.

The annuity which 1 will purchase for any number of years n is $\frac{i}{1 - (1+i)^{-n}}$.

The annuity which would amount to 1 in n years is $\frac{i}{(1+i)^n - 1}$.

Tables, Present Values, etc., at 5% Interest.

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
$(1+i)^n$	$(1+i)^{-n}$	$\frac{(1+i)^n - 1}{i}$	$\frac{1 - (1+i)^{-n}}{i}$	$\frac{i}{1 - (1+i)^{-n}}$	$\frac{i}{(1+i)^n - 1}$
1.05	.952881	1.	.952881	1.05	1.
1.1025	.907029	2.05	1.859410	.537805	.487805
1.157625	.863888	3.1595	2.728248	.367209	.317209
1.215506	.822702	4.310125	3.548951	.282012	.232012
1.276282	.783526	5.525631	4.329477	.230975	.180975
1.340096	.746215	6.801913	5.075692	.197017	.147018
1.407100	.710691	8.142008	5.786373	.172820	.122820
1.477455	.676889	9.549109	6.463213	.154722	.104722
1.551328	.644609	11.022564	7.107822	.140690	.090690
1.628865	.613813	12.577893	7.721735	.129605	.079605

Table I.—Annuity Required to Redeem \$1000 in from 1 to 50 Years.

Years to Run.	Rate of Interest, per cent.										
	2	2½	3	3½	4	4½	5	5½	6		
2	495.05	494.50	493.23	492.05	491.42	490.81	490.20	489.40	487.80	486.62	485.43
3	326.72	325.94	324.35	322.75	321.94	321.13	320.36	318.77	317.21	315.63	314.10
4	242.63	241.74	239.93	238.14	237.26	236.38	235.50	233.74	232.01	230.39	228.60
5	192.16	191.18	189.30	187.42	186.49	185.56	184.63	182.79	180.96	179.18	177.39
6	158.53	157.53	155.58	153.64	152.67	151.73	150.79	148.88	147.02	145.18	143.36
7	134.52	133.51	131.50	129.54	128.57	127.59	126.61	124.67	122.82	120.96	119.18
8	116.51	115.48	113.46	111.47	110.48	109.50	108.53	106.60	104.73	102.86	101.03
9	102.52	101.48	99.45	97.44	96.44	95.46	94.49	92.57	90.69	88.83	87.02
10	91.33	90.29	88.24	86.24	85.24	84.26	83.29	81.36	79.50	77.67	75.87
11	82.18	81.14	79.09	77.08	76.09	75.12	74.15	72.25	70.39	68.57	66.79
12	74.95	73.82	71.47	69.47	68.48	67.51	66.55	64.67	62.83	61.03	59.28
13	68.12	66.95	64.03	62.05	61.06	60.10	59.14	56.37	54.65	52.96	51.28
14	62.60	61.36	58.53	56.55	55.57	54.62	53.67	50.89	49.26	47.68	46.13
15	57.83	56.79	53.77	52.79	51.82	50.88	49.94	46.11	44.54	43.02	41.54
16	53.65	52.62	49.61	48.64	47.68	46.70	45.82	44.01	42.37	40.89	39.46
17	49.97	48.94	45.95	44.99	44.04	43.12	42.20	40.43	38.70	37.04	35.44
18	46.70	45.67	42.69	41.76	40.82	39.90	38.99	37.24	35.54	33.92	32.36
19	43.78	42.76	39.78	38.87	37.94	37.04	36.14	34.40	32.75	31.15	29.62
20	41.15	40.14	37.18	36.29	35.36	34.47	33.56	31.87	30.24	28.64	27.18
25	31.22	30.24	27.43	26.55	25.67	24.84	24.01	22.44	20.95	19.55	18.23
30	24.05	23.70	21.02	20.19	19.37	18.60	17.88	16.39	15.05	13.80	12.65
35	19.09	18.30	16.54	15.77	15.00	14.29	13.63	12.37	11.07	9.97	8.97
40	15.66	15.04	14.06	13.24	12.58	11.97	11.39	10.03	8.84	7.83	6.96
45	13.81	13.07	12.37	11.62	11.04	10.50	9.98	8.60	7.50	6.48	5.64
50	11.84	11.03	10.36	9.56	8.95	8.43	7.93	6.55	5.60	4.73	3.94

TABLES FOR CALCULATING SINKING-FUNDS AND PRESENT VALUES.

Engineers and others connected with municipal work and industrial enterprises often find it necessary to calculate payments to sinking-funds which will provide a sum of money sufficient to pay off a bond issue or other debt at the end of a given period, or to determine the present value of certain annual charges. The accompanying tables were computed by Mr. John W. Hill, of Cincinnati, *Eng'g News*, Jan. 25, 1891.

Table I (opposite page) shows the annual sum at various rates of interest required to net \$1000 in from 2 to 50 years, and Table II shows the present value at various rates of interest of an annual charge of \$1000 for from 5 to 50 years, at five-year intervals and for 100 years.

Table II.—Capitalization of Annuity of \$1000 for from 5 to 100 Years.

Years.	Rate of Interest, per cent.							
	2½	3	3½	4	4½	5	5½	6
5	4,645.68	4,579.60	4,514.92	4,451.68	4,389.91	4,329.45	4,269.09	4,212.40
10	8,752.17	8,590.13	8,316.45	8,110.74	7,912.67	7,721.73	7,537.54	7,360.19
15	12,391.41	11,937.80	11,517.23	11,118.06	10,739.42	10,379.53	10,037.48	9,712.30
20	15,589.215	14,877.27	14,212.12	13,590.21	13,007.86	12,462.13	11,950.26	11,469.96
25	18,424.67	17,413.01	16,481.28	15,621.03	14,823.12	14,093.86	13,413.32	12,783.33
30	20,930.59	19,600.21	18,391.85	17,391.86	16,388.77	15,372.36	14,533.63	13,764.85
35	23,145.31	21,487.04	20,000.43	18,664.37	17,460.89	16,374.36	15,390.48	14,488.65
40	25,103.53	23,114.36	21,354.83	19,792.65	18,401.49	17,159.01	16,044.92	15,046.31
45	26,833.15	24,513.49	22,495.23	20,719.89	19,156.24	17,773.99	16,547.65	15,455.85
50	28,362.48	25,729.58	23,455.21	21,482.08	19,761.93	18,255.86	16,931.97	15,761.87
100	36,614.21	31,593.81	27,655.36	24,504.96	21,949.21	19,847.90	18,065.83	16,612.64

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

Long Measure.—Measures of Length.

- 12 inches = 1 foot.
- 3 feet = 1 yard.
- 5½ yards, or 16½ feet = 1 rod, pole, or perch.
- 40 poles, or 220 yards = 1 furlong.
- 8 furlongs, or 1760 yards, or 5280 feet = 1 mile.
- 3 miles = 1 league.

Additional measures of length in occasional use: 1000 mills = 1 inch; 4 inches = 1 hand; 9 inches = 1 span; 2½ feet = 1 military pace; 2 yards = 1 fathom.

Old Land Measure.—7.92 inches = 1 link; 100 links, or 66 feet, or 4 poles = 1 chain; 10 chains = 1 furlong; 8 furlongs = 1 mile; 10 square chains = 1 acre.

Nautical Measure.

- 6080.26 feet, or 1.15156 statute miles } = 1 nautical mile, or knot.*
- 3 nautical miles = 1 league.
- 60 nautical miles, or 69.168 statute miles } = 1 degree (at the equator).
- 360 degrees = circumference of the earth at the equator.

*The British Admiralty takes the round figure of 6080 ft. which is the length of the "measured mile" used in trials of vessels. The value varies from 6062.39 to 6082.44 ft. according to different measures of the earth's diameter. There is a difference of opinion among writers as to the use of the word "knot" to mean length or a distance—some holding that it should.

Square Measure.—Measures of Surface.

144 square inches, or 183.35 circular inches	}	= 1 square foot.
9 square feet		
30 $\frac{1}{2}$ square yards, or 272 $\frac{1}{2}$ square feet	}	= 1 square rod, pole, or perch
40 square poles		
4 roods, or 10 sq. chains, or 160 sq. poles, or 4840 sq. yards, or 43560 sq. feet,	}	= 1 acre.
640 acres		
		= 1 square mile.

An acre equals a square whose side is 208.71 feet.

A circular inch is the area of a circle 1 inch in diameter = 0.7854 sq. inch.

1 square inch = 1.2732 circular inches.

A circular mil is the area of a circle 1 mil, or .001 inch in diameter = 1,000,000 circular mils = 1 circular inch.

1 square inch = 1,273,239 circular mils.

The mil, and circular mil are used in electrical calculations involving the diameter and area of wires.

Solid or Cubic Measure.—Measures of Volume.

1728 cubic inches = 1 cubic foot.

27 cubic feet = 1 cubic yard.

1 cord of wood = a pile, 4 × 4 × 8 feet = 128 cubic feet.

1 perch of masonry = 16 $\frac{1}{2}$ × 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ × 1 foot = 24 $\frac{1}{2}$ cubic feet.

Liquid Measure.

4 gills	= 1 pint.	
2 pints	= 1 quart.	
4 quarts	= 1 gallon	} U. S. 231 cubic inches. } Eng. 277.274 cubic inches.
31 $\frac{1}{2}$ gallons	= 1 barrel.	
42 gallons	= 1 tierce.	
2 barrels, or 63 gallons	= 1 hogshead.	
84 gallons, or 2 tierces	= 1 puncheon.	
2 hogsheads, or 126 gallons	= 1 pipe or butt.	
2 pipes, or 3 puncheons	= 1 tun.	

The U. S. gallon contains 231 cubic inches; 7.4805 gallons = 1 cubic foot. A cylinder 7 in. diam. and 6 in. high contains 1 gallon, very nearly, or 1 cubic inches. The British Imperial gallon contains 277.274 cubic inches = 1.20032 U. S. gallon.

The Miner's Inch.—(Western U. S. for measuring flow of a stream of water).

The term Miner's Inch is more or less indefinite, for the reason that (for water companies do not all use the same head above the centre of the aperture, and the inch varies from 1.36 to 1.73 cubic feet per minute each; but the most common measurement is through an aperture 2 in. high and whatever length is required, and through a plank 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ inches thick. The lower edge of the aperture should be 2 inches above the bottom of measuring-box, and the plank 5 inches high above the aperture, thus raising a 6-inch head above the centre of the stream. Each square inch of opening represents a miner's inch, which is equal to a flow of 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ cubic feet per minute.

Apothecaries' Fluid Measure.

60 minims	= 1 fluid drachm.
8 drachms, or 437 $\frac{1}{2}$ grains, or 1.732 cubic inches	= 1 fluid ounce.

Dry Measure, U. S.

2 pints	= 1 quart.
8 quarts	= 1 peck.
4 pecks	= 1 bushel.

used only to denote a rate of speed. The length between knots on the line is $\frac{1}{10}$ of a fathom, or 50 f. when a half-minute glass is used that a speed of 4 to 10 nautical miles per hour.

The standard U. S. bushel is the Winchester bushel, which is in cylinder form, 18½ inches diameter and 8 inches deep, and contains 2150.42 cubic inches.

A struck bushel contains 2150.42 cubic inches = 1.2445 cu. ft. : 1 cubic foot = 0.80376 struck bushel. A heaped bushel is a cylinder 18½ inches diameter and 8 inches deep, with a heaped cone not less than 6 inches high. It is equal to 1¼ struck bushels.

The British Imperial bushel is based on the Imperial gallon, and contains such gallons, or 2218.192 cubic inches = 1.2837 cubic feet. The English pinter = 8 Imperial bushels.

Capacity of a cylinder in U. S. gallons = square of diameter, in inches × weight in inches × .0084. (Accurate within 1 part in 100,000.)

Capacity of a cylinder in U. S. bushels = square of diameter in inches × weight in inches × .0008652.

Shipping Measure.

Register Ton—For register tonnage or for measurement of the entire internal capacity of a vessel:

100 cubic feet = 1 register ton.

This number is arbitrarily assumed to facilitate computation.

Shipping Ton.—For the measurement of cargo:

40 cubic feet =	{ 1 U. S. shipping ton. 31.16 Imp. bushels. 32.143 U. S. "
42 cubic feet =	{ 1 British shipping ton. 32.719 Imp. bushels. 33.75 U. S. "

Carpenter's Rule.—Weight a vessel will carry = length of keel × breadth of main beam × depth of hold in feet + 95 (the cubic feet allowed for a ton). The result will be the tonnage. For a double-decker instead of the depth of the hold take half the breadth of the beam.

Measures of Weight.—Avoirdupois, or Commercial Weight.

16 drachms, or 437.5 grains	= 1 ounce, oz.
16 ounces, or 7000 grains	= 1 pound, lb.
28 pounds	= 1 quarter, qr.
4 quarters	= 1 hundredweight, cwt = 112 lbs.
20 hundred weight	= 1 ton of 2240 pounds, or long ton.
2000 pounds	= 1 net, or short ton.
2204.6 pounds	= 1 metric ton.
1 stone = 14 pounds ; 1 quintal = 100 pounds.	

Troy Weight.

24 grains	= 1 pennyweight, dwt.
20 pennyweights	= 1 ounce, oz. = 480 grains.
12 ounces	= 1 pound, lb. = 5760 grains.

Troy weight is used for weighing gold and silver. The grain is the same as Avoirdupois, Troy, and Apothecaries' weights. A carat, used in weighing diamonds = 3.168 grains = .205 gramme.

Apothecaries' Weight.

20 grains	= 1 scruple, ℥
3 scruples = 1 drachm, ℥	= 60 grains.
8 drachms = 1 ounce, ℥	= 480 grains.
12 ounces	= 1 pound, lb. = 5760 grains.

To determine whether a balance has unequal arms.—For weighing an article and obtaining equilibrium, transpose the article to the other arm. If the balance is true, it will remain in equilibrium; if not, it will descend from the longer arm. **weigh correctly on an incorrect balance.**—First, let the article to be weighed in one pan of the balance and

counterpoise it by any convenient heavy articles placed on the other pan. Remove the article to be weighed and substitute for it standard weights until equipoise is again established. The amount of these weights is the weight of the article.

Second, by transposition. Determine the apparent weight of the article as usual, then its apparent weight after transposing the article and the weights. If the difference is small, add half the difference to the smaller of the apparent weights to obtain the true weight. If the difference is 2 per cent the error of this method is 1 part in 10,000. For larger differences, or to obtain a perfectly accurate result, multiply the two apparent weights together and extract the square root of the product.

Circular Measure.

60 seconds,	" = 1 minute,	'
60 minutes,	' = 1 degree,	°
90 degrees	= 1 quadrant.	
360 "	= circumference.	

Time.

60 seconds	= 1 minute.
60 minutes	= 1 hour.
24 hours	= 1 day.
7 days	= 1 week.
365 days, 5 hours, 48 minutes, 48 seconds	= 1 year.

By the Gregorian Calendar every year whose number is divisible by 4 is a leap year, and contains 366 days, the other years containing 365 days, except that the centesimal years are leap years only when the number of the year is divisible by 400.

The comparative values of mean solar and sidereal time are shown by the following relations according to Bessel :

365 242 ² ₃ mean solar days	= 366.242 ² ₃ sidereal days, whence
1 mean solar day	= 1.00273791 sidereal days;
1 sidereal day	= 0.99726957 mean solar day;
24 hours mean solar time	= 24 ^h 3 ^m 56 ^s .555 sidereal time;
24 hours sidereal time	= 23 ^h 56 ^m 4 ^s .091 mean solar time,

whence 1 mean solar day is 3^m 55^s.91 longer than a sidereal day, reckoned in mean solar time.

BOARD AND TIMBER MEASURE.

Board Measure.

In board measure boards are assumed to be one inch in thickness. To obtain the number of feet board measure (B. M.) of a board or stick of square timber, multiply together the length in feet, the breadth in feet, and the thickness in inches.

To compute the measure or surface in square feet.—When all dimensions are in feet, multiply the length by the breadth, and the product will give the surface required.

When either of the dimensions are in inches, multiply as above and divide the product by 12.

When all dimensions are in inches, multiply as before and divide product by 144.

Timber Measure.

To compute the volume of round timber.—When all dimensions are in feet, multiply the length by one quarter of the product of the mean girth and diameter, and the product will give the measurement in cubic feet. When length is given in feet and girth and diameter in inches, divide the product by 144; when all the dimensions are in inches, divide by 1728.

To compute the volume of square timber.—When all dimensions are in feet, multiply together the length, breadth, and depth; the product will be the volume in cubic feet. When one dimension is given in inches, divide by 12; when two dimensions are in inches, divide by 144; when all three dimensions are in inches, divide by 1728.

Contents in Feet of Joists, Scantling, and Timber.

Length in Feet.

Size.	12	14	16	18	20	22	24	26	28	30
Feet Board Measure.										
2 × 4	8	9	11	12	13	15	16	17	19	20
2 × 6	12	14	16	18	20	22	24	26	28	30
2 × 8	16	19	21	24	27	29	32	35	37	40
2 × 10	20	23	27	30	33	37	40	43	47	50
2 × 12	24	28	32	36	40	44	48	52	56	60
3 × 4	28	33	37	42	47	51	56	61	65	70
3 × 8	24	28	32	36	40	44	48	52	56	60
3 × 10	30	35	40	45	50	55	60	65	70	75
3 × 12	36	42	48	54	60	66	72	78	84	90
3 × 14	42	49	56	63	70	77	84	91	98	105
4 × 4	16	19	21	24	27	29	32	35	37	40
4 × 6	24	28	32	36	40	44	48	52	56	60
4 × 8	32	37	43	48	53	59	64	69	75	80
4 × 10	40	47	53	60	67	73	80	87	93	100
4 × 12	48	56	64	72	80	88	96	104	112	120
4 × 14	56	65	75	84	93	103	112	121	131	140
6 × 6	36	42	48	54	60	66	72	78	84	90
6 × 8	48	56	64	72	80	88	96	104	112	120
6 × 10	60	70	80	90	100	110	120	130	140	150
6 × 12	72	84	96	108	120	132	144	156	168	180
6 × 14	84	98	112	126	140	154	168	182	196	210
8 × 8	64	75	85	96	107	117	128	139	149	160
8 × 10	80	93	107	120	133	147	160	173	187	200
8 × 12	96	112	128	144	160	176	192	208	224	240
8 × 14	112	131	149	168	187	205	224	243	261	280
10 × 10	100	117	133	150	167	183	200	217	233	250
10 × 12	120	140	160	180	200	220	240	260	280	300
10 × 14	140	163	187	210	233	257	280	303	327	350
12 × 12	144	168	192	216	240	264	288	312	336	360
12 × 14	168	196	224	252	280	308	336	364	392	420
14 × 14	196	229	261	294	327	359	392	425	457	490

FRENCH OR METRIC MEASURES.

The metric unit of length is the metre = 39.37 inches.

The metric unit of weight is the gram = 15.432 grains.

The following prefixes are used for subdivisions and multiples; Milli = $\frac{1}{1000}$, Centi = $\frac{1}{100}$, Deci = $\frac{1}{10}$, Deca = 10, Hecto = 100, Kilo = 1000, Myria = 10,000.FRENCH AND BRITISH (AND AMERICAN)
EQUIVALENT MEASURES.

Measures of Length.

FRENCH.	BRITISH and U. S.
1 metre	= 39.37 inches, or 3.28083 feet, or 1.09361 yards.
3048 metre	= 1 foot.
1 centimetre	= .3937 inch.
254 centimetres	= 1 inch.
1 millimetre	= .03937 inch, or 1/25 inch, nearly.
25.4 millimetres	= 1 inch.
1 kilometre	= 1093.61 yards, or 0.62137 mile.

ARITHMETIC.

Measures of Surface.

FRENCH.	BRITISH.
1 square metre	= 10.764 square feet, 1.196 square yards.
.836 square metre	= 1 square yard.
.0929 square metre	= 1 square foot.
1 square centimetre	= .155 square inch.
6.452 square centimetres	= 1 square inch.
1 square millimetre	= .00155 square inch.
645.2 square millimetres	= 1 square inch.
1 centiare = 1 sq. metre	= 10.764 square feet.
1 are = 1 sq. decametre	= 1076.41 " "
1 hectare = 100 ares	= 107641 " " = 2.4711 acres
1 sq. kilometre	= 386109 sq. miles = 247.11 "
1 sq. myriametre	= 386109 " " "

Of Volume.

FRENCH.	BRITISH and U. S.
1 cubic metre	= 35.314 cubic feet, 1.308 cubic yards.
.7645 cubic metre	= 1 cubic yard.
.02832 cubic metre	= 1 cubic foot.
1 cubic decimetre	= 61.023 cubic inches, .0683 cubic foot.
28.32 cubic decimetres	= 1 cubic foot.
1 cubic centimetre	= .061 cubic inch.
16.387 cubic centimetres	= 1 cubic inch.
cubic centimetre = 1 millilitre	= .061 cubic inch.
centilitre =	= .610 " "
decilitre =	= 6.102 " "
litre = 1 cubic decimetre	= 61.023 " " = 1.05671 quart
hectolitre or decistere	= 3.314 cubic feet = 2.875 bushel
stere, kilolitre, or cubic metre	= 1.308 cubic yards = 28.37 bushel

Of Capacity.

FRENCH.	BRITISH and U. S.
1 litre (= 1 cubic decimetre)	= 61.023 cubic inches, .03531 cubic foot, .2642 gallon (American), 2.202 pounds of water at 62°
28.317 litres	= 1 cubic foot.
4.543 litres	= 1 gallon (British).
3.785 litres	= 1 gallon (American).

Of Weight.

FRENCH.	BRITISH and U. S.
1 gramme	= 15.432 grains.
.0648 gramme	= 1 grain.
28.35 gramme	= 1 ounce avoirdupois.
1 kilogramme	= 2.2046 pounds.
.4536 kilogramme	= 1 pound.
1 tonne or metric ton	= 2.2046 ton of 2240 pounds, 19.68 cwt.,
1000 kilogrammes	= 2204.6 pounds.
1.016 metric tons	= 1 ton of 2240 pounds.
1016 kilogrammes	= 1 " " " " "

Dr. O. H. Titmann, in Bulletin No. 9 of the U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey, discusses the work of various authorities who have compared the metre, and by referring all the observations to a common standard, succeeded in reconciling the discrepancies within very narrow limits. Following are his results for the number of inches in a metre at the comparisons of the authorities named:

1817.	Hassler.....	39.36994 inches.
1818.	Kater.....	39.36990 " "
1843.	Baily.....	39.36973 " "
1843.	Clarke.....	39.36970 " "
1843.	Clarke.....	39.36981 " "
1843.	Clarke.....	39.36982 " "

METRIC CONVERSION TABLES.

The following tables, with the subjoined memoranda, were published in 1890 by the United States Coast and Geodetic Survey, office of standard weights and measures, T. C. Mendenhall, Superintendent.

**Tables for Converting U. S. Weights and Measures—
Customary to Metric.**

LINEAR.

	Inches to Milli- metres.	Feet to Metres.	Yards to Metres.	Miles to Kilo- metres.
1 =	25.4001	0.304801	0.914402	1.60935
2 =	50.8001	0.609601	1.828804	3.21870
3 =	76.2002	0.914402	2.743205	4.82804
4 =	101.6002	1.219202	3.657607	6.43739
5 =	127.0003	1.524003	4.572009	8.04674
6 =	152.4003	1.828804	5.486411	9.65608
7 =	177.8004	2.133604	6.400813	11.26543
8 =	203.2004	2.438405	7.315215	12.87478
9 =	228.6005	2.743205	8.229616	14.48412

SQUARE.

	Square Inches to Square Centi- metres.	Square Feet to Square Deci- metres.	Square Yards to Square Metres.	Acres to Hectares.
1 =	6.452	9.290	0.836	0.4047
2 =	12.903	18.581	1.672	0.8094
3 =	19.355	27.871	2.508	1.2141
4 =	25.807	37.161	3.344	1.6187
5 =	32.258	46.452	4.181	2.0231
6 =	38.710	55.742	5.017	2.4281
7 =	45.161	65.032	5.853	2.8328
8 =	51.613	74.323	6.689	3.2375
9 =	58.065	83.613	7.525	3.6422

CUBIC.

	Cubic Inches to Cubic Centi- metres.	Cubic Feet to Cubic Metres.	Cubic Yards to Cubic Metres.	Bushels to Hectolitres.
1 =	16.387	0.02832	0.765	0.35242
2 =	32.774	0.05663	1.529	0.70485
3 =	49.161	0.08495	2.294	1.05727
4 =	65.549	0.11327	3.058	1.40969
5 =	81.936	0.14158	3.822	1.76211
6 =	98.323	0.16990	4.587	2.11454
7 =	114.710	0.19822	5.352	2.46696
8 =	131.097	0.22654	6.116	2.81938
9 =	147.484	0.25485	6.881	3.17181

WIRE AND SHEET-METAL GAUGES COMPARI

Number of Gauge.	Birmingham Wire Gauge.	American or Brown and Sharpe Gauge.	Roehling's and Washburn & Moen's Gauge.	Trenton Iron Co.'s Wire Gauge.	British Imperial Standard Wire Gauge. (Legal Standard in Great Britain since March 1, 1884.)		U. S. Standard Gauge for Sheet and Plate Iron and Steel. (Legal Standard since July 1, 1895.)
	inch.	inch.	inch.	inch.	inch.	millim.	inch.
0000000			.49		.500	12.7	.5
000000			.46		.464	11.78	.469
00000			.43	.45	.432	10.97	.438
0000	.451	.46	.393	.40	.4	10.16	.406
000	.425	.40964	.362	.36	.372	9.45	.375
00	.38	.3648	.331	.33	.348	8.84	.344
0	.34	.32486	.307	.305	.321	8.23	.318
1	.3	.2803	.283	.285	.3	7.62	.281
2	.284	.25763	.263	.265	.276	7.01	.266
3	.250	.22942	.244	.245	.252	6.4	.25
4	.238	.20481	.225	.225	.232	5.89	.231
5	.22	.18194	.207	.205	.213	5.38	.219
6	.203	.16202	.192	.19	.192	4.88	.203
7	.18	.14428	.177	.175	.176	4.47	.188
8	.165	.12849	.162	.16	.15	4.06	.172
9	.148	.11443	.148	.145	.144	3.66	.156
10	.134	.10189	.135	.13	.128	3.26	.141
11	.12	.09074	.12	.1175	.116	2.85	.125
12	.109	.08081	.105	.105	.104	2.64	.109
13	.095	.07196	.092	.0925	.092	2.34	.094
14	.083	.06408	.08	.08	.08	2.03	.078
15	.072	.05707	.072	.07	.072	1.83	.07
16	.065	.05082	.063	.061	.061	1.63	.0625
17	.058	.04536	.054	.0525	.056	1.42	.0563
18	.049	.0403	.047	.045	.048	1.22	.05
19	.042	.03589	.041	.04	.04	1.01	.0438
20	.035	.03196	.035	.035	.036	.91	.0375
21	.032	.02846	.032	.031	.032	.81	.0344
22	.028	.02535	.028	.028	.028	.71	.0313
23	.025	.02257	.025	.025	.024	.61	.0281
24	.022	.0201	.023	.0225	.022	.56	.025
25	.02	.0179	.02	.02	.02	.51	.0219
26	.018	.01594	.018	.018	.018	.45	.0188
27	.016	.01419	.017	.017	.0164	.42	.0172
28	.014	.01264	.016	.016	.0148	.38	.0156
29	.013	.01126	.015	.015	.0136	.35	.0141
30	.012	.01002	.014	.014	.0124	.31	.0125
31	.01	.00893	.0135	.013	.0116	.29	.0109
32	.009	.00795	.013	.012	.0108	.27	.0101
33	.008	.00708	.011	.011	.01	.25	.0094
34	.007	.0063	.01	.01	.0092	.23	.0086
35	.005	.00561	.0095	.0095	.0084	.21	.0078
36	.004	.005	.009	.009	.0076	.19	.007
37		.00445	.0085	.0085	.0068	.17	.0066
38		.00396	.008	.008	.006	.15	.0063
39		.00353	.0075	.0075	.0052	.13	
40		.00314	.007	.007	.0048	.12	
41					.0044	.11	
42					.004	.10	
43					.0036	.09	
44					.0032	.08	
45					.0028	.07	
46					.0024	.06	
47					.002	.05	
48					.0016	.04	
49					.0012	.03	
50					.001	.025	

EDISON, OR CIRCULAR MIL GAUGE, FOR ELECTRICAL WIRES.

Gauge Number.	Circular Mils.	Diameter in Mils.	Gauge Number.	Circular Mils.	Diameter in Mils.	Gauge Number.	Circular Mils.	Diameter in Mils.
3	3,000	54.78	70	70,000	264.58	190	190,000	435.89
5	5,000	70.72	75	75,000	273.87	200	200,000	447.22
8	8,000	89.45	80	80,000	282.85	220	220,000	469.05
12	12,000	109.55	85	85,000	291.55	240	240,000	489.90
16	15,000	122.48	90	90,000	300.00	260	260,000	509.91
20	20,000	141.43	95	95,000	308.23	280	280,000	529.16
25	25,000	158.12	100	100,000	316.23	300	300,000	547.73
30	30,000	173.21	110	110,000	331.67	320	320,000	565.69
35	35,000	187.09	120	120,000	346.42	340	340,000	583.10
40	40,000	200.00	130	130,000	360.56	360	360,000	600.30
45	45,000	212.14	140	140,000	374.17			
50	50,000	223.61	150	150,000	387.30			
55	55,000	234.58	160	160,000	400.00			
60	60,000	244.95	170	170,000	412.32			
65	65,000	254.96	180	180,000	424.27			

TWIST DRILL AND STEEL WIRE GAUGE.

(Morse Twist Drill and Machine Co.)

No.	Size.	No.	Size.	No.	Size.	No.	Size.
1	inch. .2880	16	inch. .1770	31	inch. .1200	46	inch. .0810
2	.2210	17	.1730	32	.1160	47	.0785
3	.2130	18	.1695	33	.1130	48	.0760
4	.2090	19	.1660	34	.1110	49	.0730
5	.2055	20	.1610	35	.1100	50	.0700
6	.2010	21	.1590	36	.1065	51	.0670
7	.2010	22	.1570	37	.1040	52	.0635
8	.1990	23	.1540	38	.1015	53	.0595
9	.1960	24	.1520	39	.0995	54	.0550
10	.1935	25	.1495	40	.0980	55	.0520
11	.1910	26	.1470	41	.0960	56	.0485
12	.1890	27	.1440	42	.0935	57	.0430
13	.1850	28	.1405	43	.0890	58	.0410
14	.1820	29	.1360	44	.0860	59	.0400
15	.1800	30	.1285	45	.0820	60	.0400

STEEL MUSIC-WIRE GAUGE.

(Washburn & Moen Mfg. Co.)

No.	Size.	No.	Size.	No.	Size.	No.	Size.
12	inch. .0295	17	inch. .0378	21	inch. .0461	25	inch. .0585
13	.0311	18	.0395	22	.0481	26	.0625
14	.0325	19	.0414	23	.0506	27	.0665
15	.0343	20	.043	24	.0547	28	.0715
16	.0359						

THE EDISON OR CIRCULAR MIL WIRE GAUGE.

(For table of copper wires by this gauge, giving weights, electrical resistances, etc., see Copper Wire.)

Mr. C. J. Field (*Stevens Indicator*, July, 1887) thus describes the origin of the Edison gauge:

The Edison company experienced inconvenience and loss by not having a wide enough range nor sufficient number of sizes in the existing gauges. This was felt more particularly in the central-station work in making electrical determinations for the street system. They were compelled to make use of two of the existing gauges at least, thereby introducing a complication that was liable to lead to mistakes by the contractors and linemen.

In the incandescent system an even distribution throughout the entire system and a uniform pressure at the point of delivery are obtained by calculating for a given maximum percentage of loss from the potential as delivered from the dynamo. In carrying this out, on account of lack of regular sizes, it was often necessary to use larger sizes than the occasion demanded, and even to assume new sizes for large underground conductors. It was also found that nearly all manufacturers based their calculation for the conductivity of their wire on a variety of units, and that not one used the latest unit as adopted by the British Association and determined from Dr. Matthiessen's experiments; and as this was the unit employed in the manufacture of the Edison lamps, there was a further reason for constructing a new gauge. The engineering department of the Edison company, knowing the requirements, have designed a gauge that has the widest range obtainable and a large number of sizes which increase in a regular and uniform manner. The basis of the graduation is the sectional area, and the number of the wire corresponds. A wire of 100,000 circular mils area is No. 100; a wire of one half the size will be No. 50; twice the size No. 200.

In the older gauges, as the number increased the size decreased. With this gauge, however, the number increases with the wire, and the number multiplied by 1000 will give the circular mils.

The weight per mil-foot, 0.0000302705 pounds, agrees with a specific gravity of 8.889, which is the latest figure given for copper. The ampere capacity which is given was deduced from experiments made in the company's laboratory, and is based on a rise of temperature of 50° F. in the wire.

In 1893 Mr. Field writes, concerning gauges in use by electrical engineers: The B. and S. gauge seems to be in general use for the smaller sizes up to 100,000 c. m., and in some cases a little larger. From between one and two hundred thousand circular mils upwards, the Edison gauge or its equivalent is practically in use, and there is a general tendency to designate all sizes above this in circular mils, specifying a wire as 200,000, 400,000, 500,000, or 1,000,000 c. m.

In the electrical business there is a large use of copper wire and rod and other materials of these large sizes, and in ordering them, speaking of them, specifying, and in every other use, the general method is to simply specify the circular milage. I think it is going to be the only system in the future for the designation of wires, and the attaining of it means practically the adoption of the Edison gauge or the method and basis of this gauge as the correct one for wire sizes.

THE U. S. STANDARD GAUGE FOR SHEET AND PLATE IRON AND STEEL, 1893.

The Committee on Coinage, Weights, and Measures of the House of Representatives in 1893, in introducing the bill establishing the new sheet and plate gauge, made a report from which we take the following:

The purpose of this bill is to establish an authoritative standard gauge for the measurement of sheet and plate iron.

There is in this country no uniform or standard gauge, and the same numbers in different gauges represent different thicknesses of sheets or plates. This has given rise to much misunderstanding and friction between employers and workmen and mistakes and fraud between dealers and consumers.

The practice of describing the different thicknesses of sheet and plate iron by gauge numbers has been so long established and become so universal both here and in Great Britain that it is not deemed advisable to change this mode of designation; but these descriptive gauge num-

GAUGE FOR SHEET AND PLATE IRON AND STEEL. 3.

. S. STANDARD GAUGE FOR SHEET AND PLATE IRON AND STEEL, 1893.

Gauge.	Approximate Thickness in Fractions of an Inch.	Approximate Thickness in Decimal Parts of an Inch.	Approximate Thickness in Millimeters.	Weight per Square Foot in Ounces Avordupois.	Weight per Square Foot in Pounds Avordupois.	Weight per Square Foot in Kilograms.	Weight per Square Meter in Kilograms.	Weight per Square Meter in Pounds Avordupois.
10000	1-2	0.5	12.7	320	20.	9.072	97.65	215.28
10000	15-32	0.46875	11.00625	300	18.75	8.506	91.55	201.82
10000	7-16	0.4375	11.1125	280	17.50	7.938	85.44	188.37
0000	13-32	0.40625	10.31875	260	16.25	7.371	79.33	174.91
000	3-8	0.375	9.525	240	15.	6.804	73.21	161.46
00	11-32	0.34375	8.73125	220	13.75	6.237	67.13	148.00
0	5-16	0.3125	7.9375	200	12.50	5.67	61.03	134.55
1	9-32	0.28125	7.14375	180	11.25	5.103	54.93	121.09
2	17-64	0.265625	6.746875	170	10.625	4.819	51.86	114.37
3	1-4	0.25	6.35	160	10.	4.536	48.82	107.64
4	15-64	0.234375	5.953125	150	9.375	4.252	45.77	100.91
5	7-32	0.21875	5.55625	140	8.75	3.969	42.72	94.18
6	13-64	0.203125	5.159375	130	8.125	3.685	39.67	87.45
7	3-16	0.1875	4.7625	120	7.5	3.402	36.62	80.72
8	11-64	0.171875	4.365625	110	6.875	3.118	33.57	74.00
9	5-32	0.15625	3.96875	100	6.25	2.835	30.52	67.27
10	9-64	0.140625	3.571875	90	5.625	2.552	27.46	60.55
11	1-8	0.125	3.175	80	5.	2.269	24.41	53.82
12	7-64	0.109375	2.778125	70	4.375	1.984	21.36	47.09
13	3-32	0.09375	2.38125	60	3.75	1.701	18.31	40.36
14	5-64	0.078125	1.984375	50	3.125	1.417	15.26	33.64
15	9-128	0.0703125	1.785625	45	2.8125	1.276	13.73	30.27
16	1-16	0.0625	1.5875	40	2.5	1.134	12.21	26.91
17	9-160	0.05625	1.42875	36	2.25	1.021	10.99	24.22
18	1-20	0.05	1.27	32	2.	0.9072	9.765	21.53
19	7-160	0.04375	1.11125	28	1.75	0.7938	8.544	18.84
20	3-80	0.0375	0.9525	24	1.50	0.6804	7.324	16.15
21	11-320	0.034375	0.873125	22	1.375	0.6237	6.713	14.80
22	1-32	0.03125	0.793750	20	1.25	0.567	6.103	13.16
23	7-320	0.028125	0.714375	18	1.125	0.5103	5.493	12.11
24	1-40	0.025	0.635	16	1.	0.4536	4.882	10.76
25	7-320	0.021875	0.555625	14	0.875	0.3969	4.272	9.42
26	3-160	0.01875	0.47625	12	0.75	0.3402	3.662	8.07
27	11-640	0.0171875	0.4365625	11	0.6875	0.3119	3.357	7.40
28	1-64	0.015625	0.396875	10	0.625	0.2835	3.052	6.73
29	9-640	0.0140625	0.3571875	9	0.5625	0.2551	2.746	6.05
30	1-80	0.0125	0.3175	8	0.5	0.2268	2.441	5.38
31	7-640	0.0109375	0.2778125	7	0.4375	0.1984	2.136	4.71
32	13-1280	0.01015625	0.25796875	6 1/2	0.40625	0.1843	1.983	4.37
33	3-320	0.009375	0.238125	6	0.375	0.1701	1.831	4.04
31	11-1280	0.00859375	0.21828125	5 1/2	0.34375	0.1559	1.678	3.70
33	5-640	0.0078125	0.1984375	5	0.3125	0.1417	1.526	3.33
32	9-1280	0.00703125	0.17859375	4 1/2	0.28125	0.1276	1.373	3.00
37	17-2560	0.00640625	0.16401875	4 1/4	0.265625	0.1205	1.297	2.87
38	1-160	0.00625	0.15875	4	0.25	0.1134	1.221	2.

WIRE AND SHEET-METAL GAUGES COMPARED

Number of Gauge.	Birmingham Wire Gauge.	American or Brown and Sharpe Gauge.	Roehling's and Washburn & Moen's Gauge.	Trenton Iron Co.'s Wire Gauge.	British Imperial Standard Wire Gauge. (Legal Standard in Great Britain since March 1, 1884.)		U. S. Standard Gauge for Sheet and Plate Iron and Steel (Legal Standard since July 1, 1895.)
	inch.	inch.	inch.	inch.	inch.	millim.	inch.
0000000			.49		.500	12.7	.5
000000			.46		.464	11.78	.469
00000			.43	.45	.432	10.97	.438
0000	.451	.46	.393	.40	.4	10.16	.406
000	.425	.40964	.362	.36	.372	9.45	.375
00	.38	.3648	.331	.33	.348	8.84	.344
0	.34	.32486	.307	.305	.324	8.23	.313
1	.3	.2893	.283	.285	.3	7.62	.281
2	.284	.25763	.263	.265	.276	7.01	.266
3	.259	.22942	.244	.245	.252	6.4	.25
4	.238	.20431	.225	.225	.232	5.89	.231
5	.22	.18194	.207	.205	.212	5.38	.219
6	.203	.16302	.192	.19	.192	4.88	.203
7	.18	.14428	.177	.175	.176	4.47	.188
8	.165	.12849	.162	.16	.16	4.06	.172
9	.148	.11443	.148	.145	.144	3.66	.156
10	.134	.10189	.135	.13	.138	3.26	.141
11	.12	.09074	.12	.1175	.116	2.95	.125
12	.109	.08081	.105	.105	.104	2.64	.109
13	.095	.07196	.092	.0925	.092	2.34	.094
14	.083	.06408	.08	.08	.08	2.03	.078
15	.072	.05707	.072	.07	.072	1.83	.07
16	.065	.05082	.063	.061	.064	1.63	.0625
17	.058	.04526	.054	.0525	.056	1.42	.0563
18	.049	.0403	.047	.045	.049	1.22	.05
19	.042	.03589	.041	.04	.04	1.01	.0438
20	.035	.03196	.035	.035	.036	.89	.0375
21	.032	.02846	.032	.031	.032	.81	.0344
22	.028	.02535	.028	.028	.028	.71	.0313
23	.025	.02257	.025	.025	.024	.61	.0281
24	.022	.0201	.023	.0225	.022	.56	.025
25	.02	.0179	.02	.02	.02	.51	.0219
26	.018	.01594	.018	.018	.018	.45	.0188
27	.016	.01419	.017	.017	.0164	.42	.0172
28	.014	.01264	.016	.016	.0148	.38	.0156
29	.013	.01126	.015	.015	.0136	.35	.0141
30	.012	.01002	.014	.014	.0124	.31	.0125
31	.01	.00893	.0135	.013	.0116	.29	.0109
32	.009	.00795	.013	.012	.0108	.27	.0101
33	.008	.00708	.011	.011	.01	.25	.0094
34	.007	.0063	.01	.01	.0092	.23	.0086
35	.005	.00561	.0095	.0085	.0084	.21	.0078
36	.004	.005	.009	.009	.0076	.19	.007
37		.00445	.0085	.0085	.0068	.17	.0066
38		.00396	.008	.008	.006	.15	.0063
39		.00353	.0075	.0075	.0052	.13	
40		.00314	.007	.007	.0048	.12	
41					.0044	.11	
42					.004	.10	
43					.0036	.09	
44					.0032	.08	
45					.0028	.07	
46					.0024	.06	
47					.002	.05	
48					.0016	.04	
49					.0012	.03	
50					.001	.025	

WIRE GAUGE TABLES.

EDISON, OR CIRCULAR MIL GAUGE, FOR ELECTRICAL WIRES.

Gauge Number.	Circular Mils.	Diameter in Mils.	Gauge Number.	Circular Mils.	Diameter in Mils.	Gauge Number.	Circular Mils.	Diameter in Mils.
3	3,000	54.78	70	70,000	264.58	190	190,000	435.8
5	5,000	70.72	75	75,000	273.87	200	200,000	447.3
8	8,000	89.45	80	80,000	282.85	220	220,000	469.0
12	12,000	109.55	85	85,000	291.55	240	240,000	489.5
15	15,000	122.48	90	90,000	300.00	260	260,000	509.1
20	20,000	141.43	95	95,000	308.23	280	280,000	529.1
25	25,000	158.12	100	100,000	316.23	300	300,000	547.7
30	30,000	173.21	110	110,000	331.67	320	320,000	565.4
35	35,000	187.09	120	120,000	346.42	340	340,000	583.1
40	40,000	200.00	130	130,000	360.56	360	360,000	600.1
45	45,000	212.14	140	140,000	374.17			
50	50,000	223.61	150	150,000	387.30			
55	55,000	234.53	160	160,000	400.00			
60	60,000	244.95	170	170,000	412.32			
65	65,000	254.96	180	180,000	424.27			

TWIST DRILL AND STEEL WIRE GAUGE.

(Morse Twist Drill and Machine Co.)

No.	Size.	No.	Size.	No.	Size.	No.	Size.
1	inch. .2280	16	inch. .1770	31	inch. .1200	46	inch. .0810
2	.2110	17	.1730	32	.1160	47	.0785
3	.2130	18	.1695	33	.1130	48	.0760
4	.2090	19	.1660	34	.1110	49	.0730
5	.2055	20	.1610	35	.1100	50	.0700
6	.2010	21	.1590	36	.1065	51	.0670
7	.2010	22	.1570	37	.1040	52	.0635
8	.1990	23	.1540	38	.1015	53	.0605
9	.1960	24	.1520	39	.0995	54	.0550
10	.1935	25	.1495	40	.0980	55	.0520
11	.1910	26	.1470	41	.0950	56	.0485
12	.1890	27	.1440	42	.0935	57	.0430
13	.1850	28	.1405	43	.0890	58	.0410
14	.1820	29	.1360	44	.0860	59	.0410
15	.1800	30	.1285	45	.0820	60	.0400

STEEL MUSIC-WIRE GAUGE.

(Washburn & Moen Mfg. Co.)

No.	Size.	No.	Size.	No.	Size.	No.	Size.
12	inch. .0295	17	inch. .0378	21	inch. .0461	25	inch. .0585
13	.0311	18	.0395	22	.0481	26	.0625
14	.0325	19	.0414	23	.0506	27	.0660
15	.0343	20	.043	24	.0547	28	.0700
16	.0359						

Parentheses.—When a parenthesis is preceded by a plus sign it is removed without changing the value of the expression: $a + b + (a + 2a + 2b)$. When a parenthesis is preceded by a minus sign it may be removed if we change the signs of all the terms within the parenthesis: $1 - (a - c) = 1 - a + b + c$. When a parenthesis is within a parenthesis remove the inner one first: $a - \left[b - \left\{ c - (d - e) \right\} \right] = a - \left[b - \left\{ c - d + e \right\} \right] = a - [b - c + d - e] = a - b + c - d + e$.

A multiplication sign, \times , has the effect of a parenthesis, in that the operation indicated by it must be performed before the operations of addition or subtraction. $a + b \times a + b = a + ab + b$; while $(a + b) \times (a + a^2 + 2ab + b^2)$ and $(a + b) \times a + b = a^2 + ab + b$.

Division.—The quotient is positive when the dividend and divisor have like signs, and negative when they have unlike signs: $abc + b = abc - b = -ac$.

To divide a monomial by a monomial, write the dividend over the divisor with a line between them. If the expressions have common factors, remove the common factors:

$$a^2bx + aby = \frac{a^2bx}{aby} = \frac{ax}{y}; \quad \frac{a^4}{a^3} = a; \quad \frac{a^3}{a^5} = \frac{1}{a^2} = a^{-2}.$$

To divide a polynomial by a monomial, divide each term of the polynomial by the monomial: $(8ab - 12ac) \div 4a = 2b - 3c$.

To divide a polynomial by a polynomial, arrange both dividend and divisor in the order of the ascending or descending powers of some common letter and keep this arrangement throughout the operation.

Divide the first term of the dividend by the first term of the divisor, write the result as the first term of the quotient.

Multiply all the terms of the divisor by the first term of the quotient, subtract the product from the dividend. If there be a remainder, consider it as a new dividend and proceed as before: $(a^2 - b^2) \div (a + b)$.

$$\begin{array}{r} a^2 - b^2 \mid a + b, \\ a^2 + ab \mid a - b, \\ \hline -ab - b^2, \\ -ab - b^2, \\ \hline \end{array}$$

The difference of two equal odd powers of any two numbers is divisible by their difference and also by their sum:

$$(a^3 - b^3) \div (a - b) = a^2 + ab + b^2; \quad (a^3 - b^3) \div (a + b) = a^2 - ab + b^2.$$

The difference of two equal even powers of two numbers is divisible by their difference and also by their sum: $(a^2 - b^2) \div (a - b) = a + b$.

The sum of two equal even powers of two numbers is not divisible either by their difference or the sum of the numbers; but when the exponent of each of the two equal powers is composed of an odd and an even factor the sum of the given power is divisible by the sum of the powers expressed by the even factor. Thus $x^6 + y^6$ is not divisible by $x + y$ or by $x - y$, but divisible by $x^2 + y^2$.

Simple equations.—An equation is a statement of equality between two expressions; as, $a + b = c + d$.

A simple equation, or equation of the first degree, is one which contains only the first power of the unknown quantity. If equal changes be made (by addition, subtraction, multiplication, or division) in both sides of an equation, the results will be equal.

Any term may be changed from one side of an equation to another, provided its sign be changed; $a + b = c + d$; $a = c + d - b$. To solve an equation having one unknown quantity, transpose all the terms into the unknown quantity to one side of the equation, and all the other terms to the other side; combine like terms, and divide both sides by the coefficient of the unknown quantity.

$$\text{Solve } 8x - 39 = 26 - 3x. \quad 8x + 3x = 29 + 36; \quad 11x = 65; \quad x = 5, \text{ ans.}$$

Simple algebraic problems containing one unknown quantity are solved by making x the unknown quantity, and stating the conditions of the problem in the form of an algebraic equation, and then solving the equation. What two numbers are those whose sum is 48 and difference 14? $x =$ the smaller number, $x + 14 =$ the greater. $x + x + 14 = 48$. $2x = 34$; $x + 14 = 31$, ans.

Find a number whose triple exceeds 50 as much as its double falls short of 40. Let $x =$ the number. $3x - 50 = 40 - 2x$; $5x = 90$; $x = 18$, ans.

$$3x - 50 = 40 - 2x$$

Equations containing two unknown quantities.—If one equation contains two unknown quantities, x and y , an indefinite number of pairs of values of x and y may be found that will satisfy the equation, but if a second equation be given only one pair of values can be found that will satisfy both equations. Simultaneous equations, or those that may be satisfied by the same values of the unknown quantities, are solved by combining the equations so as to obtain a single equation containing only one unknown quantity. This process is called elimination.

Elimination by addition or subtraction.—Multiply the equation by such numbers as will make the coefficients of one of the unknown quantities equal in the resulting equation. Add or subtract the resulting equations according as they have unlike or like signs.

$$\text{Solve } \begin{cases} 2x + 3y = 7. & \text{Multiply by 2: } 4x + 6y = 14 \\ 4x - 5y = 3. & \text{Subtract: } \quad \quad \quad 4x - 5y = 3 \end{cases} \quad 11y = 11; y = 1.$$

Substituting value of y in first equation, $2x + 3 = 7$; $x = 2$.

Elimination by substitution.—From one of the equations obtain the value of one of the unknown quantities in terms of the other. Substitute for this unknown quantity its value in the other equation and reduce the resulting equations.

$$\text{Solve } \begin{cases} 2x + 3y = 8. & (1). \text{ From (1) we find } x = \frac{8 - 3y}{2} \\ 3x + 7y = 7. & (2). \end{cases}$$

Substitute this value in (2): $3\left(\frac{8 - 3y}{2}\right) + 7y = 7$; $= 24 - 9y + 14y = 14$,

whence $y = -2$. Substitute this value in (1): $2x - 6 = 8$; $x = 7$.

Elimination by comparison.—From each equation obtain the value of one of the unknown quantities in terms of the other. Form an equation from these equal values, and reduce this equation.

$$\text{Solve } \begin{cases} 2x - 9y = 11. & (1). \text{ From (1) we find } x = \frac{11 + 9y}{2} \\ 3x - 4y = 7. & (2). \text{ From (2) we find } x = \frac{7 + 4y}{3} \end{cases}$$

Equating these values of x , $\frac{11 + 9y}{2} = \frac{7 + 4y}{3}$; $19y = -19$; $y = -1$.

Substitute this value of y in (1): $2x + 9 = 11$; $x = 1$.

If three simultaneous equations are given containing three unknown quantities, one of the unknown quantities must be eliminated between two pairs of the equations; then a second between the two resulting equations.

Quadratic equations.—A quadratic equation contains the square of the unknown quantity, but no higher power. A pure quadratic contains the square only; an affected quadratic both the square and the first power.

To solve a pure quadratic, collect the unknown quantities on one side, and the known quantities on the other; divide by the coefficient of the unknown quantity and extract the square root of each side of the resulting equation.

$$\text{Solve } 3x^2 - 15 = 0. \quad 3x^2 = 15; x^2 = 5; x = \sqrt{5}$$

A root like $\sqrt{5}$, which is indicated, but which can be found only approximately, is called a *surd*.

$$\text{Solve } 3x^2 + 15 = 0. \quad 3x^2 = -15; x^2 = -5; x = \sqrt{-5}.$$

The square root of -5 cannot be found even approximately, for the square of any number positive or negative is positive; therefore a root which is indicated, but cannot be found even approximately, is called *imaginary*.

To solve an affected quadratic.—1. Convert the equation into the form $ax^2 \pm 2abx = c$, multiplying or dividing the equation if necessary, so as to make the coefficient of x^2 a square number.

2. Complete the square of the first member of the equation, so as to convert it to the form of $a^2x^2 \pm 2abx + b^2$, which is the square of the binomial $ax \pm b$, as follows: add to each side of the equation the square of the quotient obtained by dividing the second term by twice the square root of the first term.

3. Extract the square root of each side of the resulting equation.

Solve $2x^2 - 4x = 32$. To make the coefficient of x^2 a square number multiply by 2: $4x^2 - 12x = 96$; $12x + (3 \times 3x) = 96 + 9$; $4x^2 - 12x + 9 = 105$. Extract the root: $2x - 3 = 2$

10, whence $x = 4$ or $= 2\frac{2}{3}$. The square root of 100 is either $+10$ or $-$ since the square of -10 as well as $+10^2 = 100$.

Problems involving quadratic equations have apparently two solutions a quadratic has two roots. Sometimes both will be true solutions, but generally one only will be a solution and the other be inconsistent with conditions of the problem.

The sum of the squares of two consecutive positive numbers is 481. Find the numbers.

Let $x =$ one number, $x + 1$ the other. $x^2 + (x + 1)^2 = 481$. $2x^2 + 2x = 481$.

$x^2 + x = 240\frac{1}{2}$. Completing the square, $x^2 + x + 0.25 = 240.25$. Extract the root we obtain $x + 0.5 = \pm 15.5$; $x = 15$ or -16 .

The positive root gives for the numbers 15 and 16. The negative root 16 is inconsistent with the conditions of the problem.

Quadratic equations containing two unknown quantities require different methods for their solution, according to the form of the equations. For these methods reference must be made to works on algebra.

Theory of exponents.— $\sqrt[n]{a}$ when n is a positive integer is one of equal factors of a . $\sqrt[n]{a^m}$ means a is to be raised to the m th power and the n th root extracted.

$(\sqrt[n]{a})^m$ means that the n th root of a is to be taken and the result raised to the m th power.

$\sqrt[n]{a^m} = (\sqrt[n]{a})^m = a^{\frac{m}{n}}$. When the exponent is a fraction, the numerator indicates a power, and the denominator a root. $a^{\frac{2}{3}} = \sqrt[3]{a^2} = a^{\frac{2}{3}}$; $\sqrt[3]{a^9} = a^3$.

To extract the root of a quantity raised to an indicated power, divide the exponent by the index of the required root; as,

$$\sqrt[n]{a^m} = a^{\frac{m}{n}}; \quad \sqrt[3]{a^9} = a^{\frac{9}{3}} = a^3.$$

Subtracting 1 from the exponent of a is equivalent to dividing by a :

$$a^2 \cdot a^{-1} = a^1 = a; \quad a^1 \cdot a^{-1} = a^0 = \frac{a}{a} = 1; \quad a^0 \cdot a^{-1} = a^{-1} = \frac{1}{a}; \quad a^{-1} \cdot a^{-1} = a^{-2} =$$

A number with a negative exponent denotes the reciprocal of the number with the corresponding positive exponent.

A factor under the radical sign whose root can be taken may, by having the root taken, be removed from under the radical sign:

$$\sqrt{a^2 b} = \sqrt{a^2} \times \sqrt{b} = a \sqrt{b}.$$

A factor outside the radical sign may be raised to the corresponding power and placed under it:

$$\sqrt{\frac{a}{b}} = \sqrt{\frac{ab}{b^2}} = \sqrt{ab \times \frac{1}{b^2}} = \frac{1}{b} \sqrt{ab}; \quad \sqrt{\frac{a}{b^2}} = \frac{1}{b} \sqrt{a}$$

Binomial Theorem.—To obtain any power, as the n th, of an expression of the form $x + a$

$$(a + x)^n = a^n + na^{n-1}x + \frac{n(n-1)}{1 \cdot 2} a^{n-2}x^2 + \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3} a^{n-3}x^3$$

etc.

The following laws hold for any term in the expansion of $(a + x)^n$.

The exponent of x is less by one than the number of terms.

The exponent of a is n minus the exponent of x .

The last factor of the numerator is greater by one than the exponent of x .

The last factor of the denominator is the same as the exponent of x .

In the r th term the exponent of x will be $r - 1$.

The exponent of a will be $n - (r - 1)$, or $n - r + 1$.

The last factor of the numerator will be $n - r + 2$.

The last factor of the denominator will be $r - 1$.

$$r! \cdot \frac{n(n-1)(n-2) \dots (n-r+2)}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \dots (r-1)} a^{n-r+1} x^{r-1}$$

GEOMETRICAL PROBLEMS.

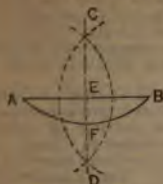


FIG. 1.

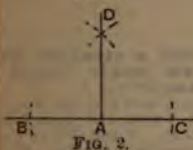


FIG. 2.



FIG. 3.

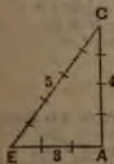


FIG. 4.

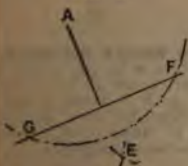


FIG. 5.

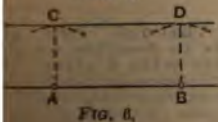


FIG. 6.

1. To bisect a straight line, or an arc of a circle (Fig. 1).—From the ends *A, B*, as centres, describe arcs intersecting at *C* and *D*, and draw a line through *C* and *D* which will bisect the line at *E* or the arc at *F*.

2. To draw a perpendicular to a straight line, or a radial line to a circular arc.—Same as in Problem 1. *CD* is perpendicular to the line *AB*, and also radial to the arc.

3. To draw a perpendicular to a straight line from a given point in that line (Fig. 2).—With any radius, from the given point *A* in the line *BC*, cut the line at *B* and *C*. With a longer radius describe arcs from *B* and *C*, cutting each other at *D*, and draw the perpendicular *DA*.

4. From the end *A* of a given line *AD* to erect a perpendicular *AE* (Fig. 3).—From any centre *F*, above *AD*, describe a circle passing through the given point *A*, and cutting the given line at *D*. Draw *DF* and produce it to cut the circle at *E*, and draw the perpendicular *AE*.

Second Method (Fig. 4).—From the given point *A* set off a distance *AE* equal to three parts, by any scale; and on the centres *A* and *E*, with radii of four and five parts respectively, describe arcs intersecting at *C*. Draw the perpendicular *AC*.

NOTE.—This method is most useful on very large scales, where straight edges are inapplicable. Any multiples of the numbers 3, 4, 5 may be taken with the same effect as 6, 8, 10, or 9, 12, 15.

5. To draw a perpendicular to a straight line from any point without it (Fig. 5).—From the point *A*, with a sufficient radius cut the given line at *F* and *G*, and from these points describe arcs cutting at *E*. Draw the perpendicular *AE*.

6. To draw a straight line parallel to a given line, at a given distance apart (Fig. 6).—From the centres *A, B*, in the given line, with the given distance as radius, describe arcs *C, D*, and draw the parallel lines *CD* touching the arcs.

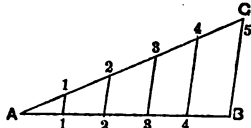


FIG. 7.

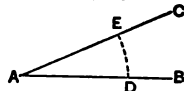


FIG. 8.

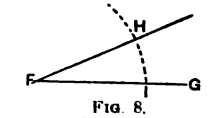


FIG. 9.

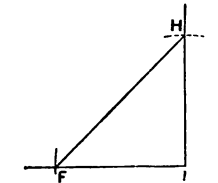


FIG. 10.

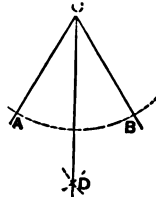
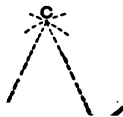


FIG. 11.



7. To divide a straight line into a number of equal parts. (Fig. 7).—To divide the line AB into five parts, draw the line AC at an angle from A ; set off five equal parts; draw $B5$ and draw parallels from the other points of division on AC . These parallels divide AB .

NOTE.—By a similar process any straight line may be divided into a number of equal parts; setting off divisions on AC , proportional by a scale to the required divisions, and drawing parallels cutting AB . The triangles ABC , etc., are similar triangles.

8. Upon a straight line to draw an angle equal to a given angle. (Fig. 8).—Let A be the given angle and FG the line to be divided. From A with any radius describe the arc DE . From F with the same radius describe IH . Set off IH equal to DE , and draw FG . The angle F is equal to A , as required.

9. To draw angles of 30°. (Fig. 9).—From F with any radius FI , describe an arc; and from I , with the same radius, describe the arc at H and draw FH . The required angle IFH . Draw the perpendicular HK to the base FI . The angle FHK is 30°.

10. To draw an angle of 45°. (Fig. 10).—Set off the distance FI on the line FI ; draw the perpendicular IH at I ; and join HF to form the angle IFH . The angle at H is also 45°.

11. To bisect an angle. (Fig. 11).—Let ACB be the angle; as a centre C draw an arc cutting the sides at A, B . From A and B as centres, describe arcs cutting each other at D . Draw CD , dividing the angle into two equal parts.

12. Through two points to describe an arc of a circle with a given radius. (Fig. 12).—From the points A, B as centres, with the given radius describe arcs cutting at C , a third point D with the same radius describe an arc AB .

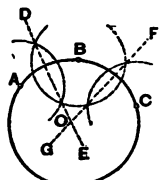


FIG. 13.

13. To find the centre of a circle or of an arc of a circle (Fig. 13).—Select three points, *A, B, C*, in the circumference, well apart; with the same radius, describe arcs from these three points, cutting each other, and draw the two lines, *D E, F G*, through their intersections. The point *O*, where they cut, is the centre of the circle or arc.

To describe a circle passing through three given points.

—Let *A, B, C* be the given points, and proceed as in last problem to find the centre *O*, from which the circle may be described.

14. To describe an arc of a circle passing through three given points when the centre is not available (Fig. 14).

—From the extreme points *A, B*, as centres, describe arcs *A H, B G*. Through the third point *C* draw *A E, B F*, cutting the arcs. Divide *A F* and *B E* into any number of equal parts, and set off a series of equal parts of the same length on the upper portions of the arcs beyond the points *E F*. Draw straight lines, *B L, B M*, etc., to the divisions in *A F*, and *A I, A K*, etc., to the divisions in *B E*. The successive intersections *N, O*, etc., of these lines are points in the circle required between the given points *A* and *C*, which may be drawn in; similarly the remaining part of the curve *B C* may be described. (See also Problem 54.)

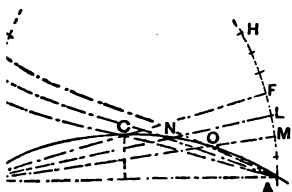


FIG. 14.

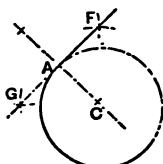


FIG. 15.

15. To draw a tangent to a circle from a given point in the circumference (Fig. 15).

—Through the given point *A*, draw the radial line *A C*, and a perpendicular to it, *F G*, which is the tangent required.

16. To draw tangents to a circle from a point without it (Fig. 16).

—From *A*, with the radius *A C*, describe an arc *B C D*, and from *C*, with a radius equal to the diameter of the circle, cut the arc at *B D*. Join *B C, C D*, cutting the circle at *E F*, and draw *A E, A F*, the tangents.

NOTE.—When a tangent is already drawn, the exact point of contact may be found by drawing a perpendicular to it from the centre.

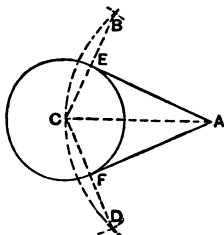


FIG. 16.

Between two inclined lines to draw a series of cir-
cles touching these lines and touching each other (Fig. 17).
 'The inclination of the given lines *A B, C D*, by the line *N O*. From
 ' in this line draw the perpendicular *P B* to the line *A B*, as

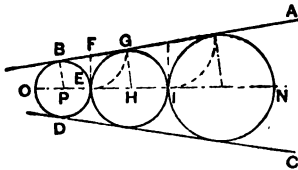


Fig. 17.

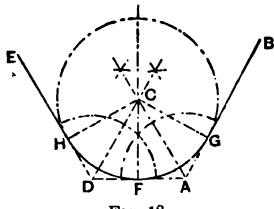


Fig. 18.

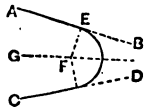


Fig. 19.

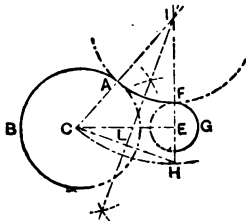


Fig. 20.

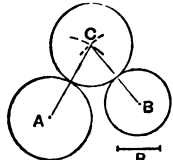


Fig. 21.

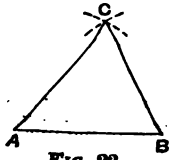


Fig. 22.

on P describe the circle BD , to the lines and cutting the cent at E . From E draw EF perpen to the centre line, cutting AB and from F describe an arc cutting AB at G . Draw GH par BP , giving H , the centre of the circle, to be described with the HE , and so on for the next circle. Inversely, the largest circle is described first, and the smallest in succession. This problem is quaint use in scroll work.

18. Between two inc lines to draw a circular ment tangent to the line passing through a poi on the line FC which b the angle of the lines (R —Through F draw DA at right to FC ; bisect the angles A an in Problem 11, by lines cuttin and from C with radius CFD arc HFG required.

19. To draw a circula that will be tangent to given lines AB and C cined to one another, tangential point E is given (Fig. 19).—Draw the line GF . From E draw EF a to angles AB ; then F is the of the circle required.

20. To describe a cir arc joining two circles touching one of them given point (Fig. 20).—To jo circles A, B, F, G , by an arc to one of them at F , draw the radii and produce it both ways. Set c equal to the radius AC of the circle; join CH and bisect it w perpendicular LI , cutting E . On the centre I , with radius l scribe the arc FA as required.

21. To draw a circle w given radius R that w tangent to two given ci A and B (Fig. 21).—From of circle A with radius equal radius of A , and from centre of radius equal to R + radius of E two arcs cutting each other in C will be the centre of the cir quired.

22. To construct an lateral triangle, the being given (Fig. 22).—On of one side, A, B , with A, B describe arcs cutting at C , A, C, B .

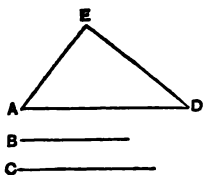


FIG. 23.

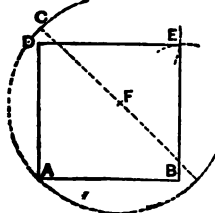


FIG. 24.

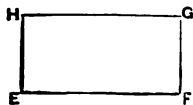


FIG. 25.

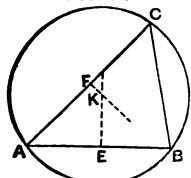


FIG. 26.

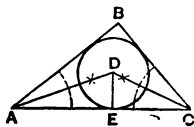


FIG. 27.

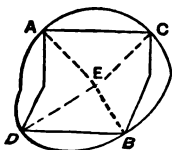


FIG. 28.

23. To construct a triangle of unequal sides (Fig. 23).—On either end of the base AD , with the side B as radius, describe an arc; and with the side C as radius, on the other end of the base as a centre, cut the arc at E . Join AE, DE .

24. To construct a square on a given straight line AB (Fig. 24).—At A erect a perpendicular AC , as in Problem 4. Lay off AD equal to AB ; from D and B as centres with radius equal AB , describe arcs cutting each other in E . Join DE and BE .

25. To construct a rectangle with given base EF and height EH (Fig. 25).—On the base EF draw the perpendiculars EH, FG equal to the height, and join GH .

26. To describe a circle about a triangle (Fig. 26).—Bisect two sides AB, AC of the triangle at E, F , and from these points draw perpendiculars cutting at K . On the centre K , with the radius KA , draw the circle ABC .

27. To inscribe a circle in a triangle (Fig. 27).—Bisect two of the angles A, C , of the triangle by lines cutting at D ; from D draw a perpendicular DE to any side, and with DE as radius describe a circle.

When the triangle is equilateral, draw a perpendicular from one of the angles to the opposite side, and from the side set off one third of the perpendicular.

28. To describe a circle about a square, and to inscribe a square in a circle (Fig. 28).—To describe the circle, draw the diagonals AB, CD of the square, cutting at E . On the centre E , with the radius AE , describe the circle.

To inscribe the square.—Draw the two diameters, AB, CD , at right angles, and join the points A, E, C, D , to form the square.

NOTE.—In the same way a circle may be described about a rectangle.



Fig. 29.

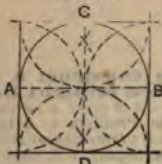


Fig. 30.



Fig. 31.

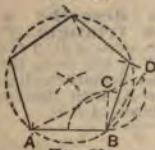


Fig. 32.



Fig. 33.



Fig. 34.

29. To inscribe a circle in a square (Fig. 29).—To inscribe the circle, draw the diagonals AB, CD of the square, cutting at E ; draw the perpendicular EF to one side, and with the radius EF describe the circle.

30. To describe a square about a circle (Fig. 30).—Draw two diameters AB, CD at right angles. With the radius of the circle and A, B, C and D as centres, draw the four half circles which cross one another in the corners of the square.

31. To inscribe a pentagon in a circle (Fig. 31).—Draw diameters AC, BD at right angles, cutting at o . Bisect Ao at E , and from E , with radius EB , cut AC at F ; from B , with radius BF , cut the circumference at G, H , and with the same radius step round the circle to I and K ; join the points so found to form the pentagon.

32. To construct a pentagon on a given line AB (Fig. 32).—From B erect a perpendicular BC half the length of AB ; join AC and prolong it to D , making $CD = BC$. Then BD is the radius of the circle circumscribing the pentagon. From A and B as centres, with BD as radius, draw arcs cutting each other in O , which is the centre of the circle.

33. To construct a hexagon upon a given straight line (Fig. 33).—From A and B , the ends of the given line, with radius AB , describe arcs cutting at g ; from g , with the radius gA , describe a circle; with the same radius set off the arcs A, G, GF , and B, D, DE . Join the points so found to form the hexagon. The side of a hexagon = radius of its circumscribed circle.

34. To inscribe a hexagon in a circle (Fig. 34).—Draw a diameter ACB . From A and B as centres, with the radius of the circle A, C , cut the circumference at D, E, F, G , and draw AD, DE , etc., to form the hexagon. The radius of the circle is equal to the side of the hexagon; therefore the points D, E , etc., may also be found by stepping the radius six times round the circle. The angle between the diameter and the sides of a hexagon and also the exterior angle between a side and an adjacent side prolonged is 60 degrees; therefore a hexagon may conveniently be drawn by the use of a 60-degree triangle.

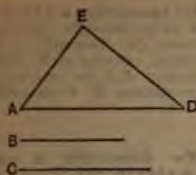


FIG. 23.

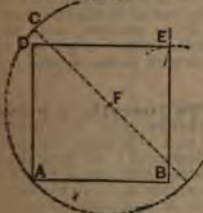


FIG. 24.

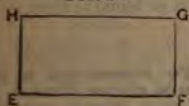


FIG. 25.



FIG. 26.

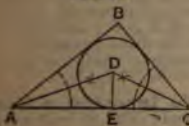


FIG. 27.



FIG. 28.

23. To construct a triangle of unequal sides (Fig. 23).—On either end of the base AD , with the side B as radius, describe an arc; and with the side C as radius, on the other end of the base as a centre, cut the arc at E . Join AE, DE .

24. To construct a square on a given straight line AB (Fig. 24).—At A erect a perpendicular AC , as in Problem 4. Lay off AD equal to AB ; from D and B as centres with radius equal AB , describe arcs cutting each other in E . Join DE and BE .

25. To construct a rectangle with given base EF and height EH (Fig. 25).—On the base EF draw the perpendiculars EH, FG equal to the height, and join GH .

26. To describe a circle about a triangle (Fig. 26).—Bisect two sides AB, AC of the triangle at E, F , and from these points draw perpendiculars cutting at K . On the centre K , with the radius KA , draw the circle ABC .

27. To inscribe a circle in a triangle (Fig. 27).—Bisect two of the angles A, C , of the triangle by lines cutting at D ; from D draw a perpendicular DE to any side, and with DE as radius describe a circle.

When the triangle is equilateral, draw a perpendicular from one of the angles to the opposite side, and from the side set off one third of the perpendicular.

28. To describe a circle about a square, and to inscribe a square in a circle (Fig. 28).—To describe the circle, draw the diagonals AB, CD of the square, cutting at E . On the centre E , with the radius AE , describe the circle.

To inscribe the square.—Draw the two diameters, AB, CD , at right angles, and join the points A, B, C, D , to form the square.

NOTE.—In the same way a circle may be described about a rectangle.

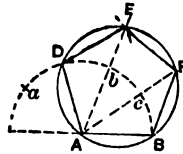


Fig. 40.

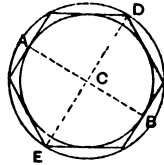


Fig. 41.

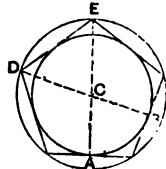


Fig. 42.

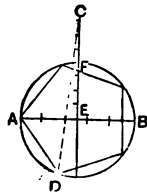


Fig. 43.

with the radius AB , describe a semi-circle; divide the semi-circumference into as many equal parts as there are to be sides in the polygon—say, in this example, five sides. Draw lines from A through the divisional points D, k , and c , omitting one point a ; and on the centres B, D , with the radius AB , cut Ab at E and Ac at F . Draw DE, EF, FB to complete the polygon.

41. To inscribe a circle within a polygon (Figs. 41, 42).—When the polygon has an even number of sides (Fig. 41), bisect two opposite sides at A and B ; draw AB , and bisect it at C by a diagonal DE , and with the radius CA describe the circle.

When the number of sides is odd (Fig. 42), bisect two of the sides at A and B , and draw lines AE, BD to the opposite angles, intersecting at C ; from C , with the radius CA , describe the circle.

42. To describe a circle without a polygon (Figs. 41, 42).—Find the centre C as before, and with the radius CD describe the circle.

43. To inscribe a polygon of any number of sides within a circle (Fig. 43).—Draw the diameter AB and through the centre E draw the perpendicular EC , cutting the circle at F . Divide EF into four equal parts, and set off three parts equal to those from F to C . Divide the diameter AB into as many equal parts as the polygon is to have sides; and from C draw CD , through the second point of division, cutting the circle at D . Then AD is equal to one side of the polygon, and by stepping round the circumference with the length AD the polygon may be completed.

TABLE OF POLYGONAL ANGLES.

Number of Sides.	Angle at Centre.	Number of Sides.	Angle at Centre.	Number of Sides.	Angle at Centre.
No.	Degrees.	No.	Degrees.	No.	Degrees.
3	120	9	40	15	24
4	90	10	36	16	22½
5	72	11	32½	17	21½
6	60	12	30	18	20
7	51½	13	27½	19	19
8	45	14	25½	20	18



FIG. 35.

35. To describe a hexagon about a circle (Fig. 35).—Draw a diameter AD , and with the radius AD , on the centre A , cut the circumference at C ; join AC , and bisect it with the radius DE ; through E draw FG , parallel to AC , cutting the diameter at F , and with the radius DF describe the circumscribing circle FH . Within this circle describe a hexagon by the preceding problem. A more convenient method is by use of a 60-degree triangle. Four of the sides make angles of 60 degrees with the diameter, and the other two are parallel to the diameter.



FIG. 36.

36. To describe an octagon on a given straight line (Fig. 36).—Produce the given line AB both ways, and draw perpendiculars AE , BF ; bisect the external angles A and B by the lines AH , BC , which make equal to AB . Draw CD and HG parallel to AB ; from the centres G , D , with the radius AB , cut the perpendiculars at E , F , and draw EF to complete the octagon.



FIG. 37.

37. To convert a square into an octagon (Fig. 37).—Draw the diagonals of the square cutting at e ; from the corners A , B , C , D , with Ae as radius, describe arcs cutting the sides at gn , fk , hm , and ol , and join the points so found to form the octagon. Adjacent sides of an octagon make an angle of 135 degrees.



FIG. 38.

38. To inscribe an octagon in a circle (Fig. 38).—Draw two diameters, AC , BD at right angles; bisect the arcs AB , BC , C , D , etc., at e , f , etc., and join Ae , eB , etc., to form the octagon.



FIG. 39.

39. To describe an octagon about a circle (Fig. 39).—Describe a square about the given circle AB ; draw perpendiculars hk , etc., to the diagonals, touching the circle to form the octagon.

40. To describe a polygon of any number of sides upon a straight line (Fig. 40).—Produce the given line AB , and

GEOMETRICAL PROBLEMS.

ints 1, 2, 3, etc. With the radius $A I$ on F and F' as centres, describe arcs, and with the radius $B I$ on the same centres cut these arcs as above.

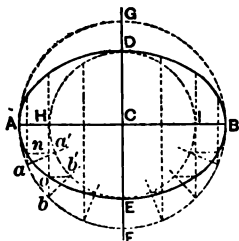


FIG. 48.

Repeat the operation for the other divisions of the transverse axis. The series of intersections thus made are points in the curve, through which the curve may be traced.

5th Method (Fig. 48).—On the two axes $A B, D E$ as diameters, on centre C , describe circles; from a number of points a, b , etc., in the circumference $A F B$, draw radii cutting the lower circle at a', b' , etc. From a, b , etc., draw perpendiculars to $A B$; and from a', b' , etc., draw parallels to $A B$, cutting the respective perpendiculars at n, o , etc. The intersections are points in the curve, through which the curve may be traced.

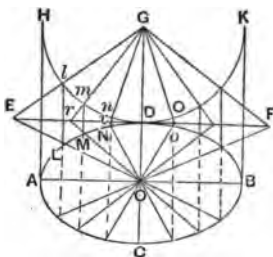


FIG. 49.

6th Method (Fig. 49).—When the transverse and conjugate diameters are given, $A B, C D$, draw the tangent $E F$ parallel to $A B$. Produce $C D$, and on the centre G with the radius of half $A B$, describe a semicircle $H D K$; from the centre G draw any number of straight lines to the points E, r , etc., in the line $E F$, cutting the circumference at l, m, n , etc.; from the centre O of the ellipse draw straight lines to the points E, r , etc.; and from the points l, m, n , etc., draw parallels to $G C$, cutting the lines $O E, O r$, etc., at L, M, N , etc. These are points in the circumference of the ellipse, and the curve may be traced through them. Points in the other half of the ellipse are formed by extending the intersecting lines as indicated in the figure.

15. To describe an ellipse approximately by means of circular arcs.—*First.*—With arcs of two radii (Fig. 50).

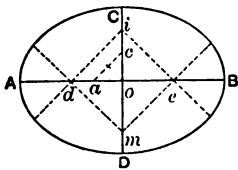


FIG. 50.

Find the difference of the semi-axes, and set it off from the centre O to a and c on $O A$ and $O C$; draw $a c$, and set off half $a c$ to d ; draw $d i$ parallel to $a c$; and set off $O e$ equal to $O d$; join $e i$, and draw the parallels $e m, d n$. From m , with radius $m C$, describe an arc through C ; and from i describe an arc through D ; from d and e describe arcs through A and B . The four arcs form the ellipse approximately.

NOTE.—This method does not apply satisfactorily when the conjugate axis is less than two thirds of the transverse axis.

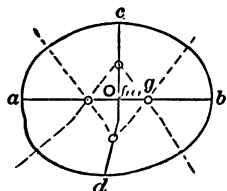


FIG. 51.

2d Method (by Carl G. Barth, Fig. 51).—In Fig. 51 $a b$ is the major and $c d$ the minor axis of the ellipse to be approximated. Lay off $b e$ equal to the semi-minor axis $c O$, and use $a e$ as radius for the arc at each extremity of the minor axis. Bisect $e a$ at f and lay off $e g$ equal to $e f$, and use $g b$ as radius for the arc at each extremity of the major axis.

GEOMETRICAL PROPOSITIONS.

A right-angled triangle the square on the hypotenuse is equal to the sum of the squares on the other two sides.

A triangle is equilateral, it is equiangular, and *vice versa*.

A straight line from the vertex of an isosceles triangle bisects the base, bisects the vertical angle and is perpendicular to the base.

One side of a triangle is produced, the exterior angle is equal to the sum of the two interior and opposite angles.

Two triangles are mutually equiangular, they are similar and their corresponding sides are proportional.

The sides of a polygon are produced in the same order, the sum of the exterior angles equals four right angles.

A quadrilateral, the sum of the interior angles equals four right angles.

A parallelogram, the opposite sides are equal; the opposite angles are equal; it is bisected by its diagonal; and its diagonals bisect each other.

Three points are not in the same straight line, a circle may be passed through them.

Two arcs are intercepted on the same circle, they are proportional to corresponding angles at the centre.

Two arcs are similar, they are proportional to their radii.

The areas of two circles are proportional to the squares of their radii.

A radius is perpendicular to a chord, it bisects the chord and it bisects the arc subtended by the chord.

A straight line tangent to a circle meets it in only one point, and it is perpendicular to the radius drawn to that point.

From a point without a circle tangents are drawn to touch the circle, there are but two; they are equal, and they make equal angles with the line joining the tangent points.

Two lines are parallel chords or a tangent and parallel chord, they intercept equal arcs of a circle.

An angle at the circumference of a circle, between two chords, is subtended by the same arc as an angle at the centre, between two radii, the angle at the circumference is equal to half the angle at the centre.

A triangle is inscribed in a semicircle, it is right-angled.

An angle is formed by a tangent and chord, it is measured by one half the arc intercepted by the chord; that is, it is equal to half the angle at the centre subtended by the chord.

Two chords intersect each other in a circle, the rectangle of the segments of the one equals the rectangle of the segments of the other.

If one chord is a diameter and the other perpendicular to it, the angle of the segments of the diameter is equal to the square on half the chord, and the half chord is a mean proportional between the segments of the diameter.

MENSURATION.

PLANE SURFACES.

Quadrilateral.—A four-sided figure.

Parallelogram.—A quadrilateral with opposite sides parallel.

Varieties.—Square: four sides equal, all angles right angles. Rectangle: opposite sides equal, all angles right angles. Rhombus: four sides equal, opposite angles equal, angles not right angles. Rhomboid: opposite sides equal, opposite angles equal, angles not right angles.

Trapezium.—A quadrilateral with unequal sides.

Trapezoid.—A quadrilateral with only one pair of opposite sides parallel.

Diagonal of a square = $\sqrt{2 \times \text{side}^2}$ = 1.4142 \times side.

Diag. of a rectangle = $\sqrt{\text{sum of squares of two adjacent sides}}$.

Area of any parallelogram = base \times altitude.

Area of rhombus or rhomboid = product of two adjacent sides \times sine of angle included between them.

Area of a trapezium = half the product of the diagonal by the sum of the perpendiculars let fall on it from opposite angles.

Area of a trapezoid = product of half the sum of the two parallel sides by the perpendicular distance between them.

To find the area of any quadrilateral figure.—Divide the quadrilateral into two triangles; the sum of the areas of the triangles is the area.

Or, multiply half the product of the two diagonals by the sine of the angle at their intersection.

To find the area of a quadrilateral inscribed in a circle.—From half the sum of the four sides subtract each side severally; multiply the four remainders together; the square root of the product is the area.

Triangle.—A three-sided plane figure.

Varieties.—Right-angled, having one right angle; obtuse-angled, having one obtuse angle; isosceles, having two equal angles and two equal sides; equilateral, having three equal sides and equal angles.

The sum of the three angles of every triangle = 180° .

The two acute angles of a right-angled triangle are complements of each other.

Hypotenuse of a right-angled triangle, the side opposite the right angle = $\sqrt{\text{sum of the squares of the other two sides}}$.

To find the area of a triangle:

RULE 1. Multiply the base by half the altitude.

RULE 2. Multiply half the product of two sides by the sine of the included angle.

RULE 3. From half the sum of the three sides subtract each side severally; multiply together the half sum and the three remainders, and extract the square root of the product.

The area of an equilateral triangle is equal to one fourth the square of one of its sides multiplied by the square root of 3, = $\frac{a^2 \sqrt{3}}{4}$, a being the side; or $a^2 \times .433013$.

Hypotenuse and one side of right-angled triangle given, to find other side. Required side = $\sqrt{\text{hyp}^2 - \text{given side}^2}$.

If the two sides are equal, side = hyp \div 1.4142; or hyp \times .7071.

Area of a triangle given, to find base: Base = twice area \div perpendicular height.

Area of a triangle given, to find height: Height = twice area \div base.

Two sides and base given, to find perpendicular height (in a triangle in which both of the angles at the base are acute).

RULE.—As the base is to the sum of the sides, so is the difference of the sides to the difference of the divisions of the base made by drawing the perpendicular. Half this difference being added to or subtracted from the base will give the two divisions thereof. As each side and its op-

1 of the base constitutes a right-angled triangle, the perpendicular is found by the rule perpendicular = $\sqrt{\text{hyp}^2 - \text{base}^2}$.

Polygon. — A plane figure having three or more sides. Regular or ar., according as the sides or angles are equal or unequal. Polygons are named from the number of their sides and angles.

Find the area of an irregular polygon.—Draw diagonals of the polygon into triangles, and find the sum of the areas of these triangles.

Find the area of a regular polygon :

1.—Multiply the length of a side by the perpendicular distance to the centre; multiply the product by the number of sides, and divide it by 2. Or multiply half the perimeter by the perpendicular let fall from the centre to the sides.

2.—The perpendicular from the centre is equal to half of one of the sides of the polygon multiplied by the cotangent of the angle subtended by the half

angle at the centre = 360° divided by the number of sides.

TABLE OF REGULAR POLYGONS.

Name of Polygon.	Area, Side = 1.	Radius of Circumscribed Circle,		Radius of Inscribed Circle, Side = 1.	Length of Side, Radius of Circumsc. Circle = 1.	Angle at Centre.	Angle between Adjacent Sides.
		Perpen. from Centre = 1.	Side = 1.				
Triangle	.4330127	2.	.5773	.2887	1.732	120°	60°
Square	1.	1.414	.7071	.5	1.4142	90	90
Pentagon	1.7204774	1.238	.8506	.6882	1.17556	72	108
Hexagon	2.5980762	1.156	1.	.866	1.	60	120
Heptagon	3.6399124	1.11	1.1524	1.0383	.8677	51 30'	128 4-7
Octagon	4.8284271	1.083	1.3066	1.2071	.7653	45	135
Nonagon	6.1818212	1.061	1.4619	1.3737	.684	40	140
Decagon	7.6942088	1.051	1.618	1.5348	.618	36	144
Undecagon	9.3656399	1.042	1.7747	1.7028	.5634	32 43'	147 3-11
Dodecagon	11.1961524	1.037	1.9319	1.866	.5176	30	150

Find the area of a regular polygon, when the length of one side only is given :

1.—Multiply the square of the side by the multiplier opposite to the number of the polygon in the table.

Find the area of an irregular figure (Fig. 69).—Draw ordinates across its breadth at equal spaces apart, the first and the last ordinate each being one half space from the ends of the figure. Find the mean breadth by adding together the lengths of these lines included between the boundaries of the figure, divide by the number of the lines used; multiply this mean breadth by length. The greater the number of ordinates the nearer the approximation.

2.—Draw ordinates across its breadth at equal spaces apart, the first and the last ordinate each being one half space from the ends of the figure. Find the mean breadth by adding together the lengths of these lines included between the boundaries of the figure, divide by the number of the lines used; multiply this mean breadth by length. The greater the number of ordinates the nearer the approximation.

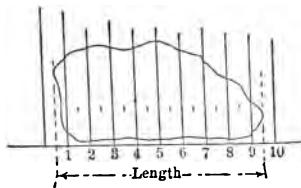


FIG. 69.

3.—In a figure of very irregular outline, as an indicator diagram from a high-speed steam-engine, mean lines may be substituted for the actual lines of the figure, being so traced as to intersect the undulations, so that the total area spaces cut off may be compensated by that of the extra spaces in-

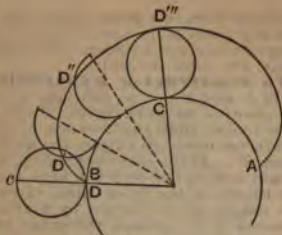


FIG. 61.

49. The Epicycloid

generated by a point D'' on a generating circle rolling upon the circumference of another circle $A C B$, instead of a flat surface or line; the fundamental circle, and the generating circle, are shown in four positions, the generating point being respectively marked D, D', D'', D''' . $A C B$ is the epicycloid.



FIG. 62.

50. The Hypocycloid

is generated by a point D'' on a generating circle rolling upon the inner circumference of the fundamental circle.

When the generating circle is of the same radius as that of the other circle, the curve becomes a straight line.

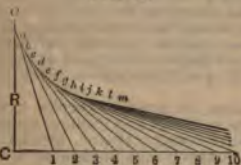


FIG. 63.

51. The Tractrix

Schiele's anti-friction curve (Fig. 63).— R is the radius, C , 1, 2, etc., the axis. From R a small distance, $o a$, is set off, and centre a cut the axis at b , and set off a like space $a b$; from b with radius $a b$, join $b 2$, and so on. From o , points $o, a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, k, l, m$, are marked, and the curve is to be drawn.

52. The Spiral.—The spiral is a curve described by a point moving along a straight line according to any given law, the line moving with a uniform angular motion. The line is called the radius vector.



FIG. 64.

between them; set off the distances 1, 2, 3, 4, etc., corresponding upon which the curve is drawn, as shown in Fig. 64.

In the common spiral (Fig. 64) the pitch is uniform; that is, the distance between the turns is constant. Such a spiral is made by rolling up a belt of uniform width.

To construct a spiral of four centres

(Fig. 65).—To construct a spiral of four centres, the pitch of the spiral, construct a square about the centre, with the four sides equal to the pitch of the spiral. The corners of the square are the centres of the four arcs of the external angle of a square.



and the diameter of a circle into which a certain number of rings will fit on its inside (Fig. 66).—For instance, diameter of a circle into which twelve $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch rings will fit, as Assume that we have found the diameter of the required

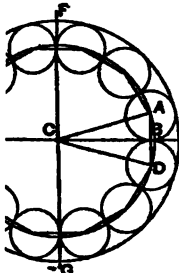


Fig. 66.

circle, and have drawn the rings inside of it. Join the centres of the rings by straight lines, as shown; we then obtain a regular polygon with 12 sides, each side being equal to the diameter of a given ring. We have now to find the diameter of a circle circumscribed about this polygon, and add the diameter of one ring to it; the sum will be the diameter of the circle into which the rings will fit. Through the centres A and D of two adjacent rings (draw the radii CA and CD ;

since the polygon has twelve sides the angle $ACD = 30^\circ$ and $ACB = 15^\circ$. One half of the side AD is equal to AB . We now give the following proportion: The sine of the angle ACB is to AB as 1 is to the required radius. From this we get the following

circumscribed circle; add to the corresponding diameter of the one ring; the sum will be the required diameter CG . Describe an arc of a circle which is too large to be made by a beam compass, by means of points in the arc being given.—Suppose the radius is 20 feet and it is required to divide the arc into five parts. Draw a perpendicular at one end, thus making rectangular triangles. Erect perpendiculars at points 1, 2, 3, and 4 feet from the perpendicular. Find values of y in the formula of the circle, by substituting for x the values 0, 1, 2, 3, and 4, etc. and for R^2

of the radius, or 400. The values will be $y = \sqrt{R^2 - x^2} = \sqrt{400, \sqrt{391}, \sqrt{384} = 20, 19.975, 19.90, 19.774, 19.506.$

smallest, 0.404, 0.879, 0.804, 0.178, 0 feet. The distances on the five perpendiculars, as ordinates from the perpendicular at the end, and the positions of five points on the arc will be found.

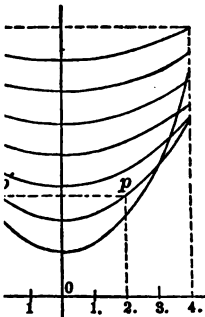


Fig. 67.

lowest point of the curve.

$$x = 0; \therefore y = \frac{3}{2}(e^0 + e^{-0}) = \frac{3}{2}(1 + 1) = 3.$$

Through these the curve may be drawn. (See also Problem 14.)

55. The Catenary is the curve assumed by a perfectly flexible cord when its ends are fastened at two points, the weight of a unit length being constant.

The equation of the catenary is $y = \frac{a}{2} \left(\frac{x}{a} + e^{-\frac{x}{a}} \right)$, in which e is the base of the Napierian system of logarithms.

To plot the catenary.—Let o (Fig. 67) be the origin of coordinates. Assigning to a any value as 3, the equation becomes

$$y = \frac{3}{2} \left(e^{\frac{x}{3}} + e^{-\frac{x}{3}} \right).$$

PROBLEMS.

The Inverse

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GEOMETRICAL PROPOSITIONS.

Right-angled triangle the square on the hypotenuse is equal to the sum of the squares on the other two sides.

Equilateral triangle is equiangular, and *vice versa*.

Perpendicular line from the vertex of an isosceles triangle bisects the base, bisects the vertical angle and is perpendicular to the base.

Side of a triangle is produced, the exterior angle is equal to the sum of the two interior and opposite angles.

Triangles are mutually equiangular, they are similar and their corresponding sides are proportional.

Sides of a polygon are produced in the same order, the sum of the exterior angles equals four right angles.

Quadrilateral, the sum of the interior angles equals four right angles.

Parallelogram, the opposite sides are equal; the opposite angles are equal; it is bisected by its diagonal; and its diagonals bisect each other.

Three points are not in the same straight line, a circle may be passed through them.

Two arcs are intercepted on the same circle, they are proportional to the corresponding angles at the centre.

Two circles are similar, they are proportional to their radii.

Areas of two circles are proportional to the squares of their radii.

Radius is perpendicular to a chord, it bisects the chord and it bisects the arc subtended by the chord.

Right line tangent to a circle meets it in only one point, and it is perpendicular to the radius drawn to that point.

From a point without a circle tangents are drawn to touch the circle, they are equal; they are equal, and they make equal angles with the radii to the points of contact.

Two lines are parallel chords or a tangent and parallel chord, they subtend equal arcs of a circle.

Angle at the circumference of a circle, between two chords, is subtended by the same arc as an angle at the centre, between two radii.

Angle at the circumference is equal to half the angle at the centre.

Triangle is inscribed in a semicircle, it is right-angled.

Angle is formed by a tangent and chord, it is measured by one half the arc intercepted by the chord; that is, it is equal to half the angle at the centre subtended by the chord.

Two chords intersect each other in a circle, the rectangle of the segments of the one equals the rectangle of the segments of the other.

If one chord is a diameter and the other perpendicular to it, the rectangle of the segments of the diameter is equal to the square on half the chord, and the half chord is a mean proportional between the segments of the diameter.

If one chord is a diameter and the other perpendicular to it, the rectangle of the segments of the diameter is equal to the square on half the chord, and the half chord is a mean proportional between the segments of the diameter.

If one chord is a diameter and the other perpendicular to it, the rectangle of the segments of the diameter is equal to the square on half the chord, and the half chord is a mean proportional between the segments of the diameter.

**Relations of Arc, Chord, Chord of Half the Arc
Versed Sine, etc.**

Let R = radius, D = diameter, Arc = length of arc,

Cd = chord of the arc, ch = chord of half the arc.

V = versed sine, $D - V$ = diam. minus ver. sin.,

$$Arc = \frac{8ch - Cd}{3} \text{ (very nearly), } = \frac{\sqrt{Cd^2 + 4V^2} \times 10V^2}{15Cd^2 + 33V^2} + 2ch, \text{ near}$$

$$Arc = \frac{2ch \times 10V}{60D - 2V} + 2ch, \text{ nearly.}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Chord of the arc} &= 2\sqrt{ch^2 - V^2}; = \sqrt{D^2 - (D - 2V)^2}; = 8ch - 3Arc. \\ &= 2\sqrt{R^2 - (R - V)^2}; = 2\sqrt{(D - V) \times V}. \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Chord of half the arc, } ch = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{Cd^2 + 4V^2}; = \sqrt{D \times V}; = \frac{3Arc + Cd}{8}.$$

$$\text{Diameter} = \frac{ch^2}{V}; = \frac{\left(\frac{1}{2}Cd\right)^2 + V^2}{V};$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Versed sine} &= \frac{ch^2}{D}; = \frac{1}{2}(D - \sqrt{D^2 - Cd^2}) \\ &\text{(or } \frac{1}{2}(D + \sqrt{D^2 - Cd^2}), \text{ if } V \text{ is greater than} \\ &= \sqrt{ch^2 - \frac{Cd^2}{4}}. \end{aligned}$$

Half the chord of the arc is a mean proportional between the versed sine and diameter minus versed sine:

$$\frac{1}{2}Cd = \sqrt{V \times (D - V)}.$$

Length of a Circular Arc.—Huyghens's Approxim

Let C represent the length of the chord of the arc and c the length of the chord of half the arc; the length of the arc

$$L = \frac{8c - C}{3}.$$

Professor Williamson shows that when the arc subtends an angle of radius being 100,000 feet (nearly 19 miles), the error by this formula is two inches, or 1/600,000 part of the radius. When the length of the arc is equal to the radius, i.e., when it subtends an angle of 57°.3, the error is 1/7680 part of the radius. Therefore, if the radius is 100,000 feet the error is less than $\frac{1000 \cdot 0}{7680} = 13$ feet. The error increases rapidly with increase of the angle subtended.

In the measurement of an arc which is described with a short radius or is so small that it may be neglected. Describing an arc with of 12 inches subtending an angle of 30°, the error is 1/50,000 of an inch. At 57°.3 the error is less than 0".0015.

In order to measure an arc when it subtends a large angle, bisect the arc half as before—in this case making B = length of the half the arc, and b = length of the chord of one fourth the arc; then

$$L = \frac{16b - 2B}{3}.$$

**Relation of the Circle to its Equal, Inscribed, an
Circumscribed Squares.**

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Diameter of circle} &\times 843214 = \text{side of equal square.} \\ \text{Circumference of circle} &\times 282999 = \text{perimeter of equal square.} \\ \text{Area of circle} &\times 1.1284 = \text{area of equal square.} \end{aligned}$$

Diameter of circle × .7071	} = side of inscribed square.
Circumference of circle × .22508	
Area of circle × .90031 ÷ diameter	} = area of circumscribed square,
Area of circle × 1.2732	
Area of circle × .63662	} = area of inscribed square.
Side of square × 1.4143	
" " × 4.4428	} = diam. of circumscribed circle,
" " × 1.1284	
" " × 3.5449	} = circum. " "
" " × 1.2732	
Perimeter of square × 0.88623	} = diam. of equal circle.
Square inches × 1.2732	
	} = circum. " "
	} = circular inches.

Sectors and Segments.—To find the area of a sector of a circle.

Rule 1. Multiply the arc of the sector by half its radius.

Rule 2. As 360 is to the number of degrees in the arc, so is the area of circle to the area of the sector.

Rule 3. Multiply the number of degrees in the arc by the square of the radius and by .008727.

To find the area of a segment of a circle: Find the area of the sector which has the same arc, and also the area of the triangle formed by the radii of the segment and the radii of the sector.

Then take the sum of these areas, if the segment is greater than a semi-circle, but take their difference if it is less.

Another Method: Area of segment = $\frac{R^2}{2} (\text{arc} - \sin A)$ in which A is the central angle, R the radius, and arc the length of arc to radius 1.

To find the area of a segment of a circle when its chord and height or versed sine only are given. First find radius, as follows:

$$\text{radius} = \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{\text{square of half the chord}}{\text{height}} + \text{height} \right].$$

Find the angle subtended by the arc, as follows: $\frac{\text{half chord}}{\text{radius}} = \sin$

half the angle. Take the corresponding angle from a table of sines, and double it to get the angle of the arc.

Find area of the sector of which the segment is a part;

$$\text{area of sector} = \text{area of circle} \times \frac{\text{degrees of arc}}{360}.$$

Subtract area of triangle under the segment:

$$\text{Area of triangle} = \frac{\text{chord}}{2} \times (\text{radius} - \text{height of segment}).$$

The remainder is the area of the segment.

When the chord, arc, and diameter are given, to find the area. From the square of the arc subtract the length of the chord. Multiply the remainder by the radius or one-half diameter; to the product add the chord multiplied by the height, and divide the sum by 2.

Another rule: Multiply the chord by the height and this product by .6834 is one-tenth of the square of the height divided by the radius.

To find the chord: From the diameter subtract the height; multiply the remainder by four times the height and extract the square root.

When the chords of the arc and of half the arc and the versed sine are given. To the chord of the arc add four thirds of the chord of half the arc; multiply the sum by the versed sine and the product by .40426 (approximate).

Circular Ring.—To find the area of a ring included between the circumferences of two concentric circles: Take the difference between the areas of the two circles; or, subtract the square of the less radius from the square of the greater, and multiply their difference by 3.14159.

The area of the greater circle is equal to πR^2 ;

and the area of the smaller, πr^2 ;

their difference, or the area of the ring is $\pi(R^2 - r^2)$.

The Ellipse.—Area of an ellipse = product of its semi-axes × 3.14159 = product of its axes × .785398.

The Ellipse.—Circumference (approximate) = 3.1416 $\sqrt{\frac{D^2 + d^2}{2}}$, D and d

being the two axes.

Another gives the following as more accurate: When the longer axis is not more than five times the length of the shorter axis, d ,

$$\text{Circumference} = 3.1416 \sqrt{\frac{D^2 + d^2}{2} - \frac{(D-d)^2}{8.8}}$$

When D is more than $5d$, the divisor 8.8 is to be replaced by the following divisors:

$$\frac{D}{d} = 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, 20, 30, 40$$

$$\text{Divisor} = 9, 9.2, 9.3, 9.35, 9.4, 9.5, 9.6, 9.68, 9.75, 9.8, 9.9, 9.92, 9.94$$

$$\text{Reuleaux gives: Circumference} = \pi(a+b) \left(1 + \frac{n^2}{4} + \frac{n^4}{64} + \frac{n^6}{256} + \dots \right)$$

which $n = \frac{a-b}{a+b}$, a and b being the semi-axes.

Area of a segment of an ellipse the base of which is parallel to the axes of the ellipse. Divide the height of the segment by the diameter of the ellipse, and find the area of a circular segment, in a table of circular segments, of which the height is equal to the quotient; multiply this area by the product of the two axes of the ellipse.

Cycloid.—A curve generated by the rolling of a circle on a plane.

Length of a cycloidal curve = $4 \times$ diameter of the generating circle.

Length of the base = circumference of the generating circle.

Area of a cycloid = $3 \times$ area of generating circle.

Helix (Screw).—A line generated by the progressive rotation of a point around an axis and equidistant from its centre.

Length of a helix.—To the square of the circumference described by the generating-point add the square of the distance advanced in one revolution, and take the square root of their sum, multiplied by the number of revolutions of the generating point. Or,

$$\sqrt{(c^2 + h^2)n} = \text{length, } n \text{ being number of revolutions.}$$

Spirals.—Lines generated by the progressive rotation of a point around a fixed axis, with a constantly increasing distance from the axis.

A *plane spiral* is when the point rotates in one plane.

A *conical spiral* is when the point rotates around an axis at a progressive distance from its centre, and advancing in the direction of the axis, as in a cone.

Length of a *plane spiral line*.—When the distance between the turns is uniform.

Rule.—Add together the greater and less diameters; divide their sum by 2; multiply the quotient by 3.1416, and again by the number of revolutions. Or, take the mean of the length of the greater and less circumferences, and multiply it by the number of revolutions. Or,

$$\text{length} = \pi n \frac{d+d'}{2}, d \text{ and } d' \text{ being the inner and outer diameters.}$$

Length of a *conical spiral line*.—Add together the greater and less diameters; divide their sum by 2 and multiply the quotient by 3.1416. Then multiply the product of this circumference and the number of revolutions of the spiral add the square of the height of its axis and take the square root of the sum.

$$\text{Or, length} = \sqrt{\left(\pi n \frac{d+d'}{2}\right)^2 + h^2}$$

SOLID BODIES.

The Prism.—To find the surface of a right prism; Multiply the area of the base by the altitude for the convex surface. To this add the areas of the two ends when the entire surface is required.

Volume of a prism = area of its base \times its altitude.

The pyramid.—Convex surface of a regular pyramid = $\frac{1}{2}$ its base \times half the slant height. To this add area of the base when the entire surface is required.

Volume of a pyramid = area of base \times one third of the slant height.

the surface of a frustum of a regular pyramid: Multiply half the height by the sum of the perimeters of the two bases for the convex surface. To this add the areas of the two bases when the entire surface is required.

the volume of a frustum of a pyramid: Add together the areas of the two bases and a mean proportional between them, and multiply the sum by one third of the altitude. (Mean proportional between two numbers is the square root of their product.)

Wedge.—A wedge is a solid bounded by five planes, viz.: a rectangular plane, two trapezoids, or two rectangles, meeting in an edge, and two triangles. The altitude is the perpendicular drawn from any point in the plane of the base.

the volume of a wedge: Add the length of the edge to twice the length of the base, and multiply the sum by one sixth of the product of the length of the wedge and the breadth of the base.

Angular prismoid.—A rectangular prismoid is a solid bounded by six planes, of which the two bases are rectangles, having their corresponding sides parallel, and the four upright sides of the solids are trapezoids.

the volume of a rectangular prismoid: Add together the areas of the two bases and four times the area of a parallel section equally distant from the two bases, and multiply the sum by one sixth of the altitude.

Der.—Convex surface of a cylinder = perimeter of base \times altitude, and the areas of the two ends when the entire surface is required.

Volume of a cylinder = area of base \times altitude.

—Convex surface of a cone = circumference of base \times half the slant height. To this add the area of the base when the entire surface is required.

Volume of a cone = area of base $\times \frac{1}{3}$ altitude.

the surface of a frustum of a cone: Multiply half the sum of the perimeters of the two bases for the convex surface; to this add the areas of the two bases when the entire surface is required.

the volume of a frustum of a cone: Add together the areas of the two bases and a mean proportional between them, and multiply the sum by one third of the altitude.

Der.—To find the surface of a sphere: Multiply the diameter by the circumference of a great circle; or, multiply the square of the diameter by

the area of sphere = $4 \times$ area of its great circle.

" " = convex surface of its circumscribing cylinder.

Areas of spheres are to each other as the squares of their diameters.

the volume of a sphere: Multiply the surface by one third of the diameter, or multiply the cube of the diameter by $1/6\pi$; that is, by 0.5236.

of 17 to 10 decimal places = 523.5987750.

Volume of a sphere = $2/3$ the volume of its circumscribing cylinder.

Areas of spheres are to each other as the cubes of their diameters.

Spherical triangle.—To find the area of a spherical triangle: Compute the surface of the quadrantal triangle, or one eighth of the surface of the sphere. From the sum of the three angles subtract two right angles; the remainder by 90, and multiply the quotient by the area of the quadrantal triangle.

Spherical polygon.—To find the area of a spherical polygon: Compute the surface of the quadrantal triangle. From the sum of all the angles subtract the product of two right angles by the number of sides less two; the remainder by 90 and multiply the quotient by the area of the quadrantal triangle.

Prismoid.—The prismoid is a solid having parallel end areas, and composed of any combination of prisms, cylinders, wedges, pyramids, or frustums of the same, whose bases and apices lie in the same plane.

Such as cylinders and cones are but special forms of prisms and cones, and warped surface solids may be divided into elementary forms and since frustums may also be subdivided into the elementary forms, it is sufficient to say that all prismoids may be decomposed into prisms, cylinders, and pyramids. If a formula can be found which is equally applicable to all of these forms, then it will apply to any combination of them and is called a formula.

The Prismoidal Formula.

Let A = area of the base of a prism, wedge, or pyramid;
 A_1, A_2, A_m = the two end and the middle areas of a prismoid, or of
 its elementary solids;

h = altitude of the prismoid or elementary solid;
 V = its volume;

$$V = \frac{h}{6}(A_1 + 4A_m + A_2).$$

For a prism A_1, A_m and A_2 are equal, $= A$; $V = \frac{h}{6} \times 6A = hA$.

For a wedge with parallel ends, $A_2 = 0, A_m = \frac{1}{2}A_1$; $V = \frac{h}{6}(A_1 + 2A$

For a cone or pyramid, $A_2 = 0, A_m = \frac{1}{4}A_1$; $V = \frac{h}{6}(A_1 + A_1) = \frac{hA}{3}$

The prismoidal formula is a rigid formula for all prismoids. The approximation involved in its use is in the assumption that the gib may be generated by a right line moving over the boundaries of the areas.

The area of the middle section is never the mean of the two end the prismoid contains any pyramids or cones among its elements. When the three sections are similar in form the *dimensions* of the area are always the means of the corresponding end dimensions, often enables the dimensions, and hence the area of the middle section to be computed from the end areas.

Polyedrons.—A polyedron is a solid bounded by plane polyg- regular polyedron is one whose sides are all equal regular polyg-

To find the surface of a regular polyedron.—Multiply the area of the faces by the number of faces; or, multiply the square of one of the edges by the surface of a similar solid whose edge is unity.

A TABLE OF THE REGULAR POLYEDRONS WHOSE EDGES ARE UN-

Names.	No. of Faces.	Surface.
Tetraedron.....	4	1.7320508
Hexaedron.....	6	6.0000000
Octaedron.....	8	3.4641016
Dodecaedron.....	12	20.6457288
Icosaedron.....	20	8.6603510

To find the volume of a regular polyedron.—Mul- surface by one third of the perpendicular let fall from the centre; the faces; or, multiply the cube of one of the edges by the vol- similar polyedron whose edge is unity.

Solid of revolution.—The volume of any solid of rev- equal to the product of the area of its generating surface by the path of the centre of gravity of that surface.

The convex surface of any solid of revolution is equal to the p- the perimeter of its generating surface by the length of path of l- of gravity.

Cylindrical ring.—Let d = outer diameter; d' = inner d- $\frac{1}{2}(d - d')$ = thickness = t ; $\frac{1}{4}\pi t^2$ = sectional area; $\frac{1}{2}(d + d')$ = me- eter = M ; πt = circumference of section; πM = mean circumfe- ring; surface = $\pi t \times \pi M$; $= \frac{1}{4}\pi^2(d^2 - d'^2)$; = 9.86965 tM ; = 2.46741 (tM)

volume = $\frac{1}{4}\pi t^2 M \pi$; = 2.46741 $t^2 M$.

Spherical zone.—Surface of a spherical zone or segment of = its altitude \times the circumference of a great circle of the sphere. circle is one whose plane passes through the centre of the sphere.

Volume of a zone of a sphere.—To the sum of the squares of the height and one third of the square of the height; multiply by 1.5708 .

or 1.5708 .—Volume of a spherical segment with

the height of the segment by the area of the base, and the height by .5236 and add the two products. Or, from three times of the sphere subtract twice the height of the segment; multiply by the square of the height and by .5236. Or, to three of the radius of the base of the segment add the square of 1 multiply the sum by the height and by .5236.

or ellipsoid.—When the revolution of the spheroid is about the diameter it is *prolate*, and when about the conjugate it is

face of a segment of a spheroid.—Square the diameters of the segment; take the square root of half their sum; then, as the diameter of the segment is cut is to this root so is the height of the segment to the proportionate height of the segment to the mean diameter; multiply the product of the other diameter and 3.1416 by the proportionate

face of a frustum or zone of a spheroid.—Proceed as by the surface of a segment, and obtain the proportionate frustum. Multiply the product of the diameter parallel to the frustum and 3.1416 by the proportionate height of the frustum.

Volume of a spheroid is equal to the product of the square of the revolving axis and by .5236. The volume of a spheroid is two thirds circumscribing cylinder.

a segment of a spheroid.—1. When the base is parallel to the fixed axis, multiply the difference between three times the fixed axis and twice the height of the segment, by the square of the height and by the product by the square of the revolving axis, and divide by the fixed axis.

2. When the base is perpendicular to the revolving axis, multiply the difference between three times the revolving axis and twice the height of the segment, by the square of the height and by the length of the fixed axis, and divide by the revolving axis.

the middle frustum of a spheroid.—1. When the ends are parallel to the revolving axis: To twice the square of the diameter add the square of the diameter of one end; multiply the length of the frustum and by .2618.

2. When the ends are elliptical, or perpendicular to the revolving axis: Multiply the product of the transverse and conjugate diameters of the frustum and add the product of the transverse and conjugate diameters of the base; multiply the sum by the length of the frustum and by .2618.

Volume of a circular spindle.—From the area of a plane area, when revolved about a chord perpendicular to its axis, or about its centre, the figures generated by the name of the arc or curve by which the area is generated, as Circular, Elliptic, Parabolic, etc., etc.

face of a circular spindle, zone, or segment of it.—Rule: Multiply by the radius of the revolving arc; multiply this arc by the length of the spindle, or distance between the centre of the spindle and centre of the revolving arc; subtract this product from the former, double the remainder and multiply it by 3.1416.

Volume of a circular spindle.—Multiply the central distance by half the length of the revolving segment; subtract the product from one third of the length, and multiply the remainder by 12.5664.

Volume of a frustum or zone of a circular spindle.—From the square of half the length of the whole spindle take one third of the square of half the length of the frustum, and multiply the remainder by the said half length; multiply the central distance by the revolving area which frustum; subtract this product from the former, and multiply the remainder by 6.2832.

Volume of a segment of a circular spindle.—Subtract the length of the segment from the half length of the spindle; double the remainder and multiply by the volume of a middle frustum of this length; subtract the product from the volume of the whole spindle and halve the remainder.

Volume of a spheroidal spindle.—Multiply the product of the square of twice the diameter of the spindle and 3.927 by its circumference, and divide this product by 10.

Volume of a parabolic conoid.—Volume of a parabolic conoid (generated by the revolution of a parabola on its axis).—Multiply the area of the base by half

The tangent of the supplement is equal to the tangent of the arc, but a contrary sign. Tang. $BDF = BM$.

The secant of the supplement is equal to the secant of the arc, but a contrary sign. Sec. $BDF = CM$.

Signs of the functions in the four quadrants.—Divide a circle into four quadrants by a vertical and a horizontal diameter, the upper right-hand quadrant is called the first, the upper left the second, the lower left the third, and the lower right the fourth. The signs of the functions in the four quadrants are as follows:

	First quad.	Second quad.	Third quad.	Fourth
Sine and cosecant,	+	+	-	-
Cosine and secant,	+	-	-	+
Tangent and cotangent,	+	-	+	+

The values of the functions are as follows for the angles specified:

Angle	0	30	45	60	90	120	135	150	180
Sine	0	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$	1	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	0
Cosine	1	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	0	$-\frac{1}{2}$	$-\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$	$-\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$	-1
Tangent	0	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$	1	$\sqrt{3}$	∞	$-\sqrt{3}$	-1	$-\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$	0
Cotangent	∞	$\sqrt{3}$	1	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$	0	$-\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$	-1	$-\sqrt{3}$	∞
Secant	1	$\frac{2}{\sqrt{3}}$	$\sqrt{2}$	2	∞	-2	$-\sqrt{2}$	$-\frac{2}{\sqrt{3}}$	-1
Cosecant	∞	2	$\sqrt{2}$	$\frac{2}{\sqrt{3}}$	1	$\frac{2}{\sqrt{3}}$	$\sqrt{2}$	2	∞
Versed sine	0	$\frac{2 - \sqrt{3}}{2}$	$\frac{\sqrt{2} - 1}{\sqrt{2}}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	1	$\frac{3}{2}$	$\frac{\sqrt{2} + 1}{\sqrt{2}}$	$\frac{2 + \sqrt{3}}{2}$	2

TRIGONOMETRICAL FORMULÆ.

The following relations are deduced from the properties of similar angles (Radius = 1):

$$\cos A : \sin A :: 1 : \tan A, \text{ whence } \tan A = \frac{\sin A}{\cos A};$$

$$\sin A : \cos A :: 1 : \cot A, \quad \text{"} \quad \cot A = \frac{\cos A}{\sin A};$$

$$\cos A : 1 :: 1 : \sec A, \quad \text{"} \quad \sec A = \frac{1}{\cos A};$$

$$\sin A : 1 :: 1 : \operatorname{cosec} A, \quad \text{"} \quad \operatorname{cosec} A = \frac{1}{\sin A};$$

$$\tan A : 1 :: 1 : \cot A \quad \text{"} \quad \tan A = \frac{1}{\cot A}.$$

The sum of the square of the sine of an arc and the square of its cosine equals unity. $\sin^2 A + \cos^2 A = 1$.

Formulæ for the functions of the sum and difference of two angles:

Let the two angles be denoted by A and B , their sum $A + B = C$, and their difference $A - B$ by D .

$$\sin(A + B) = \sin A \cos B + \cos A \sin B; \quad \dots$$

$$\cos(A+B) = \cos A \cos B - \sin A \sin B; \dots (2)$$

$$\sin(A-B) = \sin A \cos B - \cos A \sin B; \dots (3)$$

$$\cos(A-B) = \cos A \cos B + \sin A \sin B. \dots (4)$$

From these four formulæ by addition and subtraction we obtain

$$\sin(A+B) + \sin(A-B) = 2 \sin A \cos B; \dots (5)$$

$$\sin(A+B) - \sin(A-B) = 2 \cos A \sin B; \dots (6)$$

$$\cos(A+B) + \cos(A-B) = 2 \cos A \cos B; \dots (7)$$

$$\cos(A-B) - \cos(A+B) = 2 \sin A \sin B. \dots (8)$$

If we put $A+B=C$, and $A-B=D$, then $A = \frac{1}{2}(C+D)$ and $B = \frac{1}{2}(C-D)$ and we have

$$\sin C + \sin D = 2 \sin \frac{1}{2}(C+D) \cos \frac{1}{2}(C-D); \dots (9)$$

$$\sin C - \sin D = 2 \cos \frac{1}{2}(C+D) \sin \frac{1}{2}(C-D); \dots (10)$$

$$\cos C + \cos D = 2 \cos \frac{1}{2}(C+D) \cos \frac{1}{2}(C-D); \dots (11)$$

$$\cos D - \cos C = 2 \sin \frac{1}{2}(C+D) \sin \frac{1}{2}(C-D). \dots (12)$$

Equation (9) may be enunciated thus: The sum of the sines of any two angles is equal to twice the sine of half the sum of the angles multiplied by the cosine of half their difference. These formulæ enable us to transform sums or differences into a product.

The sum of the sines of two angles is to their difference as the tangent of half the sum of those angles is to the tangent of half their difference.

$$\frac{\sin A + \sin B}{\sin A - \sin B} = \frac{2 \sin \frac{1}{2}(A+B) \cos \frac{1}{2}(A-B)}{2 \cos \frac{1}{2}(A+B) \sin \frac{1}{2}(A-B)} = \frac{\tan \frac{1}{2}(A+B)}{\tan \frac{1}{2}(A-B)}. \quad (13)$$

The sum of the cosines of two angles is to their difference as the cotangent of half the sum of those angles is to the tangent of half their difference.

$$\frac{\cos A + \cos B}{\cos B - \cos A} = \frac{2 \cos \frac{1}{2}(A+B) \cos \frac{1}{2}(A-B)}{2 \sin \frac{1}{2}(A+B) \sin \frac{1}{2}(A-B)} = \frac{\cot \frac{1}{2}(A+B)}{\tan \frac{1}{2}(A-B)}. \quad (14)$$

The sine of the sum of two angles is to the sine of their difference as the sum of the tangents of those angles is to the difference of the tangents.

$$\frac{\sin(A+B)}{\sin(A-B)} = \frac{\tan A + \tan B}{\tan A - \tan B}, \dots (15)$$

$$\frac{\sin(A+B)}{\cos A \cos B} = \tan A + \tan B;$$

$$\frac{\sin(A-B)}{\cos A \cos B} = \tan A - \tan B;$$

$$\frac{\cos(A+B)}{\cos A \cos B} = 1 - \tan A \tan B;$$

$$\frac{\cos(A-B)}{\cos A \cos B} = 1 + \tan A \tan B;$$

$$\tan(A+B) = \frac{\tan A + \tan B}{1 - \tan A \tan B};$$

$$\tan(A-B) = \frac{\tan A - \tan B}{1 + \tan A \tan B};$$

$$\cot(A+B) = \frac{\cot A \cot B - 1}{\cot B + \cot A};$$

$$\cot(A-B) = \frac{\cot A \cot B + 1}{\cot B - \cot A}.$$

Solution of Plane Right-angled Triangles.

Let A and B be the two acute angles and C the right angle, and a, b, c the sides opposite these angles, respectively, then we have

$$\begin{array}{ll} 1. \sin A = \cos B = \frac{a}{c}; & 3. \tan A = \cot B = \frac{a}{b}; \\ 2. \cos A = \sin B = \frac{b}{c}; & 4. \cot A = \tan B = \frac{b}{a}. \end{array}$$

1. In any plane right-angled triangle the sine of either of the acute angles is equal to the quotient of the opposite leg divided by the hypotenuse.

2. The cosine of either of the acute angles is equal to the quotient of the adjacent leg divided by the hypotenuse.

3. The tangent of either of the acute angles is equal to the quotient of the opposite leg divided by the adjacent leg.

4. The cotangent of either of the acute angles is equal to the quotient of the adjacent leg divided by the opposite leg.

5. The square of the hypotenuse equals the sum of the squares of the other two sides.

Solution of Oblique-angled Triangles.

The following propositions are proved in works on plane trigonometry, any plane triangle—

Theorem 1. The sines of the angles are proportional to the opposite sides.

Theorem 2. The sum of any two sides is to their difference as the tangent of half the sum of the opposite angles is to the tangent of half their difference.

Theorem 3. If from any angle of a triangle a perpendicular be drawn to the opposite side or base, the whole base will be to the sum of the other two sides as the difference of those two sides is to the difference of the segments of the base.

CASE I. Given two angles and a side, to find the third angle and the other two sides. 1. The third angle = 180° - sum of the two angles. 2. The other sides may be found by the following proportion:

The sine of the angle opposite the given side is to the sine of the angle opposite the required side as the given side is to the required side.

CASE II. Given two sides and an angle opposite one of them, to find the third side and the remaining angles.

The side opposite the given angle is to the side opposite the required angle as the sine of the given angle is to the sine of the required angle.

The third angle is found by subtracting the sum of the other two from 180° and the third side is found as in Case I.

CASE III. Given two sides and the included angle, to find the third side and the remaining angles.

The sum of the required angles is found by subtracting the given angle from 180° . The difference of the required angles is then found by Theorem II. Half the difference added to half the sum gives the greater angle, half the difference subtracted from half the sum gives the less angle. The third side is then found by Theorem I.

Another method:

Given the sides c, b , and the included angle A , to find the remaining side a and the remaining angles B and C .

From either of the unknown angles, as B , draw a perpendicular Be to the opposite side.

Then

$$Ae = c \cos A, \quad Be = c \sin A, \quad eC = b - Ae, \quad Be + eC = \tan C.$$

Or, in other words, solve Be, Ae and BeC as right-angled triangles.

CASE IV. Given the three sides, to find the angles.

Let fall a perpendicular upon the longest side from the opposite angle, dividing the given triangle into two right-angled triangles. The two segments of the base may be found by Theorem III. There will then be given the hypotenuse and one side of a right-angled triangle, to find the angles.

For areas of triangles, see Mensuration.

ANALYTICAL GEOMETRY.

analytical geometry is that branch of Mathematics which has for object the determination of the forms and magnitudes of geometrical figures by means of analysis.

Originates and abscissas.—In analytical geometry two intersecting lines YY' , XX' are used as *coördinate axes*, XX' being the axis of abscissas or axis of X , and YY' the axis of ordinates or axis of Y . A , the intersection, is called the origin of coördinates. The distance of any point P from the axis of Y measured parallel to the axis of X is called the *abscissa* of the point, as AD or CP , Fig. 71. Its distance from the axis of X , measured parallel to the axis of Y , is called the *ordinate*, as AC or PD . The abscissa and ordinate taken together are called the *coördinates* of the point P . The angle of intersection is usually taken as a right angle, in which case the axes of X and Y are called *rectangular coördinates*.

FIG. 71.

The abscissa of a point is designated by the letter x and the ordinate by y . The equations of a point are the equations which express the distances of the point from the axis. Thus $x = a$, $y = b$ are the equations of the point P . Equations referred to *rectangular coördinates*.—The equation of a line expresses the relation which exists between the coördinates of a point of the line.

The equation of a straight line, $y = ax \pm b$, in which a is the tangent of the angle the line makes with the axis of X , and b the distance above A in which the line cuts the axis of Y .

The general equation of the first degree between two variables is the equation of a straight line, as $Ay + Bx + C = 0$, which can be reduced to the form $y = ax + b$.

The equation of the distance between two points:

$$D = \sqrt{(x'' - x')^2 + (y'' - y')^2},$$

in which x' , y' , x'' , y'' are the coördinates of the two points.

The equation of a line passing through a given point:

$$y - y' = a(x - x'),$$

in which x' , y' are the coördinates of the given point, a , the tangent of the angle the line makes with the axis of x , being undetermined, since any number of lines may be drawn through a given point.

The equation of a line passing through two given points:

$$y - y' = \frac{y'' - y'}{x'' - x'}(x - x').$$

The equation of a line parallel to a given line and through a given point:

$$y - y' = a(x - x').$$

The equation of an angle V included between two given lines:

$$\text{tang } V = \frac{a' - a}{1 + a'a'}$$

in which a and a' are the tangents of the angles the lines make with the axis of abscissas.

The lines are at right angles to each other $\text{tang } V = \infty$, and

$$1 + a'a = 0.$$

The equation of an intersection of two lines, whose equations are

$$\begin{aligned} y &= ax + b, \quad \text{and} \quad y = a'x + b', \\ x &= \frac{b - b'}{a - a'}, \quad \text{and} \quad y = \frac{ab' - a'b}{a - a'}. \end{aligned}$$

Equation of a perpendicular from a given point to a given line:

$$y - y' = -\frac{1}{a}(x - x').$$

Equation of the length of the perpendicular P :

$$P = \frac{y' - ax' - b}{\sqrt{1 + a^2}}.$$

The circle.—Equation of a circle, the origin of coördinates being at the centre, and radius = R :

$$x^2 + y^2 = R^2.$$

If the origin is at the left extremity of the diameter, on the axis of X :

$$y^2 = 2Rx - x^2.$$

If the origin is at any point, and the coördinates of the centre are $x'y'$:

$$(x - x')^2 + (y - y')^2 = R^2.$$

Equation of a tangent to a circle, the coördinates of the point of tangency being $x''y''$ and the origin at the centre,

$$yy'' + xx'' = R^2.$$

The ellipse.—Equation of an ellipse, referred to rectangular coördinates with axis at the centre:

$$A^2y^2 + B^2x^2 = A^2B^2,$$

in which A is half the transverse axis and B half the conjugate axis.

Equation of the ellipse when the origin is at the vertex of the transverse axis:

$$y^2 = \frac{B^2}{A^2}(2Ax - x^2).$$

The eccentricity of an ellipse is the distance from the centre to either focus, divided by the semi-transverse axis, or

$$e = \frac{\sqrt{A^2 - B^2}}{A}.$$

The parameter of an ellipse is the double ordinate passing through the focus. It is a third proportional to the transverse axis and its conjugate, or

$$2A : 2B :: 2B : \text{parameter}; \text{ or } \text{parameter} = \frac{2B^2}{A}.$$

Any ordinate of a circle circumscribing an ellipse is to the corresponding ordinate of the ellipse as the semi-transverse axis to the semi-conjugate. Any ordinate of a circle inscribed in an ellipse is to the corresponding ordinate of the ellipse as the semi-conjugate axis to the semi-transverse.

Equation of the tangent to an ellipse, origin of axes at the centre:

$$A^2yy'' + B^2xx'' = A^2B^2,$$

$y'x'$ being the coördinates of the point of tangency.

Equation of the normal, passing through the point of tangency, and perpendicular to the tangent:

$$y - y''xx \frac{A^2y''}{B^2x''} = (x - x'').$$

The normal bisects the angle of the two lines drawn from the point of tangency to the foci.

The lines drawn from the foci make equal angles with the tangent.

The parabola.—Equation of the parabola referred to rectangular coördinates, the origin being at the vertex of its axis, $y^2 = 2px$, in which the parameter or double ordinate through the focus.

normal, or projection of the normal on the axis, is constant, and if the parameter.

at any point makes equal angles with the axis and with the from the point of tangency to the focus.

hyperbola.—Equation of the hyperbola referred to rectangular origin at the centre:

$$A^2y^2 - B^2x^2 = -A^2B^2,$$

is the semi-transverse axis and B the semi-conjugate axis. when the origin is at the vertex of the transverse axis:

$$y^2 = \frac{B^2}{A^2}(2A - xx^2).$$

conjugate and equilateral hyperbolas.—If on the conjugate transverse, and a focal distance equal to $\sqrt{A^2 + B^2}$, we construct another hyperbola, the two hyperbolas thus constructed are conjugate hyperbolas. If the transverse and conjugate axes are equal, the hyperbolas are called equilateral, in which case $y^2 - x^2 = -A^2$ when A is the transverse axis, and $x^2 - y^2 = -B^2$ when B is the transverse axis. The parameter of the transverse axis is a third proportional to the transverse axis and its conjugate.

$$2A : 2B :: 2B : \text{parameter.}$$

to a hyperbola bisects the angle of the two lines drawn from the point of tangency to the foci.

Asymptotes of a hyperbola are the diagonals of the rectangle formed by the axes, indefinitely produced in both directions.

In the case of an equilateral hyperbola the asymptotes make equal angles with the transverse axis, and are at right angles to each other.

The asymptotes continually approach the hyperbola, and become tangent to it at infinite distance from the centre.

Sections.—Every equation of the second degree between two variables will represent either a circle, an ellipse, a parabola or a hyperbola.

These are the only curves which are obtained by intersecting the surface of a

DIFFERENTIAL CALCULUS.

The differential of a variable quantity is the difference between any of its consecutive values; hence it is indefinitely small. It is expressed by writing d before the quantity, as dx , which is read differential of x .

The term $\frac{dy}{dx}$ is called the differential coefficient of y regarded as a function of x .

The differential of a function is equal to its differential coefficient multiplied by the differential of the independent variable; thus, $\frac{dy}{dx} dx = d$

The *limit* of a variable quantity is that value to which it continually approaches, so as at last to differ from it by less than any assignable quantity.

The differential coefficient is the limit of the ratio of the increment of the independent variable to the increment of the function.

The differential of a constant quantity is equal to 0.

The differential of a product of a constant by a variable is equal to the constant multiplied by the differential of the variable.

$$\text{If } u = Av, \quad du = A dv.$$

In any curve whose equation is $y = f(x)$, the differential coefficient $\frac{dy}{dx} = \tan a$; hence, the rate of increase of the function, or the ascension of the curve at any point, is equal to the tangent of the angle which the tangent line makes with the axis of abscissas.

All the operations of the Differential Calculus comprise but two objects:

1. To find the rate of change in a function when it passes from one value to another, consecutive with it.

2. To find the actual change in the function: The rate of change, the differential coefficient, and the actual change the differential.

Differentials of algebraic functions.—The differential of the sum or difference of any number of functions, dependent on the same variable, is equal to the sum or difference of their differentials taken separately:

$$\text{If } u = y + z - w, \quad du = dy + dz - dw.$$

The differential of a product of two functions dependent on the same variable is equal to the sum of the products of each by the differential of the other:

$$d(uv) = v du + u dv. \quad \frac{d(uv)}{uv} = \frac{du}{u} + \frac{dv}{v}.$$

The differential of the product of any number of functions is equal to the sum of the products which arise by multiplying the differential of each function by the product of all the others:

$$d(uts) = t s du + u s dt + u t ds.$$

The differential of a fraction equals the differential of the numerator minus the differential of the denominator into the square of the denominator, divided by the square of the denominator:

$$dt = d\left(\frac{u}{v}\right) = \frac{v du - u dv}{v^2}.$$

If the denominator is constant, $dv = 0$, and $dt = \frac{v du}{v^2} = \frac{du}{v}$.

If the numerator is constant, $du = 0$, and $dt = -\frac{u dv}{v^2}$.

The differential of the square root of a quantity is equal to the differential of the quantity divided by twice the square root of the quantity:

$$\text{or } v = \sqrt{u}, \quad dv = \frac{du}{2\sqrt{u}}; \quad = \frac{1}{2} u^{-\frac{1}{2}} du.$$

al of any power of a function is equal to the exponent multiplied raised to a power less one, multiplied by the differential, $d(u^n) = nu^{n-1}du$.

for Differentiating algebraic functions.

Ex.

$$dx + dy.$$

$$dx - dy.$$

$$y + ydx.$$

$$6. d\left(\frac{x}{y}\right) = \frac{ydx - xdy}{y^2}.$$

$$7. d(x^m) = mx^{m-1}dx.$$

$$8. d(\sqrt{x}) = \frac{dx}{2\sqrt{x}}.$$

$$9. d\left(x^{-\frac{r}{s}}\right) = -\frac{r}{s}x^{-\frac{r}{s}-1}dx.$$

Differential of the form $u = (a + bx^n)^m$:

exponent of the parenthesis into the exponent of the variable, into the coefficient of the variable, into the binomial to a power less 1, into the variable within the parenthesis to a power less 1, into the differential of the variable.

$$u = d(a + bx^n)^m = mn(a + bx^n)^{m-1}x^{n-1}dx.$$

Rate of change for a given value of the variable:

differentiate the coefficient, and substitute the value of the variable in the member of the equation.

If x is the side of a cube and u its volume, $u = x^3$, $\frac{du}{dx} = 3x^2$.

The rate of change in the volume is three times the square of the side. If the side is denoted by 1, the rate of change is 3.

The coefficient of expansion by heat of the volume of a body is linear coefficient of expansion. Thus if the side of a cube is 1 inch, its volume expands .003 cubic inch, $1.001^3 = 1.003003001$.

Differential coefficient is the differential coefficient of one or more variables under the supposition that only one of them is varied.

Differential is the differential of a function of two or more variables under the supposition that only one of them has changed its value.

Total differential of a function of any number of variables is equal to the sum of the partial differentials.

The partial differentials are $\frac{du}{dx}dx$, $\frac{du}{dy}dy$.

$$du = \frac{du}{dx}dx + \frac{du}{dy}dy + \frac{du}{dz}dz; = 2x dx + 3y^2 dy - dz.$$

An integral is a functional expression derived from a function by integration. The operation of finding the primitive function is called integration. It is indicated by the sign \int , which is read "f." Thus $\int 2x dx = x^2$; read, the integral of $2x dx$ equals x^2 .

An expression of the form $mx^{m-1}dx$ or $x^m dx$, add 1 to the exponent, and divide by the new exponent and by the differential: $\int 3x^2 dx = x^3$. (Applicable in all cases except when

$\int x^{-1} dx$ see formula 2 page 78.)

Differential of the product of a constant by the differential of a variable is the constant multiplied by the differential of the variable:

$$\int ax^m dx = a \int x^m dx = a \frac{1}{m+1} x^{m+1}.$$

Differential of the algebraic sum of any number of differentials is equal to the sum of their integrals:

$$\int (2x^2 dx - by dy - z^2 dz); \int du = \frac{2}{3}ax^3 - \frac{b}{2}y^2 - \frac{z^3}{3}.$$

Differential of a constant is 0, a constant connected with a variable disappears in the differentiation; thus $d(a + x^m) =$

Hence in integrating a differential expression we must

annex to the integral obtained a constant represented by C to comp for the term which may have been lost in differentiation. Thus if w
 $dy = adx$; $f dy = af dx$. Integrating,

$$y = ax \pm C.$$

The constant C , which is added to the first integral, must have value as to render the functional equation true for every possible val may be attributed to the variable. Hence, after having found the integral equation and added the constant C , if we then make the value equal to zero, the value which the function assumes will be the true value of C .

An indefinite integral is the first integral obtained before the value constant C is determined.

A particular integral is the integral after the value of C has been found. A definite integral is the integral corresponding to a given value of the variable.

Integration between limits.—Having found the indefinite integral and the particular integral, the next step is to find the definite integral and then the definite integral between given limits of the variable.

The integral of a function, taken between two limits, indicated by values of x , is equal to the difference of the definite integrals corresponding to those limits. The expression

$$\int_{x'}^{x''} dy = a \int_{x'}^{x''} dx$$

is read: Integral of the differential of y , taken between the limits x' and x'' , is equal to the least limit, or the limit corresponding to the subtractive integral, placed below.

Integrate $du = 2x^2 dx$ between the limits $x = 1$ and $x = 3$, u being 81 when $x = 0$. $\int du = \int 2x^2 dx = 3x^3 + C$; $C = 81$ when $x = 0$, then

$$\int_{x=1}^{x=3} du = 3(3)^3 + 81, \text{ minus } 3(1)^3 + 81 = 78.$$

Integration of particular forms.

To integrate a differential of the form $du = (a + bx^n)^m x^{n-1} dx$.

1. If there is a constant factor, place it without the sign of the differential, and omit the power of the variable without the parenthesis and the differential;

2. Augment the exponent of the parenthesis by 1, and then divide the quantity, with the exponent so increased, by the exponent of the parenthesis, into the exponent of the variable within the parenthesis, in the coefficient of the variable. Whence

$$\int du = \frac{(a + bx^n)^{m+1}}{(m+1)nb} = C.$$

The differential of an arc is the hypotenuse of a right-angle triangle which the base is dx and the perpendicular dy .

$$\text{If } z \text{ is an arc, } dz = \sqrt{dx^2 + dy^2} \quad z = \int \sqrt{dx^2 + dy^2}.$$

Quadrature of a plane figure.

The differential of the area of a plane surface is equal to the ordinate multiplied by the differential of the abscissa.

$$ds = y dx.$$

To apply the principle enunciated in the last equation, in finding the area of any particular plane surface:

Find the value of y in terms of x , from the equation of the boundary; substitute this value in the differential equation, and then integrate between the required limits of x .

Area of the parabola.—Find the area of any portion of a parabola whose equation is

$$y^2 = 2px; \quad \text{whence } y = \sqrt{2px}.$$

noting the particular integral by s' , $s' = \frac{2}{3}xy$.

is, the area of any portion of the parabola, estimated from the vertex, is equal to $\frac{2}{3}$ of the rectangle of the abscissa and ordinate of the extreme point. The curve is therefore quadrable.

Area of surfaces of revolution.—The differential of a surface of revolution is equal to the circumference of a circle perpendicular to the axis into the differential of the arc of the meridian curve.

$$ds = 2\pi y \sqrt{dx^2 + dy^2};$$

where y is the radius of a circle of the bounding surface in a plane perpendicular to the axis of revolution, and x is the abscissa, or distance of the point from the origin of coördinate axes.

Therefore, to find the volume of any surface of revolution:

1. Find the value of y and dy from the equation of the meridian curve in terms of x and dx , then substitute these values in the differential equation, and integrate between the proper limits of x .

2. In application of this rule we may find:

The lateral surface of a cylinder equals the product of the circumference of the base into the altitude.

The convex surface of a cone equals the product of the circumference of the base into half the slant height.

The surface of a sphere is equal to the area of four great circles, or equal to the curved surface of the circumscribing cylinder.

Area of volumes of revolution.—A volume of revolution is the same as the volume generated by the revolution of a plane figure about a fixed line as the axis.

Let V denote the volume by V , $dV = \pi y^2 dx$.

The area of a circle described by any ordinate y is πy^2 ; hence the differential of a volume of revolution is equal to the area of a circle perpendicular to the axis into the differential of the axis.

The differential of a volume generated by the revolution of a plane figure about the axis of Y is $\pi x^2 dy$.

To find the value of V for any given volume of revolution:

1. Find the value of y^2 in terms of x from the equation of the meridian curve, and substitute this value in the differential equation, and then integrate between the proper limits of x .

cient $\frac{d^2u}{dx^2}$, which is read: second differential of u divided by the square of the differential of x (or dx squared),

The third differential coefficient $\frac{d^3u}{dx^3}$ is read: third differential of u divided by dx cubed.

The differentials of the different orders are obtained by multiplying the differential coefficients by the corresponding powers of dx ; thus $\frac{d^3u}{dx^3} dx^3 =$ third differential of u .

Sign of the first differential coefficient.—If we have a curve whose equation is $y = fx$, referred to rectangular coördinates, the curve will recede from the axis of X when $\frac{dy}{dx}$ is positive, and approach the axis when it is negative, when the curve lies within the first angle of the coördinate axes. For all angles and every relation of y and x the curve will recede from the axis of X when the ordinate and first differential coefficient have the same sign, and approach it when they have different signs. If the tangent of the curve becomes parallel to the axis of X at any point $\frac{dy}{dx} = 0$. If the tangent becomes perpendicular to the axis of X at any point $\frac{dy}{dx} = \infty$.

Sign of the second differential coefficient.—The second differential coefficient has the same sign as the ordinate when the curve is convex toward the axis of abscissa and a contrary sign when it is concave.

Maclaurin's Theorem.—For developing into a series any function of a single variable as $u = A + Bx + Cx^2 + Dx^3 + Ex^4$, etc., in which A, B, C , etc., are independent of x :

$$u = (u)_{x=0} + \left(\frac{du}{dx}\right)_{x=0} x + \frac{1}{1 \cdot 2} \left(\frac{d^2u}{dx^2}\right)_{x=0} x^2 + \frac{1}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3} \left(\frac{d^3u}{dx^3}\right)_{x=0} x^3 + \text{etc.}$$

In applying the formula, omit the expressions $x = 0$, although the coefficients are always found under this hypothesis.

EXAMPLES:

$$\begin{aligned} (a+x)^m &= a^m + ma^{m-1}x + \frac{m(m-1)}{1 \cdot 2} a^{m-2}x^2 \\ &\quad + \frac{m(m-1)(m-2)}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3} a^{m-3}x^3 + \text{etc.} \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{1}{a+x} = \frac{1}{a} - \frac{x}{a^2} + \frac{x^2}{a^3} - \frac{x^3}{a^4} + \dots - \frac{x^n}{a^{n+1}}, \text{ etc.}$$

Taylor's Theorem.—For developing into a series any function of the sum or difference of two independent variables, as $u' = f(x \pm y)$:

$$u' = u + \frac{du}{dx} y + \frac{d^2u}{dx^2} \frac{y^2}{1 \cdot 2} + \frac{d^3u}{dx^3} \frac{y^3}{1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3} + \text{etc.},$$

in which u is what u' becomes when $y = 0$, $\frac{du}{dx}$ is what $\frac{du'}{dx}$ becomes when $y = 0$, etc.

Maxima and minima.—To find the maximum or minimum value of a function of a single variable:

1. Find the first differential coefficient of the function, place it equal to 0, and determine the roots of the equation.
2. Find the second differential coefficient, and substitute each real root, in succession, for the variable in the second member of the equation. Each root which gives a negative result will correspond to a maximum value of the function, and each which gives a positive result will correspond to a minimum value.

EXAMPLE.—To find the value of x which will render the function y a maximum or minimum in the equation of the circle, $y^2 + x^2 = R^2$;

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{x}{y}; \text{ making } -\frac{x}{y} = 0 \text{ gives } x = 0.$$

second differential coefficient is: $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = -\frac{x^2 + y^2}{y^3}$.

= 0, $y = R$; hence $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = -\frac{1}{R^2}$, which being negative, y is a maximum.

Applying the rule to practical examples we first find an expression for a function which is to be made a maximum or minimum.

Such an expression a constant quantity is found as a factor, it may be added in the operation; for the product will be a maximum or a minimum, if the variable factor is a maximum or a minimum.

The value of the independent variable which renders a function a maximum or a minimum will render any power or root of that function a maximum or minimum; hence we may square both members of an equation if it contains radicals before differentiating.

By these rules we may find:

The maximum rectangle which can be inscribed in a triangle is one whose base is half the altitude of the triangle.

The maximum cylinder which can be inscribed in a cone is one whose diameter is the altitude of the cone.

The surface of a cylindrical vessel of a given volume, open at the top, is a minimum when the altitude equals half the diameter.

The altitude of a cylinder inscribed in a sphere when its convex surface is a minimum is $r\sqrt{2}$. $r =$ radius.

The altitude of a cylinder inscribed in a sphere when the volume is a maximum is $\frac{2r}{\sqrt{3}}$.

Differential of an exponential function.

If $u = a^x$ (1)

then $du = da^x = a^x k dx$, (2)

where k is a constant dependent on a .

Relation between a and k is $a^{\frac{1}{k}} = e$; whence $a = e^k$, (3)

where $e = 2.7182818$ the base of the Napierian system of logarithms. **Arithmetical.**—The logarithms in the Napierian system are denoted by \log or hyperbolic \log , hyp. \log , or \log_e ; and in the common system by \log .

$k = \text{Nap. log } a, \log a = k \log e$ (4)

The common logarithm of e , $= \log 2.7182818$ $= .4342945$ is called the modulus of the common system, and is denoted by M . Hence, if we have the Napierian logarithm of a number we can find the common logarithm of the number by multiplying by the modulus. Reciprocally, Nap. $\log x \times 2.3025851$.

In equation (4) we make $a = 10$, we have

$1 = k \log e$, or $\frac{1}{k} = \log e = M$.

where the modulus of the common system is equal to 1, divided by the Napierian logarithm of the common base. In equation (2) we have

$\frac{du}{u} = \frac{da^x}{a^x} = k dx$.

where $a = 10$, the base of the common system, $x = \log u$, and

$d(\log u) = dx = \frac{du}{u} \times \frac{1}{k} = \frac{du}{u} \times M$.

The differential of a common logarithm of a quantity is equal to the differential of the quantity divided by the quantity, into the modulus. If $a = e$, the base of the Napierian system, x becomes the Napierian

rian logarithm of u , and k becomes 1 (see equation (3)); hence $M = 1$,

$$d(\text{Nap. log } u) = dx = \frac{du}{a^x}; = \frac{du}{u}.$$

That is, the differential of a Napierian logarithm of a quantity is equal differential of the quantity divided by the quantity; and in the Nap system the modulus is 1.

Since k is the Napierian logarithm of a , $du = a^x l a dx$. That differential of a function of the form a^x is equal to the function, in Napierian logarithm of the base a , into the differential of the exponent.

If we have a differential in a fractional form, in which the numerator is the differential of the denominator, the integral is the Napierian log of the denominator. Integrals of fractional differentials of other form given below:

Differential forms which have known integrals; potential functions. ($l = \text{Nap. log.}$)

1. $\int a^x l a dx = a^x + C;$
2. $\int \frac{dx}{x} = \int dx x^{-1} = lx + C;$
3. $\int (xy^{x-1} dy + y^x l y \times dx) = y^x + C;$
4. $\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x^2 \pm a^2}} = l(x + \sqrt{x^2 \pm a^2}) + C;$
5. $\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x^2 \pm 2ax}} = l(x \pm a + \sqrt{x^2 \pm 2ax}) + C;$
6. $\int \frac{2adx}{a^2 - x^2} = l\left(\frac{a+x}{a-x}\right) + C;$
7. $\int \frac{2adx}{x^2 - a^2} = l\left(\frac{x-a}{x+a}\right) + C;$
8. $\int \frac{2ax dx}{x\sqrt{a^2 + x^2}} = l\left(\frac{\sqrt{a^2 + x^2} - a}{\sqrt{a^2 + x^2} + a}\right) + C;$
9. $\int \frac{2adx}{x\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}} = l\left(\frac{a - \sqrt{a^2 - x^2}}{a + \sqrt{a^2 - x^2}}\right) + C;$
10. $\int \frac{x^{-2} dx}{\sqrt{x + x^{-2}}} = -l\left(\frac{1 + \sqrt{1 + a^2 x^2}}{x}\right) + C.$

Circular functions.—Let z denote an arc in the first quadrant, x its cosine, y its versed sine, and t its tangent; and the following *tion* be employed to designate an arc by any one of its functions, viz.,

$\sin^{-1} y$ denotes an arc of which y is the sine
 $\cos^{-1} x$ “ “ “ “ “ x is the cosine,
 $\tan^{-1} t$ “ “ “ “ “ t is the tangent

and "arc whose sine is y ," etc.),—we have the following differential forms which have known integrals (r = radius):

$\int \cos z \, dz = \sin z + C;$	$\int \sin z \, dz = \text{ver-sin } z + C;$
$\int -\sin z \, dz = \cos z + C;$	$\int \frac{dz}{\cos^2 z} = \tan z + C;$
$\int \frac{dy}{\sqrt{1-y^2}} = \sin^{-1} y + C;$	$\int \frac{rdv}{\sqrt{2rv+v^2}} = \text{ver-sin}^{-1} v + C;$
$\int \frac{-dx}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} = \cos^{-1} x + C;$	$\int \frac{r^2 dt}{r^2+t^2} = \tan^{-1} t + C;$
$\int \frac{dv}{\sqrt{2v-v^2}} = \text{ver-sin}^{-1} v + C;$	$\int \frac{du}{\sqrt{a^2-u^2}} = \sin^{-1} \frac{u}{a} + C;$
$\int \frac{dt}{1+t^2} = \tan^{-1} t + C;$	$\int \frac{-du}{\sqrt{a^2-u^2}} = \cos^{-1} \frac{u}{a} + C;$
$\int \frac{r dy}{\sqrt{r^2-y^2}} = \sin^{-1} y + C;$	$\int \frac{du}{\sqrt{2au-u^2}} = \text{ver-sin}^{-1} \frac{u}{a} + C;$
$\int \frac{-rdx}{\sqrt{r^2-x^2}} = \cos^{-1} x + C;$	$\int \frac{adu}{a^2+u^2} = \tan^{-1} \frac{u}{a} + C.$

The cycloid.—If a circle be rolled along a straight line, any point of the circumference, as P , will describe a curve which is called a cycloid. The circle is called the generating circle, and P the generating point.

The transcendental equation of the cycloid is

$$x = \text{ver-sin}^{-1} y - \sqrt{2ry - y^2},$$

and the differential equation is $dx = \frac{ydx}{\sqrt{2ry - y^2}}$.

The area of the cycloid is equal to three times the area of the generating circle.

The surface described by the arc of a cycloid when revolved about its base is equal to $\frac{64}{3}$ thirds of the generating circle.

The volume of the solid generated by revolving a cycloid about its base is equal to five eighths of the circumscribing cylinder.

Integral calculus.—In the integral calculus we have to return from the differential to the function from which it was derived. A number of differential expressions are given above, each of which has a known integral corresponding to it, and which being differentiated, will produce the given differential.

In all classes of functions any differential expression may be integrated when it is reduced to one of the known forms; and the operations of the integral calculus consist mainly in making such transformations of given differential expressions as shall reduce them to equivalent ones whose integrals are known.

For methods of making these transformations reference must be made to the text-books on differential and integral calculus.

RECIPROCAL OF NUMBERS.

No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.
1	1.0000000	61	.01582500	127	.00787402	190	.00526316	253	.00392525
2	.5000000	5	.10158461	8	.00781250	1	.00523560	4	.00243701
3	.3333333	6	.01515151	9	.00775194	2	.00520833	5	.00232157
4	.2500000	7	.01492537	130	.00769231	3	.00518135	6	.00220625
5	.2000000	8	.01470588	1	.00763359	4	.00515464	7	.00209105
6	.1666667	9	.01449275	2	.00757576	5	.00512820	8	.00197587
7	.1428571	70	.01428571	3	.00751880	6	.00510204	9	.00186060
8	.1250000	1	.01408451	4	.00746269	7	.00507614	260	.00184610
9	.1111111	2	.01388889	5	.00740741	8	.00505061	1	.00183142
10	.1000000	3	.01369863	6	.00735294	9	.00502513	2	.00181673
11	.0909090	4	.01351351	7	.00729927	200	.00500000	3	.00180228
12	.0833333	5	.01333333	8	.00724638	1	.00497512	4	.00178788
13	.0769230	6	.01315789	9	.00719424	2	.00495049	5	.00177338
14	.0714285	7	.01298701	140	.00714286	3	.00492611	6	.00175890
15	.0666667	8	.01282051	1	.00709220	4	.00490196	7	.00174452
16	.0625000	9	.01265823	2	.00704225	5	.00487805	8	.00173034
17	.0582353	80	.01250000	3	.00699301	6	.00485437	9	.00171627
18	.0555555	1	.01234568	4	.00694444	7	.00483090	270	.00170230
19	.0526318	2	.01219512	5	.00689655	8	.00480769	1	.00168800
20	.0500000	3	.01204819	6	.00684931	9	.00478469	2	.00167377
1	.0476195	4	.01190476	7	.00680272	210	.00476190	3	.00165939
2	.0454545	5	.01176471	8	.00675676	11	.00473934	4	.00164493
3	.0434782	6	.01162791	9	.00671141	12	.00471698	5	.00163056
4	.0416667	7	.01149425	150	.00666667	13	.00469484	6	.00161620
5	.0400000	8	.01136364	1	.00662252	14	.00467290	7	.00160191
6	.0384615	9	.01123595	2	.00657895	15	.00465116	8	.00158762
7	.0370370	90	.01111111	3	.00653595	16	.00462963	9	.00157343
8	.0357142	1	.01098901	4	.00649351	17	.00460829	280	.00155910
9	.0344827	2	.01086956	5	.00645161	18	.00458716	1	.00154482
30	.0333333	3	.01075369	6	.00641026	19	.00456621	2	.00153056
1	.0323806	4	.01063830	7	.00636943	220	.00454545	3	.00151631
2	.0312500	5	.01052632	8	.00632911	1	.00452489	4	.00150211
3	.0303030	6	.01041667	9	.00628931	2	.00450450	5	.00148797
4	.0294117	7	.01030928	160	.00625000	3	.00448430	6	.00147399
5	.0285714	8	.01020408	1	.00621118	4	.00446429	7	.00145991
6	.0277778	9	.01010101	2	.00617284	5	.00444444	8	.00144582
7	.0270703	100	.01000000	3	.00613497	6	.00442478	9	.00143172
8	.0263157	1	.00990399	4	.00609750	7	.00440529	290	.00141763
9	.0256410	2	.00980392	5	.00606061	8	.00438596	1	.00140353
40	.0250000	3	.00970874	6	.00602410	9	.00436681	2	.00138946
1	.02439021	4	.00961538	7	.00598802	230	.00434783	3	.00137537
2	.02380952	5	.00952381	8	.00595258	1	.00432900	4	.00136130
3	.0232327	6	.00943396	9	.00591716	2	.00431034	5	.00134723
4	.0227237	7	.00934579	170	.00588235	3	.00429184	6	.00133316
5	.0222222	8	.00925926	1	.00584795	4	.00427350	7	.00131907
6	.0217391	9	.00917431	2	.00581395	5	.00425532	8	.00130500
7	.0212760	110	.00909091	3	.00578035	6	.00423729	9	.00129093
8	.0208333	11	.00900901	4	.00574713	7	.00421941	300	.00127688
9	.02040816	12	.00892857	5	.00571429	8	.00420168	1	.00126282
50	.0200000	13	.00884956	6	.00568182	9	.00418410	2	.00124877
1	.01960784	14	.00877193	7	.00564972	240	.00416667	3	.00123472
2	.01923077	15	.00869505	8	.00561798	1	.00414938	4	.00122067
3	.01886792	16	.00862069	9	.00558659	2	.00413233	5	.00120662
4	.01851832	17	.00854701	180	.00555556	3	.00411523	6	.00119257
5	.01818182	18	.00847454	1	.00552486	4	.00409836	7	.00117852
6	.01785714	19	.00840336	2	.00549451	5	.00408163	8	.00116447
7	.01754986	120	.00833333	3	.00546448	6	.00406504	9	.00115042
8	.01724138	1	.00826446	4	.00543478	7	.00404858	310	.00113637
9	.01694915	2	.00819672	5	.00540540	8	.00403225	11	.00112232
60	.0166667	3	.00813008	6	.00537634	9	.00401606	12	.00110827
1	.0163344	4	.00806452	7	.00534759	250	.00400000	13	.00109422
2	.01602903	5	.00800000	8	.00531914	1	.00398406	14	.00108017
3	.01572903	6	.00793617	9	.00529099	2	.00396811	15	.00106612

RECIPROCAL OF NUMBERS.

No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.
1	.00262407	446	.00224215	511	.00195695	576	.00170000
2	.00261780	7	.00223714	12	.00195312	7	.00169999
3	.00261097	8	.00223214	13	.00194932	8	.00169998
4	.00260417	9	.00222717	14	.00194552	9	.00169997
5	.00259740	450	.00222222	15	.00194175	580	.00169996
6	.00259067	1	.00221729	16	.00193798	1	.00169995
7	.00258398	2	.00221239	17	.00193424	2	.00169994
8	.00257732	3	.00220751	18	.00193050	3	.00169993
9	.00257069	4	.00220264	19	.00192678	4	.00169992
10	.00256410	5	.00219780	520	.00192308	5	.00169991
11	.00255754	6	.00219298	1	.00191939	6	.00169990
12	.00255102	7	.00218818	2	.00191571	7	.00169989
13	.00254453	8	.00218341	3	.00191205	8	.00169988
14	.00253807	9	.00217865	4	.00190840	9	.00169987
15	.00253165	460	.00217391	5	.00190476	590	.00169986
16	.00252525	1	.00216920	6	.00190114	1	.00169985
17	.00251889	2	.00216450	7	.00189753	2	.00169984
18	.00251256	3	.00215983	8	.00189394	3	.00169983
19	.00250627	4	.00215517	9	.00189036	4	.00169982
20	.00250000	5	.00215054	530	.00188679	5	.00169981
21	.00249377	6	.00214592	1	.00188324	6	.00169980
22	.00248756	7	.00214133	2	.00187970	7	.00169979
23	.00248139	8	.00213675	3	.00187617	8	.00169978
24	.00247525	9	.00213220	4	.00187266	9	.00169977
25	.00246914	470	.00212766	5	.00186916	600	.00169976
26	.00246305	1	.00212314	6	.00186567	1	.00169975
27	.00245700	2	.00211864	7	.00186220	2	.00169974
28	.00245098	3	.00211416	8	.00185874	3	.00169973
29	.00244499	4	.00210970	9	.00185528	4	.00169972
30	.00243902	5	.00210526	540	.00185185	5	.00169971
31	.00243309	6	.00210084	1	.00184843	6	.00169970
32	.00242718	7	.00209644	2	.00184502	7	.00169969
33	.00242131	8	.00209205	3	.00184162	8	.00169968
34	.00241546	9	.00208768	4	.00183823	9	.00169967
35	.00240964	480	.00208333	5	.00183486	610	.00169966
36	.00240385	1	.00207900	6	.00183150	11	.00169965
37	.00239808	2	.00207469	7	.00182815	12	.00169964
38	.00239234	3	.00207039	8	.00182482	13	.00169963
39	.00238663	4	.00206612	9	.00182149	14	.00169962
40	.00238095	5	.00206186	550	.00181818	15	.00169961
41	.00237530	6	.00205761	1	.00181488	16	.00169960
42	.00236967	7	.00205339	2	.00181159	17	.00169959
43	.00236407	8	.00204918	3	.00180832	18	.00169958
44	.00235849	9	.00204499	4	.00180505	19	.00169957
45	.00235294	490	.00204082	5	.00180180	620	.00169956
46	.00234742	1	.00203666	6	.00179856	1	.00169955
47	.00234192	2	.00203252	7	.00179533	2	.00169954
48	.00233645	3	.00202840	8	.00179211	3	.00169953
49	.00233100	4	.00202429	9	.00178891	4	.00169952
50	.00232558	5	.00202020	560	.00178571	5	.00169951
51	.00232019	6	.00201613	1	.00178253	6	.00169950
52	.00231481	7	.00201207	2	.00177936	7	.00169949
53	.00230947	8	.00200803	3	.00177620	8	.00169948
54	.00230415	9	.00200401	4	.00177305	9	.00169947
55	.00229885	500	.00200000	5	.00176991	630	.00169946
56	.00229358	1	.00199601	6	.00176678	1	.00169945
57	.00228833	2	.00199203	7	.00176367	2	.00169944
58	.00228310	3	.00198807	8	.00176056	3	.00169943
59	.00227790	4	.00198413	9	.00175747	4	.00169942
60	.00227273	5	.00198020	570	.00175439	5	.00169941
61	.00226757	6	.00197628	1	.00175131	6	.00169940
62	.00226244	7	.00197239	2	.00174825	7	.00169939
63	.00225734	8	.00196850	3	.00174520	8	.00169938
64	.00225226	9	.00196463	4	.00174216	9	.00169937

No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.
041	.00156006	706	.00141643	771	.00129702	836	.00119617	901	.00110288
2	.00155763	7	.00141443	2	.00129534	7	.00119474	2	.00110863
3	.00155521	8	.00141243	3	.00129366	8	.00119332	3	.00110742
4	.00155279	9	.00141044	4	.00129199	9	.00119189	4	.00110619
5	.00155039	710	.00140845	5	.00129032	840	.00119048	5	.00110497
6	.00154799	11	.00140647	6	.00128866	1	.00118906	6	.00110375
7	.00154559	12	.00140449	7	.00128700	2	.00118765	7	.00110254
8	.00154321	13	.00140252	8	.00128535	3	.00118624	8	.00110132
9	.00154083	14	.00140056	9	.00128370	4	.00118483	9	.00110011
650	.00153846	15	.00139860	780	.00128205	5	.00118343	910	.00109890
1	.00153610	16	.00139665	1	.00128041	6	.00118203	11	.00109769
2	.00153374	17	.00139470	2	.00127877	7	.00118064	12	.00109648
3	.00153138	18	.00139276	3	.00127714	8	.00117924	13	.00109528
4	.00152905	19	.00139082	4	.00127551	9	.00117786	14	.00109409
5	.00152672	730	.00138889	5	.00127388	850	.00117647	15	.00109290
6	.00152439	1	.00138696	6	.00127226	1	.00117509	16	.00109171
7	.00152207	2	.00138504	7	.00127065	2	.00117371	17	.00109051
8	.00151975	3	.00138313	8	.00126904	3	.00117233	18	.00108932
9	.00151745	4	.00138121	9	.00126743	4	.00117096	19	.00108814
660	.00151515	5	.00137931	790	.00126582	5	.00116959	920	.00108696
1	.00151286	6	.00137741	1	.00126422	6	.00116822	1	.00108578
2	.00151057	7	.00137552	2	.00126263	7	.00116686	2	.00108460
3	.00150830	8	.00137363	3	.00126103	8	.00116550	3	.00108342
4	.00150602	9	.00137174	4	.00125945	9	.00116414	4	.00108225
5	.00150376	730	.00136986	5	.00125786	860	.00116279	5	.00108108
6	.00150150	1	.00136799	6	.00125628	1	.00116144	6	.00107991
7	.00149925	2	.00136612	7	.00125470	2	.00116009	7	.00107875
8	.00149701	3	.00136426	8	.00125313	3	.00115875	8	.00107759
9	.00149477	4	.00136240	9	.00125156	4	.00115741	9	.00107643
670	.00149254	5	.00136054	800	.00125000	5	.00115607	980	.00107527
1	.00149031	6	.00135870	1	.00124844	6	.00115473	1	.00107411
2	.00148809	7	.00135685	2	.00124688	7	.00115340	2	.00107296
3	.00148588	8	.00135501	3	.00124533	8	.00115207	3	.00107181
4	.00148368	9	.00135318	4	.00124378	9	.00115075	4	.00107066
5	.00148148	740	.00135135	5	.00124224	870	.00114942	5	.00106952
6	.00147929	1	.00134953	6	.00124069	1	.00114811	6	.00106838
7	.00147710	2	.00134771	7	.00123916	2	.00114679	7	.00106724
8	.00147493	3	.00134589	8	.00123763	3	.00114547	8	.00106610
9	.00147275	4	.00134409	9	.00123609	4	.00114416	9	.00106496
680	.00147059	5	.00134228	810	.00123457	5	.00114286	940	.00106383
1	.00146843	6	.00134048	11	.00123305	6	.00114155	1	.00106270
2	.00146628	7	.00133869	12	.00123153	7	.00114025	2	.00106157
3	.00146413	8	.00133690	13	.00123001	8	.00113895	3	.00106044
4	.00146199	9	.00133511	14	.00122850	9	.00113766	4	.00105932
5	.00145985	750	.00133333	15	.00122699	880	.00113636	5	.00105820
6	.00145773	1	.00133156	16	.00122549	1	.00113507	6	.00105708
7	.00145560	2	.00132979	17	.00122399	2	.00113379	7	.00105597
8	.00145349	3	.00132802	18	.00122249	3	.00113250	8	.00105485
9	.00145137	4	.00132626	19	.00122100	4	.00113122	9	.00105374
690	.00144927	5	.00132450	820	.00121951	5	.00112994	950	.00105263
1	.00144718	6	.00132275	1	.00121803	6	.00112867	1	.00105152
2	.00144509	7	.00132100	2	.00121654	7	.00112740	2	.00105042
3	.00144300	8	.00131926	3	.00121507	8	.00112613	3	.00104932
4	.00144092	9	.00131752	4	.00121359	9	.00112486	4	.00104822
5	.00143885	760	.00131579	5	.00121212	890	.00112360	5	.00104712
6	.00143678	1	.00131406	6	.00121065	1	.00112233	6	.00104602
7	.00143472	2	.00131234	7	.00120919	2	.00112108	7	.00104492
8	.00143266	3	.00131062	8	.00120773	3	.00111982	8	.00104384
9	.00143061	4	.00130890	9	.00120627	4	.00111857	9	.00104275
700	.00142857	5	.00130719	830	.00120482	5	.00111732	960	.00104167
1	.00142653	6	.00130548	1	.00120337	6	.00111607	1	.00104059
2	.00142450	7	.00130378	2	.00120192	7	.00111483	2	.00103951
3	.00142247	8	.00130208	3	.00120048	8	.00111359	3	.00103843
4	.00142045	9	.00130039	4	.00119904	9	.00111235	4	.00103735
5	.00141844	770	.00129870	5	.00119760	900	.00111111	5	.00103627

No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.
1031	.000969932	1096	.000912409	1161	.000861326	1226	.000815661
2	.000968992	7	.000911577	2	.000860585	7	.000814996
3	.000968054	8	.000910747	3	.000859845	8	.000814332
4	.000967118	9	.000909918	4	.000859106	9	.000813670
5	.000966184	1100	.000909091	5	.000858369	1230	.000813008
6	.000965251	1	.000908265	6	.000857633	1	.000812348
7	.000964320	2	.000907441	7	.000856898	2	.000811688
8	.000963391	3	.000906618	8	.000856164	3	.000811029
9	.000962464	4	.000905797	9	.000855432	4	.000810373
1040	.000961538	5	.000904977	1170	.000854701	5	.000809717
1	.000960615	6	.000904159	1	.000853971	6	.000809061
2	.000959693	7	.000903342	2	.000853242	7	.000808407
3	.000958774	8	.000902527	3	.000852515	8	.000807754
4	.000957854	9	.000901713	4	.000851789	9	.000807102
5	.000956938	1110	.000900901	5	.000851064	1240	.000806452
6	.000956023	11	.000900090	6	.000850340	1	.000805802
7	.000955110	12	.000899281	7	.000849618	2	.000805153
8	.000954198	13	.000898473	8	.000848896	3	.000804505
9	.000953289	14	.000897666	9	.000848176	4	.000803858
1050	.000952381	15	.000896861	1180	.000847457	5	.000803213
1	.000951475	16	.000896057	1	.000846740	6	.000802568
2	.000950570	17	.000895255	2	.000846024	7	.000801925
3	.000949668	18	.000894454	3	.000845308	8	.000801283
4	.000948767	19	.000893655	4	.000844595	9	.000800640
5	.000947867	1130	.000892857	5	.000843882	1250	.000800000
6	.000946970	1	.000892061	6	.000843170	1	.000799360
7	.000946074	2	.000891266	7	.000842460	2	.000798722
8	.000945180	3	.000890472	8	.000841751	3	.000798085
9	.000944287	4	.000889680	9	.000841043	4	.000797448
1060	.000943396	5	.000888889	1190	.000840336	5	.000796813
1	.000942507	6	.000888099	1	.000839631	6	.000796178
2	.000941620	7	.000887311	2	.000838926	7	.000795545
3	.000940734	8	.000886525	3	.000838222	8	.000794913
4	.000939850	9	.000885740	4	.000837521	9	.000794281
5	.000938967	1130	.000884956	5	.000836820	1260	.000793651
6	.000938086	1	.000884173	6	.000836120	1	.000793021
7	.000937207	2	.000883392	7	.000835422	2	.000792393
8	.000936330	3	.000882612	8	.000834724	3	.000791766
9	.000935454	4	.000881834	9	.000834028	4	.000791139
1070	.000934579	5	.000881057	1200	.000833333	5	.000790514
1	.000933707	6	.000880282	1	.000832639	6	.000789889
2	.000932836	7	.000879508	2	.000831947	7	.000789266
3	.000931966	8	.000878735	3	.000831255	8	.000788643
4	.000931099	9	.000877963	4	.000830565	9	.000788022
5	.000930232	1140	.000877193	5	.000829875	1270	.000787402
6	.000929368	1	.000876424	6	.000829187	1	.000786782
7	.000928505	2	.000875657	7	.000828500	2	.000786163
8	.000927644	3	.000874891	8	.000827815	3	.000785546
9	.000926784	4	.000874126	9	.000827130	4	.000784929
1080	.000925926	5	.000873362	1210	.000826446	5	.000784314
1	.000925069	6	.000872600	1	.000825764	6	.000783699
2	.000924214	7	.000871840	2	.000825082	7	.000783085
3	.000923361	8	.000871080	3	.000824402	8	.000782473
4	.000922509	9	.000870322	4	.000823722	9	.000781861
5	.000921659	1150	.000869565	5	.000823045	1280	.000781250
6	.000920810	1	.000868810	6	.000822368	1	.000780640
7	.000920063	2	.000868056	7	.000821693	2	.000780031
8	.000919318	3	.000867303	8	.000821018	3	.000779423
9	.000918574	4	.000866551	9	.000820344	4	.000778810
1090	.000917831	5	.000865800	1220	.000819672	5	.000778201
1	.000917090	6	.000865052	1	.000819001	6	.000777590
2	.000916350	7	.000864304	2	.000818331	7	.000776980
3	.000915751	8	.000863558	3	.000817661	8	.000776373
4	.000915103	9	.000862813	4	.000817003	9	.000775765
5	.000914477	1160	.000862069	5	.000816336	1290	.000775158

MATHEMATICAL TABLES.

No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.
1356	.000737463	1421	.000703730	1486	.000672948	1551	.000644745
7	.000736920	2	.000703235	7	.000672495	2	.000644330
5	.000736377	3	.000702741	8	.000672043	3	.000643915
6	.000735835	4	.000702247	9	.000671592	4	.000643501
1360	.000735294	5	.000701754	1490	.000671141	5	.000643087
05	1 .000734754	6	.000701262	1	.000670691	6	.000642673
10	2 .000734214	7	.000700771	2	.000670241	7	.000642259
16	3 .000733676	8	.000700280	3	.000669791	8	.000641845
23	4 .000733138	9	.000699790	4	.000669341	9	.000641431
32	5 .000732601	1430	.000699301	5	.000668891	1560	.000641025
43	6 .000732064	1	.000698812	6	.000668441	1	.000640615
56	7 .000731529	2	.000698324	7	.000668003	2	.000640206
70	8 .000730994	3	.000697837	8	.000667557	3	.000639795
87	9 .000730460	4	.000697350	9	.000667111	4	.000639386
107	.000729927	5	.000696864	1500	.000666667	5	.000638978
130	1 .000729395	6	.000696379	1	.000666223	6	.000638570
157	2 .000728863	7	.000695894	2	.000665779	7	.000638162
187	3 .000728332	8	.000695410	3	.000665336	8	.000637753
220	4 .000727802	9	.000694927	4	.000664894	9	.000637344
257	5 .000727273	1440	.000694444	5	.000664452	1570	.000636934
297	6 .000726744	1	.000693962	6	.000664011	1	.000636527
341	7 .000726216	2	.000693481	7	.000663570	2	.000636120
389	8 .000725689	3	.000693001	8	.000663130	3	.000635712
441	9 .000725163	4	.000692521	9	.000662691	4	.000635304
497	.000724638	5	.000692041	1510	.000662252	5	.000634891
557	1 .000724113	6	.000691563	11	.000661813	6	.000634481
621	2 .000723589	7	.000691085	12	.000661376	7	.000634073
689	3 .000723066	8	.000690608	13	.000660939	8	.000633664
761	4 .000722543	9	.000690131	14	.000660502	9	.000633254
837	5 .000722022	1450	.000689655	15	.000660066	1580	.000632841
917	6 .000721501	1	.000689180	16	.000659631	1	.000632431
1001	7 .000720979	2	.000688705	17	.000659196	2	.000632021
1089	8 .000720461	3	.000688231	18	.000658761	3	.000631612
1181	9 .000719942	4	.000687758	19	.000658328	4	.000631203
1277	.000719424	5	.000687285	1520	.000657895	5	.000630793
1377	1 .000718907	6	.000686813	1	.000657462	6	.000630384
1481	2 .000718391	7	.000686341	2	.000657030	7	.000630000
1589	3 .000717875	8	.000685871	3	.000656598	8	.000629622
1701	4 .000717360	9	.000685401	4	.000656168	9	.000629247
1817	5 .000716846	1460	.000684932	5	.000655738	1590	.000628831
1937	6 .000716332	1	.000684463	6	.000655308	1	.000628436
2061	7 .000715820	2	.000683994	7	.000654879	2	.000628041
2189	8 .000715308	3	.000683527	8	.000654450	3	.000627646
2321	9 .000714796	4	.000683060	9	.000654022	4	.000627253
2457	1400 .000714286	5	.000682594	1530	.000653595	5	.000626863
2597	1 .000713776	6	.000682128	1	.000653168	6	.000626466
2741	2 .000713267	7	.000681663	2	.000652742	7	.000626074
2889	3 .000712758	8	.000681199	3	.000652316	8	.000625682
3041	4 .000712251	9	.000680735	4	.000651890	9	.000625291
3197	5 .000711744	1470	.000680272	5	.000651460	1600	.000625000
3357	6 .000711238	1	.000679810	6	.000651042	2	.000624619
3521	7 .000710732	2	.000679348	7	.000650618	3	.000624241
3689	8 .000710227	3	.000678887	8	.000650195	4	.000623865
3861	9 .000709723	4	.000678426	9	.000649773	5	.000623489
4037	1410 .000709220	5	.000677966	1540	.000649351	1610	.000623115
4217	11 .000708717	6	.000677507	1	.000648929	2	.000622741
4401	12 .000708215	7	.000677048	2	.000648508	3	.000622367
4589	13 .000707714	8	.000676590	3	.000648088	4	.000621993
4781	14 .000707214	9	.000676132	4	.000647668	5	.000621621
4977	15 .000706714	1480	.000675676	5	.000647249	1620	.000621254
5177	16 .000706215	1	.000675219	6	.000646830	2	.000620882
5381	17 .000705716	2	.000674764	7	.000646412	3	.000620513
5589	18 .000705219	3	.000674309	8	.000645995	4	.000620145
5801	19 .000704722	4	.000673854	9	.000645578	5	.000619778
6017	1420 .000704225	5	.000673401	1550	.000645161	1630	.000619413

whose sine is y ," etc.),—we have the following differential forms and their corresponding integrals (r = radius):

$= \sin z + C;$	$\int \sin z \, dz = \text{ver-sin } z + C;$
$= \cos z + C;$	$\int \frac{dz}{\cos^2 z} = \tan z + C;$
$= \sin^{-1} y + C;$	$\int \frac{r \, dv}{\sqrt{2rv + v^2}} = \text{ver-sin}^{-1} v + C;$
$= \cos^{-1} x + C;$	$\int \frac{r^2 \, dt}{r^2 + t^2} = \tan^{-1} t + C;$
$= \text{ver-sin}^{-1} v + C;$	$\int \frac{du}{\sqrt{a^2 - u^2}} = \sin^{-1} \frac{u}{a} + C;$
$= \tan^{-1} t + C;$	$\int \frac{-du}{\sqrt{a^2 - u^2}} = \cos^{-1} \frac{u}{a} + C;$
$= \sin^{-1} y + C;$	$\int \frac{du}{\sqrt{2au - u^2}} = \text{ver-sin}^{-1} \frac{u}{a} + C;$
$= \cos^{-1} x + C;$	$\int \frac{adu}{a^2 + u^2} = \tan^{-1} \frac{u}{a} + C.$

Prop.—If a circle be rolled along a straight line, any point of its circumference, as P , will describe a curve which is called a cycloid. The generating circle, and P the generating point. The differential equation of the cycloid is

$$x = \text{ver-sin}^{-1} y - \sqrt{2ry - y^2},$$

and its differential equation is $dx = \frac{y \, dy}{\sqrt{2ry - y^2}}$.

The area under the cycloid is equal to three times the area of the generating circle. The surface described by the arc of a cycloid when revolved about its base is equal to three times the area of the generating circle. The volume of the solid generated by revolving a cycloid about its base is equal to three times the volume of the circumscribing cylinder.

Integration.—In the integral calculus we have to return from the integral to the function from which it was derived. A number of expressions are given above, each of which has a known corresponding integral, and which, when being differentiated, will produce the original function. In the integral calculus, of functions any differential expression may be integrated and reduced to one of the known forms; and the operations of the integral calculus consist mainly in making such transformations of given expressions as shall reduce them to equivalent ones whose integrals are known.

In making these transformations reference must be made to the preceding chapters on differential and integral calculus.

RECIPROCAL OF NUMBERS.

No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Re
1	.00000000	61	.01562500	137	.00787402	190	.00526316	253	.00395061
2	.50000000	5	.01534661	8	.00781250	1	.00523560	4	.00392305
3	.33333333	6	.01515151	9	.00775194	2	.00520893	5	.00389548
4	.25000000	7	.01492537	130	.00769231	3	.00518135	6	.00386791
5	.20000000	8	.01470588	1	.00763459	4	.00515464	7	.00384034
6	.16666667	9	.01449275	2	.00757576	5	.00512890	8	.00381277
7	.14285714	70	.01428571	3	.00751880	6	.00510320	9	.00378520
8	.12500000	1	.01408451	4	.00746269	7	.005077614	260	.00375763
9	.11111111	2	.01388889	5	.00740741	8	.005052051	1	.00373006
10	.10000000	3	.01369863	6	.00735294	9	.005026513	2	.00370249
11	.09090909	4	.01351351	7	.00729927	200	.005000000	3	.00367492
12	.08333333	5	.01333333	8	.00724638	1	.00497512	4	.00364735
13	.07692308	6	.01315789	9	.00719424	2	.00495049	5	.00361978
14	.07142857	7	.01298701	140	.00714286	3	.00492611	6	.00359221
15	.06666667	8	.01282051	1	.00709220	4	.00490196	7	.00356464
16	.06250000	9	.01265823	2	.00704225	5	.00487805	8	.00353707
17	.0582353	80	.01250000	3	.00699301	6	.00485437	9	.00350950
18	.05555556	1	.01234568	4	.00694444	7	.00483092	270	.00348193
19	.05263158	2	.01219512	5	.00689655	8	.00480769	1	.00345436
20	.05000000	3	.01204819	6	.00684931	9	.00478469	2	.00342679
1	.04761905	4	.01190476	7	.00680272	210	.00476190	3	.00339922
2	.04545455	5	.01176471	8	.00675676	11	.00473934	4	.00337165
3	.0437826	6	.01162791	9	.00671141	12	.00471698	5	.00334408
4	.04166667	7	.01149425	150	.00666667	13	.00469484	6	.00331651
5	.04000000	8	.01136364	1	.00662252	14	.00467290	7	.00328894
6	.03846154	9	.01123595	2	.00657895	15	.00465116	8	.00326137
7	.03703704	90	.01111111	3	.00653585	16	.00462963	9	.00323380
8	.03571429	1	.01098901	4	.00649351	17	.00460829	280	.00320623
9	.03448276	2	.01086956	5	.00645161	18	.00458716	1	.00317866
30	.03333333	3	.01075369	6	.00641026	19	.00456603	2	.00315109
1	.03225806	4	.01063830	7	.00636943	220	.00454545	3	.00312352
2	.03125000	5	.01052632	8	.00632911	1	.00452489	4	.00309595
3	.03030303	6	.01041667	9	.00628931	2	.00450450	5	.00306838
4	.02941176	7	.01030928	160	.00625000	3	.00448430	6	.00304081
5	.02857143	8	.01020308	1	.00621118	4	.00446429	7	.00301324
6	.02777778	9	.01010101	2	.00617284	5	.00444444	8	.00298567
7	.02702703	100	.01000000	3	.00613497	6	.00442478	9	.00295810
8	.02631579	1	.00990099	4	.00609756	7	.00440529	300	.00293053
9	.02564103	2	.00980392	5	.00606061	8	.00438596	1	.00290296
40	.02500000	3	.00970874	6	.00602410	9	.00436681	2	.00287539
1	.02439021	4	.00961538	7	.00598802	230	.00434783	3	.00284782
2	.02380952	5	.00952381	8	.00595238	1	.00432900	4	.00282025
3	.02325581	6	.00943396	9	.00591716	2	.00431034	5	.00279268
4	.02272727	7	.00934579	170	.00588235	3	.00429184	6	.00276511
5	.02222222	8	.00925926	1	.00584795	4	.00427350	7	.00273754
6	.02173913	9	.00917431	2	.00581395	5	.00425532	8	.00271000
7	.02127660	110	.00909091	3	.00578035	6	.00423729	9	.00268243
8	.02083333	11	.00900901	4	.00574713	7	.00421941	300	.00265486
9	.02040816	12	.00892857	5	.00571429	8	.00420168	1	.00262729
50	.02000000	13	.00884935	6	.00568182	9	.00418410	2	.00260000
1	.01960784	14	.00877193	7	.00564972	240	.00416667	3	.00257243
2	.01923077	15	.00869565	8	.00561798	1	.00414938	4	.00254486
3	.01886792	16	.00862069	9	.00558659	2	.00413232	5	.00251729
4	.01851852	17	.00854701	180	.00555596	3	.00411523	6	.00248972
5	.01818182	18	.00847458	1	.00552486	4	.00409826	7	.00246215
6	.01785714	19	.00840326	2	.00549451	5	.00408163	8	.00243458
7	.01754386	190	.00833333	3	.00546448	6	.00406504	9	.00240701
8	.01724138	1	.00826446	4	.00543478	7	.00404858	310	.00237944
9	.01694915	2	.00819672	5	.00540540	8	.00403226	11	.00235187
60	.01666667	3	.00813008	6	.00537634	9	.00401606	12	.00232430
			.00806452	7	.00534759	250	.00400000	13	.00229673
			.00800000	8	.00531914	1	.00398406	14	.00226916

pro-	No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.
6456	381	.00262467	446	.00224215	511	.00195695	576	.00173611
6457	2	.00261780	7	.00223714	12	.00195312	7	.00173310
64465	3	.00261097	8	.00223214	13	.00194932	8	.00173010
64480	4	.00260417	9	.00222717	14	.00194552	9	.00172712
64500	5	.00259740	450	.00222222	15	.00194175	580	.00172414
64526	6	.00259067	1	.00221729	16	.00193798	1	.00172117
64550	7	.00258398	2	.00221239	17	.00193424	2	.00171821
64577	8	.00257732	3	.00220751	18	.00193050	3	.00171527
64602	9	.00257069	4	.00220264	19	.00192678	4	.00171233
64628	800	.00256410	5	.00219780	520	.00192308	5	.00170940
64654	1	.00255754	6	.00219298	1	.00191939	6	.00170648
64680	2	.00255102	7	.00218818	2	.00191571	7	.00170358
64707	3	.00254453	8	.00218341	3	.00191205	8	.00170068
64733	4	.00253807	9	.00217865	4	.00190840	9	.00169779
64759	5	.00253165	460	.00217391	5	.00190476	590	.00169491
64785	6	.00252525	1	.00216920	6	.00190114	1	.00169205
64811	7	.00251889	2	.00216450	7	.00189753	2	.00168919
64837	8	.00251256	3	.00215983	8	.00189394	3	.00168634
64863	9	.00250627	4	.00215517	9	.00189036	4	.00168350
64889	400	.00250000	5	.00215054	530	.00188679	5	.00168067
64915	1	.00249377	6	.00214592	1	.00188324	6	.00167785
64941	2	.00248756	7	.00214133	2	.00187970	7	.00167504
64967	3	.00248139	8	.00213675	3	.00187617	8	.00167224
64993	4	.00247525	9	.00213220	4	.00187266	9	.00166945
65019	5	.00246914	470	.00212766	5	.00186916	600	.00166667
65045	6	.00246305	1	.00212314	6	.00186567	1	.00166389
65071	7	.00245700	2	.00211864	7	.00186220	2	.00166113
65097	8	.00245098	3	.00211416	8	.00185874	3	.00165837
65123	9	.00244499	4	.00210970	9	.00185529	3	.00165563
65149	410	.00243902	5	.00210526	540	.00185185	5	.00165289
65175	11	.00243309	6	.00210084	1	.00184842	6	.00165016
65201	12	.00242718	7	.00209644	2	.00184502	7	.00164745
65227	13	.00242131	8	.00209205	3	.00184162	8	.00164474
65253	14	.00241546	9	.00208768	4	.00183823	9	.00164204
65279	15	.00240964	480	.00208333	5	.00183486	610	.00163931
65305	16	.00240385	1	.00207900	6	.00183150	11	.00163666
65331	17	.00239808	2	.00207469	7	.00182815	12	.00163409
65357	18	.00239234	3	.00207039	8	.00182482	13	.00163152
65383	19	.00238663	4	.00206612	9	.00182149	14	.00162896
65409	420	.00238095	5	.00206186	500	.00181818	15	.00162640
65435	1	.00237530	6	.00205761	1	.00181488	16	.00162387
65461	2	.00236967	7	.00205339	2	.00181159	17	.00162135
65487	3	.00236407	8	.00204918	3	.00180832	18	.00161882
65513	4	.00235849	9	.00204499	4	.00180505	19	.00161631
65539	5	.00235294	490	.00204082	5	.00180180	620	.00161380
65565	6	.00234742	1	.00203666	6	.00179856	1	.00161131
65591	7	.00234192	2	.00203252	7	.00179533	2	.00160882
65617	8	.00233645	3	.00202840	8	.00179211	3	.00160634
65643	9	.00233100	4	.00202429	9	.00178891	3	.00160386
65669	430	.00232558	5	.00202020	560	.00178571	5	.00160140
65695	1	.00232019	6	.00201613	1	.00178253	6	.00159894
65721	2	.00231481	7	.00201207	2	.00177936	7	.00159649
65747	3	.00230947	8	.00200803	3	.00177620	8	.00159406
65773	4	.00230415	9	.00200401	4	.00177305	9	.00159163
65799	5	.00229885	500	.00200000	5	.00176991	1	.00158920
65825	6	.00229358	1	.00199601	6	.00176678	2	.00158677
65851	7	.00228833	2	.00199203	7	.00176367	3	.00158434
65877	8	.00228310	3	.00198807	8	.00176056	4	.00158191
65903	9	.00227790	4	.00198413	9	.00175747	5	.00157948
65929	440	.00227273	5	.00198020	570	.00175439	6	.00157705
65955	1	.00226757	6	.00197628	1	.00175131	7	.00157463
65981	2	.00226244	7	.00197239	2	.00174825	8	.00157220
66007	3	.00225734	8	.00196850	3	.00174520	9	.00156977
66033	4	.00225226	9	.00196463	4	.00174216	10	.00156734



Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.
03530	1031	.000969932	1096	.000912409	1161	.000861326	1226	.000815661
03413	2	.000968992	7	.000911577	2	.000860585	7	.000814996
03306	3	.000968054	8	.000910747	3	.000859845	8	.000814332
03199	4	.000967118	9	.000909918	4	.000859106	9	.000813670
03093	5	.000966184	1100	.000909091	5	.000858369	1230	.000813008
02987	6	.000965251	1	.000908265	6	.000857633	1	.000812348
02881	7	.000964320	2	.000907441	7	.000856898	2	.000811688
02775	8	.000963391	3	.000906618	8	.000856164	3	.000811030
02669	9	.000962464	4	.000905797	9	.000855432	4	.000810373
02564	1040	.000961538	5	.000904977	1170	.000854701	5	.000809717
02459	1	.000960615	6	.000904159	1	.000853971	6	.000809061
02354	2	.000959693	7	.000903342	2	.000853242	7	.000808407
02250	3	.000958774	8	.000902527	3	.000852515	8	.000807754
02145	4	.000957854	9	.000901713	4	.000851789	9	.000807102
02041	5	.000956938	1110	.000900901	5	.000851064	1240	.000806452
01937	6	.000956023	11	.000900090	6	.000850340	1	.000805802
01833	7	.000955110	12	.000899281	7	.000849618	2	.000805153
01729	8	.000954198	13	.000898473	8	.000848896	3	.000804505
01626	9	.000953289	14	.000897666	9	.000848176	4	.000803858
01523	1050	.000952381	15	.000896861	1180	.000847457	5	.000803213
01420	1	.000951475	16	.000896057	1	.000846740	6	.000802568
01317	2	.000950570	17	.000895255	2	.000846024	7	.000801925
01215	3	.000949668	18	.000894454	3	.000845308	8	.000801282
01112	4	.000948767	19	.000893655	4	.000844595	9	.000800640
01010	5	.000947867	1130	.000892857	5	.000843882	1250	.000800000
00908	6	.000946970	1	.000892061	6	.000843170	1	.000799360
00806	7	.000946074	2	.000891266	7	.000842460	2	.000798722
00705	8	.000945180	3	.000890472	8	.000841751	3	.000798085
00604	9	.000944287	4	.000889680	9	.000841043	4	.000797448
00502	1060	.000943396	5	.000888889	1190	.000840336	5	.000796813
00402	1	.000942507	6	.000888099	1	.000839631	6	.000796178
00301	2	.000941620	7	.000887311	2	.000838926	7	.000795545
00200	3	.000940734	8	.000886525	3	.000838222	8	.000794913
00100	4	.000939850	9	.000885740	4	.000837517	9	.000794281
00000	5	.000938967	1130	.000884956	5	.000836810	1260	.000793651
999001	6	.000938086	1	.000884173	6	.000836100	1	.000793021
998004	7	.000937207	2	.000883392	7	.000835422	2	.000792393
997009	8	.000936330	3	.000882612	8	.000834724	3	.000791766
996016	9	.000935454	4	.000881834	9	.000834028	4	.000791139
995025	1070	.000934579	5	.000881057	1300	.000833333	5	.000790514
994036	1	.000933707	6	.000880282	1	.000832639	6	.000789889
993049	2	.000932836	7	.000879508	2	.000831947	7	.000789266
992063	3	.000931966	8	.000878735	3	.000831255	8	.000788643
991080	4	.000931099	9	.000877963	4	.000830565	9	.000788022
990099	5	.000930233	1140	.000877193	5	.000829875	1270	.000787402
989120	6	.000929368	1	.000876424	6	.000829187	1	.000786782
988142	7	.000928505	2	.000875657	7	.000828500	2	.000786163
987167	8	.000927644	3	.000874891	8	.000827815	3	.000785546
986193	9	.000926784	4	.000874126	9	.000827130	4	.000784929
985222	1080	.000925926	5	.000873362	1210	.000826446	5	.000784314
984252	1	.000925069	6	.000872600	11	.000825764	6	.000783699
983284	2	.000924214	7	.000871840	12	.000825082	7	.000783085
982318	3	.000923361	8	.000871080	13	.000824402	8	.000782473
981354	4	.000922509	9	.000870322	14	.000823723	9	.000781861
980392	5	.000921659	1150	.000869565	15	.000823045	1280	.000781250
979432	6	.000920810	1	.000868810	16	.000822368	1	.000780640
978474	7	.000919963	2	.000868056	17	.000821693	2	.000780031
977517	8	.000919118	3	.000867303	18	.000821018	3	.000779423
976562	9	.000918274	4	.000866551	19	.000820344	4	.000778816
975610	1090	.000917431	5	.000865801	1220	.000819672	5	.000778210
974659	1	.000916590	6	.000865052	1	.000819001	6	.000777605
973710	2	.000915751	7	.000864304	2	.000818331	7	.000777001
972763	3	.000914913	8	.000863558	3	.000817661	8	.000776397
971817	4	.000914077	9	.000862813	4	.000817000	9	.000775794
970874	5	.000913242	1100	.000862069	5	.000816326	1300	.000775192

No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.	No.	Reciprocal.
1291	.000774593	1356	.000787463	1421	.000793730	1486	.00079948	1551	.000805235
2	.000773994	7	.000786920	2	.000793235	7	.000798945	2	.000804740
3	.000773395	8	.000786377	3	.000792741	8	.000798450	3	.000804245
4	.000772797	9	.000785835	4	.000792247	9	.000798160	4	.000803750
5	.000772201	1360	.000785294	5	.000791754	1490	.000799611	5	.000803255
6	.000771605	1	.000784754	6	.000791262	1	.000799166	6	.000802760
7	.000771010	2	.000784214	7	.000790771	2	.000798671	7	.000802265
8	.000770416	3	.000783675	8	.000790280	3	.000798176	8	.000801770
9	.000769823	4	.000783138	9	.000789789	4	.000797681	9	.000801275
1300	.000769231	5	.000782601	1430	.000790301	5	.000798190	1500	.000800780
1	.000768639	6	.000782064	1	.000789812	6	.000798000	1	.000800285
2	.000768049	7	.000781529	2	.000789324	7	.000797810	2	.000800000
3	.000767459	8	.000780994	3	.000788837	8	.000797620	3	.000800000
4	.000766871	9	.000780460	4	.000788350	9	.000797430	4	.000800000
5	.000766283	1370	.000779927	5	.000787864	1500	.000798667	5	.000800000
6	.000765697	1	.000779395	6	.000787379	1	.000798182	6	.000800000
7	.000765111	2	.000778863	7	.000786894	2	.000797697	7	.000800000
8	.000764526	3	.000778332	8	.000786410	3	.000797212	8	.000800000
9	.000763942	4	.000777802	9	.000785927	4	.000796727	9	.000800000
1310	.000763359	5	.000777273	1440	.000791444	5	.000796242	1570	.000800000
11	.000762776	6	.000776744	1	.000790959	6	.000795750	1	.000800000
12	.000762195	7	.000776216	2	.000790474	7	.000795265	2	.000800000
13	.000761615	8	.000775689	3	.000789990	8	.000794780	3	.000800000
14	.000761035	9	.000775163	4	.000789507	9	.000794295	4	.000800000
15	.000760456	1380	.000774638	5	.000789024	1510	.000795252	5	.000800000
16	.000759878	1	.000774113	6	.000788541	11	.000794767	6	.000800000
17	.000759301	2	.000773589	7	.000788059	12	.000794282	7	.000800000
18	.000758725	3	.000773066	8	.000787578	13	.000793797	8	.000800000
19	.000758150	4	.000772543	9	.000787097	14	.000793312	9	.000800000
1320	.000757576	5	.000772022	1450	.000788655	15	.000792827	1580	.000800000
1	.000757002	6	.000771501	1	.000788180	16	.000792342	1	.000800000
2	.000756429	7	.000770980	2	.000787705	17	.000791857	2	.000800000
3	.000755858	8	.000770461	3	.000787231	18	.000791372	3	.000800000
4	.000755287	9	.000769942	4	.000786758	19	.000790887	4	.000800000
5	.000754717	1390	.000769424	5	.000786285	1590	.000790402	5	.000800000
6	.000754148	1	.000768907	6	.000785813	1	.000789917	6	.000800000
7	.000753579	2	.000768391	7	.000785341	2	.000789432	7	.000800000
8	.000753012	3	.000767875	8	.000784870	3	.000788947	8	.000800000
9	.000752445	4	.000767360	9	.000784401	4	.000788462	9	.000800000
1390	.000751880	5	.000766846	1460	.000783932	5	.000787977	1500	.000800000
1	.000751315	6	.000766332	1	.000783463	6	.000787502	1	.000800000
2	.000750750	7	.000765819	2	.000783000	7	.000787027	2	.000800000
3	.000750187	8	.000765308	3	.000782537	8	.000786552	3	.000800000
4	.000749625	9	.000764796	4	.000782074	9	.000786077	4	.000800000
5	.000749064	1400	.000764286	5	.000781613	1590	.000785602	5	.000800000
6	.000748503	1	.000763776	6	.000781152	1	.000785127	6	.000800000
7	.000747943	2	.000763267	7	.000780691	2	.000784652	7	.000800000
8	.000747384	3	.000762758	8	.000780230	3	.000784177	8	.000800000
9	.000746826	4	.000762251	9	.000779769	4	.000783702	9	.000800000
1340	.000746269	5	.000761744	1470	.000779309	5	.000783227	1600	.000800000
1	.000745712	6	.000761238	1	.000778848	6	.000782752	1	.000800000
2	.000745156	7	.000760732	2	.000778387	7	.000782277	2	.000800000
3	.000744602	8	.000760227	3	.000777926	8	.000781802	3	.000800000
4	.000744048	9	.000759723	4	.000777465	9	.000781327	4	.000800000
5	.000743494	1410	.000759220	5	.000777004	1540	.000780852	5	.000800000
6	.000742942	11	.000758717	6	.000776543	1	.000780377	6	.000800000
7	.000742390	12	.000758214	7	.000776082	2	.000779902	7	.000800000
8	.000741840	13	.000757714	8	.000775621	3	.000779427	8	.000800000
9	.000741290	14	.000757214	9	.000775160	4	.000778952	9	.000800000
1350	.000740741	15	.000756714	1480	.000774700	5	.000778477	1620	.000800000
1	.000740192	16	.000756214	1	.000774239	6	.000778002	1	.000800000
2	.000739645	17	.000755716	2	.000773778	7	.000777527	2	.000800000
3	.000739098	18	.000755219	3	.000773317	8	.000777052	3	.000800000
4	.000738551	19	.000754722	4	.000772856	9	.000776577	4	.000800000
5	.000738004	20	.000754225	5	.000772395	1550	.000776102	5	.000800000

SQUARES, CUBES, SQUARE AND CUBE ROOTS. 89

Square.	Cube.	Sq. Root.	Cube Root.	No.	Square.	Cube.	Sq. Root.	Cube Root.
44100	9261000	14.4914	5.9439	265	70225	18600625	16.2788	6.4232
44521	9393931	14.5258	5.9533	266	707.6	18821096	16.3095	6.4312
44944	9528128	14.5602	5.9627	267	71289	19034163	16.3401	6.4392
45369	9663597	14.5945	5.9721	268	71834	19248832	16.3707	6.4473
45796	9800344	14.6287	5.9814	269	72361	19465109	16.4012	6.4553
46225	9938375	14.6629	5.9907	270	72900	19683000	16.4317	6.4633
46656	10077696	14.6969	6.0000	271	73441	19902511	16.4621	6.4713
47089	10218313	14.7309	6.0092	272	73984	20123648	16.4924	6.4792
47524	10360232	14.7648	6.0185	273	74529	20346417	16.5227	6.4872
47961	10503459	14.7986	6.0277	274	75076	20570824	16.5529	6.4951
48400	10648000	14.8324	6.0368	275	75625	20796875	16.5831	6.5030
48841	10793861	14.8661	6.0459	276	76176	21024576	16.6132	6.5108
49284	10941048	14.8997	6.0550	277	76729	21253933	16.6433	6.5187
49729	11089567	14.9332	6.0641	278	77284	21484952	16.6733	6.5265
50176	11239424	14.9666	6.0732	279	77841	21717639	16.7033	6.5343
50625	11390625	15.0000	6.0822	280	78400	21952000	16.7332	6.5421
51076	11543176	15.0333	6.0912	281	78961	22188041	16.7631	6.5499
51529	11697089	15.0665	6.1002	282	79524	22425768	16.7929	6.5577
51984	11852352	15.0997	6.1091	283	80089	22665187	16.8226	6.5654
52441	12008989	15.1327	6.1180	284	80656	22906304	16.8523	6.5731
52900	12167000	15.1658	6.1269	285	81225	23149125	16.8819	6.5808
53361	12326401	15.1987	6.1358	286	81796	23393656	16.9115	6.5885
53824	12487198	15.2315	6.1446	287	82369	23639903	16.9411	6.5962
54289	12649387	15.2643	6.1534	288	82944	23887872	16.9706	6.6039
54756	12812974	15.2971	6.1622	289	83521	24137569	17.0000	6.6115
55225	12977975	15.3297	6.1710	290	84100	24388900	17.0294	6.6191
55696	13144396	15.3623	6.1797	291	84681	24641971	17.0587	6.6267
56169	13312253	15.3948	6.1885	292	85264	24896788	17.0880	6.6343
56644	13481562	15.4272	6.1972	293	85849	25153357	17.1172	6.6419
57121	13652329	15.4596	6.2058	294	86436	25411684	17.1464	6.6494
57600	13824560	15.4919	6.2145	295	87025	25671775	17.1756	6.6569
58081	13998271	15.5242	6.2231	296	87616	25933636	17.2047	6.6644
58564	14173468	15.5563	6.2317	297	88209	26197273	17.2337	6.6719
59049	14349157	15.5885	6.2403	298	88804	26462692	17.2627	6.6794
59536	14526344	15.6205	6.2488	299	89401	26729899	17.2916	6.6869
60025	14705035	15.6525	6.2573	300	90000	27000000	17.3205	6.6943
60516	14885236	15.6844	6.2658	301	90601	27272091	17.3494	6.7018
61009	15066953	15.7162	6.2743	302	91204	27546068	17.3781	6.7092
61504	15250192	15.7480	6.2828	303	91809	27821927	17.4069	6.7166
62001	15434959	15.7797	6.2912	304	92416	28099674	17.4356	6.7240
62500	15621250	15.8114	6.2996	305	93025	28379325	17.4642	6.7313
63001	15809081	15.8430	6.3080	306	93636	28660886	17.4929	6.7387
63504	16000008	15.8745	6.3164	307	94249	28944343	17.5214	6.7460
64009	16193037	15.9060	6.3247	308	94864	29229712	17.5499	6.7533
64516	16388174	15.9374	6.3330	309	95481	29516999	17.5784	6.7606
65025	16585425	15.9687	6.3413	310	96100	29796200	17.6068	6.7679
65536	16784796	16.0000	6.3496	311	96721	30077321	17.6352	6.7752
66049	16986293	16.0312	6.3579	312	97344	30360368	17.6635	6.7824
66564	17189932	16.0624	6.3661	313	97969	30645337	17.6918	6.7897
67081	17395719	16.0935	6.3743	314	98596	30932224	17.7200	6.7969
67600	17603660	16.1245	6.3825	315	99225	31221035	17.7482	6.8041
68121	17773761	16.1555	6.3907	316	99856	31511864	17.7764	6.8113
68644	17945928	16.1864	6.3988	317	100489	31804717	17.8045	6.8185
69169	18119167	16.2173	6.4070	318	101124	32100000	17.8326	6.8257
69696	18293484	16.2481	6.4151	319	101761	32396729	17.8606	6.8329

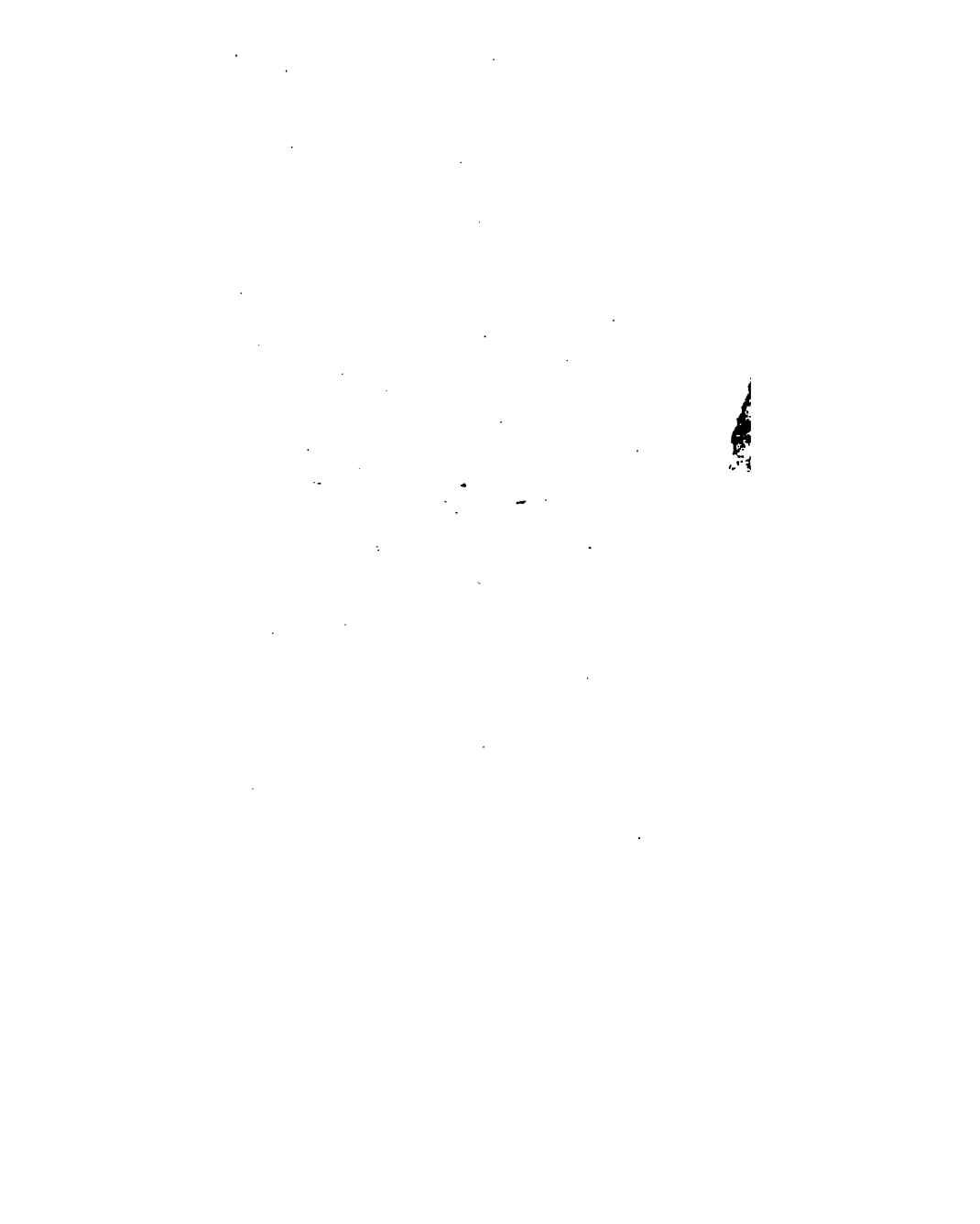
MATHEMATICAL TABLES.

TABLES OF SQUARES, CUBES, SQUARE ROOTS AND CUBE ROOTS OF NUMBERS FROM .1 TO 1000.

Square.	Cube.	Sq. Root.	Cube Root.	No.	Square.	Cube.	Sq. Root.	Cube Root.
01	.001	.3162	.4642	3.1	9.61	29.791	1.781	1.800
0225	.0034	.3873	.5313	2	10.24	32.768	1.789	1.800
04	.008	.4472	.5848	3	10.89	35.937	1.817	1.800
0625	.0156	.500	.6300	4	11.56	39.304	1.844	1.800
09	.027	.5477	.6694	5	12.25	42.875	1.871	1.800
1225	.0429	.5916	.7047	6	12.96	46.656	1.897	1.800
16	.064	.6325	.7368	7	13.69	50.653	1.924	1.800
2025	.0911	.6708	.7663	8	14.44	54.872	1.949	1.800
25	.125	.7071	.7937	9	15.21	59.319	1.975	1.800
3025	.1664	.7416	.8193	4.	16.	64.	2.	1.800
36	.216	.7746	.8434	1	16.81	68.921	2.025	1.800
3225	.2746	.8062	.8662	2	17.64	74.088	2.049	1.800
39	.343	.8367	.8879	3	18.49	79.507	2.074	1.800
3625	.4219	.8660	.9086	4	19.36	85.184	2.098	1.800
44	.512	.8944	.9283	5	20.25	91.125	2.121	1.800
7225	.6141	.9219	.9473	6	21.16	97.336	2.145	1.800
81	.729	.9487	.9655	7	22.09	103.823	2.168	1.800
8025	.8574	.9747	.9830	8	23.04	110.592	2.191	1.800
1025	1.	1.	1.	9	24.01	117.649	2.214	1.800
1025	1.158	1.025	1.016	5.	25.	125.	2.2361	1.700
21	1.331	1.049	1.032	1	26.01	132.651	2.258	1.700
3225	1.521	1.072	1.048	2	27.04	140.608	2.280	1.700
44	1.728	1.095	1.063	3	28.09	148.877	2.302	1.700
3625	1.953	1.118	1.077	4	29.16	157.464	2.324	1.700
49	2.197	1.140	1.091	5	30.25	166.375	2.345	1.700
8225	2.460	1.162	1.105	6	31.36	175.616	2.365	1.700
96	2.744	1.183	1.119	7	32.49	185.193	2.387	1.700
1025	3.049	1.204	1.132	8	33.64	195.112	2.408	1.700
25	3.375	1.2247	1.1447	9	34.81	205.379	2.429	1.700
4025	3.724	1.245	1.157	6.	36.	216.	2.4495	1.600
56	4.096	1.265	1.170	1	37.21	226.981	2.470	1.600
7225	4.492	1.285	1.182	2	38.44	238.328	2.490	1.600
89	4.913	1.304	1.193	3	39.69	250.447	2.510	1.600
3625	5.359	1.323	1.205	4	40.96	263.144	2.530	1.600
44	5.832	1.342	1.216	5	42.25	274.625	2.550	1.600
1225	6.332	1.360	1.228	6	43.56	287.496	2.569	1.600
16	6.859	1.378	1.239	7	44.89	300.763	2.588	1.600
3025	7.415	1.396	1.249	8	46.24	314.432	2.608	1.600
	8.	1.4142	1.2599	9	47.61	328.509	2.627	1.600
41	9.261	1.449	1.281	7.	49.	343.	2.6458	1.500
84	10.648	1.483	1.301	1	50.41	357.911	2.665	1.500
89	12.167	1.517	1.320	2	51.84	373.248	2.683	1.500
76	13.824	1.549	1.339	3	53.29	389.017	2.702	1.500
25	15.625	1.581	1.357	4	54.76	405.224	2.720	1.500
76	17.576	1.612	1.375	5	56.25	421.875	2.739	1.500
89	19.683	1.643	1.392	6	57.76	438.976	2.757	1.500
94	21.952	1.673	1.409	7	59.29	456.533	2.775	1.500
11	24.389	1.703	1.426	8	60.84	474.552	2.793	1.500
97	1.7321	1.4422		9	62.41	493.039	2.811	1.500

SQUARES, CUBES, SQUARE AND CUBE ROOTS. 91

Sq.	Square.	Cube.	Sq. Root.	Cube Root.	No.	Square.	Cube.	Sq. Root.	Cube Root.
80	18400	7957000	20.7364	7.5478	485	235225	114084125	22.0927	7.8508
81	18761	80062901	20.7605	7.5537	486	236169	114791256	22.0454	7.8622
82	18624	80621568	20.7846	7.5595	487	237169	115501303	22.0681	7.8676
83	18749	81184737	20.8087	7.5654	488	238144	116214272	22.0907	7.8730
84	18856	81746504	20.8327	7.5712	489	239121	116930169	22.1133	7.8784
85	18925	82312875	20.8567	7.5770	490	240100	117649000	22.1359	7.8837
86	19006	82881856	20.8806	7.5828	491	241081	118370771	22.1585	7.8891
87	19069	83453453	20.9045	7.5886	492	242064	119095488	22.1811	7.8944
88	19184	84027672	20.9284	7.5944	493	243049	119823157	22.2036	7.8998
89	19271	84604519	20.9523	7.6001	494	244036	120553784	22.2261	7.9051
90	19390	85184000	20.9762	7.6059	495	245025	121287375	22.2486	7.9105
91	19481	85766121	21.0000	7.6117	496	246016	122023936	22.2711	7.9158
92	19534	86350888	21.0238	7.6174	497	247009	122763473	22.2935	7.9211
93	19639	86938307	21.0476	7.6232	498	248004	123505992	22.3159	7.9264
94	19716	87528384	21.0713	7.6289	499	249001	124251499	22.3383	7.9317
95	19825	88121125	21.0950	7.6346	500	250000	125000000	22.3607	7.9370
96	19916	88716536	21.1187	7.6403	501	251001	125751501	22.3830	7.9423
97	19969	89314623	21.1424	7.6460	502	252004	126505008	22.4054	7.9476
98	20074	89915392	21.1660	7.6517	503	253009	127263527	22.4277	7.9528
99	20161	90518849	21.1896	7.6574	504	254016	128026064	22.4499	7.9581
0	20250	91125000	21.2132	7.6631	505	255025	128792725	22.4722	7.9634
1	20341	91733851	21.2368	7.6688	506	256036	129563416	22.4944	7.9686
2	20434	92345408	21.2603	7.6744	507	257049	130338143	22.5167	7.9739
3	20539	92959677	21.2838	7.6800	508	258064	131116912	22.5389	7.9791
4	20616	93576664	21.3073	7.6857	509	259081	131899729	22.5610	7.9843
5	20705	94196375	21.3307	7.6914	510	260100	132686600	22.5832	7.9896
6	20796	94818816	21.3542	7.6970	511	261121	133477631	22.6053	7.9948
7	20889	95443993	21.3776	7.7026	512	262144	134272828	22.6274	8.0000
8	20974	96071912	21.4009	7.7082	513	263169	135073189	22.6495	8.0052
9	21051	96702579	21.4243	7.7138	514	264196	135878714	22.6716	8.0104
0	21100	97336000	21.4476	7.7194	515	265225	136690425	22.6936	8.0156
1	21151	97972181	21.4709	7.7250	516	266256	137508306	22.7156	8.0208
2	21244	98611128	21.4942	7.7306	517	267289	138332443	22.7375	8.0260
3	21299	99252847	21.5174	7.7362	518	268324	139162832	22.7594	8.0311
4	21326	99897344	21.5407	7.7418	519	269361	139999569	22.7812	8.0363
5	21325	100544625	21.5639	7.7473	520	270400	140852600	22.8035	8.0415
6	21316	101194696	21.5870	7.7529	521	271441	141712931	22.8254	8.0466
7	21309	101847563	21.6102	7.7584	522	272484	142580668	22.8473	8.0517
8	21302	102503232	21.6333	7.7639	523	273529	143455807	22.8692	8.0568
9	21291	103161709	21.6564	7.7693	524	274576	144338454	22.8910	8.0620
0	21290	103823000	21.6795	7.7750	525	275625	145228615	22.9129	8.0671
1	21281	104487111	21.7025	7.7806	526	276676	146126386	22.9347	8.0722
2	21274	105154048	21.7256	7.7860	527	277729	147031763	22.9565	8.0774
3	21267	105823817	21.7486	7.7915	528	278784	147944752	22.9783	8.0825
4	21267	106496424	21.7715	7.7970	529	279841	148865359	22.9999	8.0876
5	212525	107171875	21.7945	7.8025	530	280900	149793600	23.0217	8.0927
6	212576	107850176	21.8174	7.8079	531	281961	150729581	23.0434	8.0978
7	212529	108531333	21.8403	7.8134	532	283024	151683208	23.0651	8.1028
8	212484	109215352	21.8632	7.8188	533	284089	152644589	23.0868	8.1079
9	212441	109902239	21.8861	7.8243	534	285156	1536137304	23.1084	8.1130
0	210400	110592000	21.9089	7.8297	535	286225	154590755	23.1300	8.1180
1	211361	111284641	21.9317	7.8352	536	287296	155575666	23.1517	8.1231
2	212324	111980168	21.9545	7.8406	537	288369	156568463	23.1733	8.1282
3	213289	112678587	21.9773	7.8460	538	289444	157569152	23.1948	8.1333
4	214256	113379904	22.0000	7.8514	539	290521	158577849	23.2164	8.1384



are.	Cube.	Sq. Root.	Cube Root.	No.	Square.	Cube.	Sq. Root.	Cube Root.
	512.	2.8284	2.	45	2025	91125	6.7082	3.5569
.61	531.441	2.846	2.008	46	2116	97336	6.7823	3.5830
.24	551.368	2.864	2.017	47	2209	103823	6.8567	3.6088
.89	571.787	2.881	2.025	48	2304	110592	6.9282	3.6342
.56	592.704	2.898	2.033	49	2401	117649	7.	3.6593
.25	614.125	2.915	2.041	50	2500	125000	7.0711	3.6840
.96	636.056	2.933	2.049	51	2601	132651	7.1414	3.7084
.69	658.503	2.950	2.057	52	2704	140608	7.2111	3.7325
.44	681.472	2.966	2.065	53	2809	148877	7.2801	3.7563
.21	704.969	2.983	2.072	54	2916	157464	7.3485	3.7798
	729.	3.	2.0801	55	3025	166375	7.4162	3.8030
.81	753.571	3.017	2.088	56	3136	175616	7.4833	3.8259
.64	778.688	3.033	2.095	57	3249	185193	7.5498	3.8485
.49	804.357	3.050	2.103	58	3364	195112	7.6158	3.8709
.36	830.584	3.066	2.110	59	3481	205379	7.6811	3.8930
.95	857.375	3.082	2.118	60	3600	216000	7.7460	3.9149
.16	884.736	3.098	2.125	61	3721	226981	7.8102	3.9365
.09	912.673	3.114	2.133	62	3844	238328	7.8740	3.9579
.04	941.192	3.130	2.140	63	3969	250047	7.9373	3.9791
.01	970.299	3.146	2.147	64	4096	262144	8.	4.
	1000	3.1623	2.1544	65	4225	274625	8.0023	4.0307
	1331	3.3166	2.2240	66	4356	287496	8.1240	4.0412
	1728	3.4641	2.2894	67	4489	300763	8.1854	4.0615
	2197	3.0066	2.3513	68	4624	314432	8.2462	4.0817
	2744	3.7417	2.4101	69	4761	328509	8.3066	4.1016
	3375	3.8730	2.4662	70	4900	343000	8.3666	4.1213
	4096	4.	2.5198	71	5041	357911	8.4261	4.1408
	4913	4.1231	2.5713	72	5184	373248	8.4853	4.1602
	5832	4.2426	2.6207	73	5329	389017	8.5440	4.1793
	6850	4.3589	2.6684	74	5476	405224	8.6023	4.1983
	8000	4.4721	2.7144	75	5625	421875	8.6603	4.2172
	9261	4.5826	2.7589	76	5776	438976	8.7178	4.2358
	10648	4.6904	2.8020	77	5929	456533	8.7750	4.2543
	12167	4.7958	2.8439	78	6084	474552	8.8318	4.2727
	13824	4.8990	2.8845	79	6241	493039	8.8882	4.2908
	15625	5.	2.9240	80	6400	512000	8.9443	4.3089
	17576	5.0990	2.9635	81	6561	531441	9.	4.3267
	19683	5.1962	3.	82	6724	551368	9.0554	4.3441
	21952	5.2915	3.0366	83	6889	571787	9.1104	4.3621
	24389	5.3852	3.0723	84	7056	592704	9.1652	4.3795
	27000	5.4772	3.1072	85	7225	614125	9.2198	4.3968
	29791	5.5678	3.1414	86	7396	636056	9.2736	4.4140
	32768	5.6569	3.1748	87	7569	658508	9.3276	4.4310
	35937	5.7446	3.2075	88	7744	681472	9.3806	4.4480
	39304	5.8310	3.2396	89	7921	704969	9.4340	4.4647
	42875	5.9161	3.2711	90	8100	729000	9.4868	4.4814
	46656	6.	3.3019	91	8281	753571	9.5394	4.4979
	50653	6.0828	3.3322	92	8464	778688	9.5917	4.5144
	54872	6.1644	3.3620	93	8649	804357	9.6437	4.5307
	59319	6.2450	3.3912	94	8836	830584	9.6954	4.5468
	64000	6.3246	3.4200	95	9025	857375	9.7468	4.5629
	68921	6.4031	3.4482	96	9216	884736	9.7980	4.5789
	74088	6.4807	3.4760	97	9409	912673	9.8489	4.5948
	79507	6.5574	3.5034	98	9604	941192	9.8995	4.6106
	85184	6.6332	3.5303	99	9801	970299	9.9498	4.6263

No.	Square.	Cube.	Sq. Root.	Cube Root.	No.	Square.	Cube.
100	10000	1000000	10.	4.6416	155	24025	3723875
101	10201	1030301	10.0499	4.6570	156	24336	3796416
102	10404	1061208	10.0995	4.6723	157	24649	3869893
103	10609	1092727	10.1489	4.6875	158	24964	3944312
104	10816	1124864	10.1980	4.7027	159	25281	4019679
105	11025	1157625	10.2470	4.7177	160	25600	4096000
106	11236	1191016	10.2956	4.7326	161	25921	4173281
107	11449	1225043	10.3441	4.7475	162	26244	4251528
108	11664	1259712	10.3923	4.7622	163	26569	4330747
109	11881	1295029	10.4403	4.7769	164	26896	4410944
110	12100	1331000	10.4881	4.7914	165	27225	4492125
111	12321	1367631	10.5357	4.8059	166	27556	4574296
112	12544	1404928	10.5830	4.8203	167	27889	4657463
113	12769	1442897	10.6301	4.8346	168	28224	4741632
114	12996	1481544	10.6771	4.8488	169	28561	4826809
115	13225	1520875	10.7238	4.8629	170	28900	4913000
116	13456	1560896	10.7703	4.8770	171	29241	5000211
117	13689	1601613	10.8167	4.8910	172	29584	5088448
118	13924	1643032	10.8628	4.9049	173	29929	5177717
119	14161	1685159	10.9087	4.9187	174	30276	5268024
120	14400	1728000	10.9545	4.9324	175	30625	5359375
121	14641	1771561	11.0000	4.9461	176	30976	5451776
122	14884	1815848	11.0454	4.9597	177	31329	5545233
123	15129	1860867	11.0905	4.9732	178	31684	5639752
124	15376	1906624	11.1355	4.9866	179	32041	5735339
125	15625	1953125	11.1803	5.0000	180	32400	5832000
126	15876	2000376	11.2250	5.0133	181	32761	5929741
127	16129	2048383	11.2694	5.0265	182	33124	6028568
128	16384	2097152	11.3137	5.0397	183	33489	6128487
129	16641	2146689	11.3578	5.0528	184	33856	6229504
130	16900	2197000	11.4018	5.0658	185	34225	6331625
131	17161	2248091	11.4455	5.0788	186	34596	6434856
132	17424	2299968	11.4891	5.0916	187	34969	6539203
133	17689	2352637	11.5326	5.1045	188	35344	6644672
134	17956	2406104	11.5758	5.1172	189	35721	6751269
135	18225	2460375	11.6190	5.1299	190	36100	6859000
136	18496	2515456	11.6619	5.1426	191	36481	6967881
137	18769	2571353	11.7047	5.1551	192	36864	7077888
138	19044	2628072	11.7473	5.1676	193	37249	7189057
139	19321	2685619	11.7898	5.1801	194	37636	7301384
140	19600	2744000	11.8322	5.1925	195	38025	7414875
141	19881	2803221	11.8743	5.2048	196	38416	7529536
142	20164	2863288	11.9164	5.2171	197	38809	7645373
143	20449	2924207	11.9583	5.2293	198	39204	7762392
144	20736	2985984	12.0000	5.2415	199	39601	7880599
145	21025	3048625	12.0416	5.2536	200	40000	8000000
146	21316	3112136	12.0830	5.2656	201	40401	8120201
147	21609	3176523	12.1244	5.2776	202	40804	8241408
148	21904	3241792	12.1655	5.2896	203	41209	8363627
149	22201	3307949	12.2066	5.3015	204	41616	8486864
			12.2474	5.3133	205	42025	8611125
			12.2882	5.3251	206	42436	8736516
			12.3288	5.3368	207	42849	8863043
			12.3693	5.3485	208	43264	8990712

SQUARES, CUBES, SQUARE AND CUBE ROOTS. 95

No.	Square.	Cube.	Sq. Root.	Cube Root.	No.	Square.	Cube.	Sq. Root.	Cube Root.
870	75600	65850000	29.4958	9.5464	925	855625	791453125	30.4138	9.7435
871	75861	66076311	29.5127	9.5501	926	857476	794022776	30.4302	9.7470
872	76124	66304848	29.5296	9.5537	927	859329	796597989	30.4467	9.7505
873	76389	66535617	29.5466	9.5574	928	861184	799178752	30.4631	9.7540
874	76656	66768724	29.5635	9.5610	929	863041	801765089	30.4795	9.7575
875	76925	66999287	29.5804	9.5647	930	864900	804357000	30.4959	9.7610
876	77196	67228317	29.5973	9.5683	931	866761	806954491	30.5123	9.7645
877	77469	67455813	29.6142	9.5719	932	868624	809557568	30.5287	9.7680
878	77744	67681785	29.6311	9.5755	933	870489	812166237	30.5450	9.7715
879	77961	67915149	29.6479	9.5792	934	872356	814780504	30.5614	9.7750
880	77400	681472000	29.6648	9.5828	935	874225	817400375	30.5778	9.7785
881	77661	683797841	29.6816	9.5865	936	876096	820025856	30.5941	9.7819
882	77924	686128968	29.6985	9.5901	937	877969	822656953	30.6105	9.7854
883	78189	688465387	29.7153	9.5937	938	879844	825293672	30.6268	9.7889
884	78456	690807104	29.7321	9.5973	939	881721	827936019	30.6431	9.7924
885	78725	693154225	29.7489	9.6010	940	883600	830584000	30.6594	9.7959
886	78996	695506756	29.7658	9.6046	941	885481	833237621	30.6757	9.7993
887	79269	697864703	29.7825	9.6082	942	887364	835896888	30.6920	9.8028
888	79544	700228172	29.7993	9.6118	943	889249	838561807	30.7083	9.8063
889	79821	702597169	29.8161	9.6154	944	891136	841232384	30.7246	9.8097
890	79200	704960000	29.8329	9.6190	945	893025	843908625	30.7409	9.8132
891	79481	707327971	29.8496	9.6226	946	894916	846590536	30.7571	9.8167
892	79764	709700988	29.8663	9.6262	947	896809	849278123	30.7734	9.8201
893	79749	712119957	29.8831	9.6298	948	898704	851971492	30.7896	9.8236
894	79236	714516984	29.8998	9.6334	949	900601	854670849	30.8058	9.8270
895	80025	716917975	29.9166	9.6370	950	902500	857375000	30.8221	9.8305
896	80316	719323136	29.9333	9.6406	951	904401	860085351	30.8383	9.8339
897	80609	721743473	29.9500	9.6442	952	906304	862801808	30.8545	9.8374
898	80904	724169092	29.9666	9.6477	953	908209	865524377	30.8707	9.8408
899	80901	726572699	29.9833	9.6513	954	910116	868253064	30.8869	9.8443
900	810000	729000000	30.0000	9.6549	955	912025	870987875	30.9031	9.8477
901	811801	731345501	30.0167	9.6585	956	913936	873728816	30.9192	9.8511
902	813604	733708208	30.0333	9.6620	957	915849	876475893	30.9354	9.8546
903	815409	736088127	30.0500	9.6656	958	917764	879229112	30.9516	9.8580
904	817216	738484264	30.0666	9.6692	959	919681	881988479	30.9677	9.8614
905	819025	741217825	30.0833	9.6727	960	921600	884753000	30.9839	9.8648
906	820836	743967416	30.0999	9.6763	961	923521	887523681	31.0000	9.8683
907	822649	746733043	30.1164	9.6799	962	925444	890299528	31.0161	9.8717
908	824464	749514712	30.1330	9.6834	963	927369	893081537	31.0322	9.8751
909	826281	751312429	30.1496	9.6870	964	929296	895869696	31.0483	9.8785
910	828100	753527000	30.1663	9.6905	965	931225	898663925	31.0644	9.8819
911	829921	756058031	30.1828	9.6941	966	933156	901474304	31.0805	9.8854
912	831744	758595528	30.1993	9.6976	967	935089	904300928	31.0966	9.8888
913	833569	761148497	30.2159	9.7012	968	937024	907143803	31.1127	9.8922
914	835396	763716944	30.2324	9.7047	969	938961	909992929	31.1288	9.8956
915	837225	766299875	30.2490	9.7082	970	940900	912857300	31.1448	9.8990
916	839056	768898306	30.2655	9.7118	971	942841	915738021	31.1609	9.9024
917	840889	771512233	30.2820	9.7153	972	944784	918635088	31.1769	9.9058
918	842724	774141664	30.2985	9.7188	973	946729	921548507	31.1929	9.9092
919	844561	776786609	30.3150	9.7224	974	948676	924478272	31.2090	9.9126
920	846400	779447060	30.3315	9.7259	975	950625	926824395	31.2250	9.9160
921	848241	782123021	30.3480	9.7294	976	952576	929176976	31.2410	9.9194
922	850084	784814488	30.3645	9.7329	977	954529	931546017	31.2570	9.9228
923	851929	787521467	30.3809	9.7364	978	956484	933921528	31.2730	9.9262
924	853776	789844064	30.3974	9.7400	979	958441	936313539	31.2890	9.9296

No.	Square.	Cube.	Sq. Root.	Cube Root.	No.	Square.	Cube.	Sq. Root.
320	102400	32768000	17.8885	6.8309	375	140625	52734375	19.1
321	103041	33076161	17.9165	6.8470	376	141376	53157376	19.1
322	103684	33386248	17.9444	6.8541	377	142129	53582633	19.1
323	104329	33698267	17.9722	6.8612	378	142884	54010152	19.1
324	104976	34012224	18.0000	6.8683	379	143641	54439939	19.1
325	105625	34328125	18.0278	6.8753	380	144400	54872000	19.1
326	106276	34645976	18.0555	6.8824	381	145161	55306341	19.1
327	106929	34965783	18.0831	6.8894	382	145924	55742968	19.1
328	107584	35287552	18.1108	6.8964	383	146689	56181887	19.1
329	108241	35611289	18.1384	6.9034	384	147456	56623104	19.1
330	108900	35937000	18.1659	6.9104	385	148225	57066625	19.1
331	109561	36264691	18.1934	6.9174	386	148996	57512456	19.1
332	110224	36594368	18.2209	6.9244	387	149769	57960603	19.1
333	110889	36926037	18.2483	6.9313	388	150544	58411072	19.1
334	111556	37259704	18.2757	6.9382	389	151321	58863869	19.1
335	112225	37595375	18.3030	6.9451	390	152100	59319000	19.1
336	112896	37933056	18.3303	6.9521	391	152881	59776471	19.1
337	113569	38272753	18.3576	6.9589	392	153664	60236288	19.1
338	114244	38614472	18.3848	6.9658	393	154449	60698457	19.1
339	114921	38958219	18.4120	6.9727	394	155236	61162984	19.1
340	115600	39304000	18.4391	6.9795	395	156025	61629875	19.1
341	116281	39651821	18.4662	6.9864	396	156816	62099136	19.1
342	116964	40001688	18.4932	6.9932	397	157609	62570773	19.1
343	117649	40353607	18.5203	7.0000	398	158404	63044792	19.1
344	118336	40707584	18.5472	7.0068	399	159201	63521199	19.1
345	119025	41063625	18.5742	7.0136	400	160000	64000000	30.0
346	119716	41421736	18.6011	7.0203	401	160801	64481201	30.0
347	120409	41781923	18.6279	7.0271	402	161604	64964808	30.0
348	121104	42144192	18.6548	7.0338	403	162409	65450827	30.0
349	121801	42508549	18.6815	7.0406	404	163216	65939264	30.0
350	122500	42875000	18.7083	7.0473	405	164025	66430125	30.0
351	123201	43243561	18.7350	7.0540	406	164836	66923416	30.0
352	123904	43614236	18.7617	7.0607	407	165649	67419143	30.0
353	124609	43986977	18.7883	7.0674	408	166464	67917312	30.0
354	125316	44361804	18.8149	7.0740	409	167281	68417929	30.0
355	126025	44738725	18.8414	7.0807	410	168100	68921000	30.0
356	126736	45117736	18.8680	7.0873	411	168921	69426531	30.0
357	127449	45498853	18.8944	7.0940	412	169744	69934528	30.0
358	128164	45882088	18.9209	7.1006	413	170569	70444997	30.0
359	128881	46267449	18.9473	7.1072	414	171396	70957944	30.0
360	129600	46654900	18.9737	7.1138	415	172225	71473375	30.0
361	130321	47044451	19.0000	7.1204	416	173056	71991296	30.0
362	131044	47436108	19.0263	7.1269	417	173889	72511713	30.0
363	131769	47829877	19.0526	7.1335	418	174724	73034632	30.0
364	132496	48225764	19.0788	7.1400	419	175561	73559059	30.0
365	133225	48623785	19.1050	7.1466	420	176400	74086000	30.0
366	133956	49023946	19.1311	7.1531	421	177241	74615461	30.0
367	134689	49426253	19.1572	7.1596	422	178084	75147448	30.0
368	135424	49830712	19.1833	7.1661	423	178929	75681967	30.0
369	136161	50237329	19.2094	7.1726	424	179776	76219024	30.0
370	136900	50646000	19.2354	7.1791	425	180625	76758625	30.0
371	137641	51056731	19.2614	7.1855	426	181476	77300776	30.0
372	138384	51469528	19.2873	7.1920	427	182329	77845483	30.0
373	139129	51884387	19.3132	7.1984	428	183184	78392752	30.0
374	139876	52301304	19.3391	7.2048	429	184041	78942589	30.0

4932373	33.0008	10.3071	1150	1322500	1530875000	33.9116	10.4769
6532736	33.1059	10.3103	1151	1324801	1524845951	33.9264	10.4799
80199673	33.1210	10.3134	1152	1327104	1528823308	33.9411	10.4830
27531194	33.1361	10.3165	1153	1329409	1532808577	33.9559	10.4860
27373299	33.1512	10.3197	1154	1331716	1536800264	33.9706	10.4890
1000000	33.1662	10.3228	1155	1334025	1540798875	33.9853	10.4921
4633301	33.1813	10.3259	1156	1336336	1544804416	34.0000	10.4951
8273208	33.1964	10.3290	1157	1338649	1548816893	34.0147	10.4981
11919727	33.2114	10.3322	1158	1340964	1552836812	34.0294	10.5011
5572864	33.2264	10.3353	1159	1343281	1556862679	34.0441	10.5042
49232625	33.2415	10.3384	1160	1345600	1560896000	34.0588	10.5072
28990016	33.2566	10.3415	1161	1347921	1564936281	34.0735	10.5102
96572043	33.2716	10.3447	1162	1350244	1568983528	34.0881	10.5132
20251712	33.2866	10.3478	1163	1352569	1573037747	34.1028	10.5162
23998029	33.3017	10.3509	1164	1354896	1577098944	34.1174	10.5192
37631000	33.3167	10.3540	1165	1357225	1581167125	34.1321	10.5223
71320631	33.3317	10.3571	1166	1359556	1585242296	34.1467	10.5253
75069228	33.3467	10.3602	1167	1361889	1589324463	34.1614	10.5283
28749897	33.3617	10.3633	1168	1364224	1593413632	34.1760	10.5313
83409544	33.3766	10.3664	1169	1366561	1597509800	34.1906	10.5343
86195875	33.3916	10.3695	1170	1368900	1601613000	34.2053	10.5373
89928906	33.4066	10.3726	1171	1371241	1605723211	34.2199	10.5403
93668613	33.4215	10.3757	1172	1373584	1609840448	34.2345	10.5433
97415032	33.4365	10.3788	1173	1375929	1613964717	34.2491	10.5463
01168159	33.4515	10.3819	1174	1378276	1618096024	34.2637	10.5493
04928000	33.4664	10.3850	1175	1380625	1622254375	34.2783	10.5523
08694561	33.4813	10.3881	1176	1382976	1626379776	34.2929	10.5553
12407848	33.4963	10.3912	1177	1385329	1630532233	34.3074	10.5583
16247807	33.5112	10.3943	1178	1387684	1634691752	34.3220	10.5612
20094624	33.5261	10.3973	1179	1390041	1638858339	34.3366	10.5642
23922485	33.5410	10.4004	1180	1392400	1643032900	34.3511	10.5672

No.	Square.	Cube.	Sq. Root.	Cube Root.	No.	Square.	Cube.
540	291600	157464000	540	8.1433	595	354025	210644875
541	292801	158340421	541	8.1489	596	355216	211708736
542	294004	159220888	542	8.1543	597	356409	212776173
543	295209	160103007	543	8.1593	598	357604	213847102
544	296416	160986984	544	8.1633	599	358801	214921739
545	297625	161872825	545	8.1683	600	360000	216000000
546	298836	162761536	546	8.1733	601	361201	217081801
547	299949	163653219	547	8.1783	602	362404	218167208
548	300964	164547884	548	8.1833	603	363609	219256227
549	301981	165445541	549	8.1882	604	364816	220348864
550	302500	166346200	550	8.1932	605	366025	221445125
551	303521	167249871	551	8.1982	606	367236	222545016
552	304544	168156568	552	8.2031	607	368449	223648543
553	305569	169066297	553	8.2081	608	369664	224755712
554	306596	170009144	554	8.2130	609	370881	225866529
555	308025	170953875	555	8.2180	610	372100	226981000
556	309456	171901616	556	8.2229	611	373321	228099131
557	310889	172852369	557	8.2278	612	374544	229220928
558	312324	173806136	558	8.2327	613	375769	230346397
559	313761	174762921	559	8.2377	614	376996	231475544
560	315200	175722720	560	8.2426	615	378225	232608375
561	316641	176685531	561	8.2475	616	379456	233744896
562	318084	177651368	562	8.2524	617	380689	234885113
563	319529	178620237	563	8.2573	618	381924	236029032
564	320976	179592144	564	8.2621	619	383161	237176659
565	322425	180567095	565	8.2670	620	384400	238328000
566	323876	181544104	566	8.2719	621	385641	239483061
567	325329	182523177	567	8.2768	622	386884	240641848
568	326784	183504320	568	8.2817	623	388129	241804367
569	328241	184487539	569	8.2865	624	389376	242970624
570	329696	185472832	570	8.2913	625	390625	244140625
571	331153	186460209	571	8.2962	626	391876	245314376
572	332612	187449680	572	8.3010	627	393129	246491889
573	334073	188441255	573	8.3059	628	394384	247673152
574	335536	189434944	574	8.3107	629	395641	248858189
575	336996	190430755	575	8.3155	630	396900	250047000
576	338459	191428688	576	8.3203	631	398161	251239561
577	339924	192428743	577	8.3251	632	399424	252435908
578	341391	193430928	578	8.3300	633	400689	253636137
579	342860	194435243	579	8.3348	634	401956	254840104
580	344331	195441688	580	8.3396	635	403225	256047875
581	345804	196450273	581	8.3443	636	404496	257259456
582	347279	197460998	582	8.3491	637	405769	258474853
583	348756	198473863	583	8.3539	638	407044	259694072
584	350235	199488868	584	8.3587	639	408321	260917119
585	351716	200506013	585	8.3634	640	409600	262144000
586	353201	201525308	586	8.3682	641	410881	263374721
587	354688	202546753	587	8.3730	642	412164	264609288
588	356177	203569348	588	8.3777	643	413449	265847707
589	357668	204593093	589	8.3825	644	414736	267090984
590	359161	205618988	590	8.3872	645	416025	268339125
591	360656	206646033	591	8.3919	646	417316	269591136
592	362153	207675228	592	8.3967	647	418609	270847003
593	363652	208706573	593	8.4014	648	419904	272106732
594	365153	209739068	594	8.4061	649	421201	273370349

825	281011375	25.5930	8.6845	710	504100	357911000	26.6458	8.9211
826	282900416	25.6125	8.6890	711	505521	359425431	26.6646	8.9253
827	283593393	25.6320	8.6934	712	506944	360944128	26.6833	8.9295
828	284300312	25.6515	8.6978	713	508369	362467097	26.7021	8.9337
829	286191179	25.6710	8.7022	714	509796	363994344	26.7208	8.9378
830	287400000	25.6905	8.7066	715	511225	365525875	26.7395	8.9420
831	288904781	25.7099	8.7110	716	512656	367061696	26.7582	8.9462
832	290117528	25.7294	8.7154	717	514089	368600183	26.7769	8.9503
833	291434247	25.7488	8.7198	718	515524	370146232	26.7955	8.9545
834	292754914	25.7682	8.7241	719	516961	371694959	26.8142	8.9587
835	294079025	25.7876	8.7285	720	518400	373248000	26.8328	8.9628
836	295408296	25.8070	8.7329	721	519841	374805361	26.8514	8.9670
837	296740633	25.8263	8.7373	722	521284	376367048	26.8701	8.9711
838	298076932	25.8457	8.7416	723	522729	377933067	26.8887	8.9752
839	299418309	25.8650	8.7460	724	524176	379503424	26.9072	8.9794
840	300763000	25.8844	8.7503	725	525625	381078125	26.9258	8.9835
841	302111711	25.9037	8.7547	726	527076	382657176	26.9444	8.9876
842	303464448	25.9230	8.7590	727	528529	384240483	26.9629	8.9918
843	304821217	25.9424	8.7634	728	529984	385828032	26.9815	8.9959
844	306182024	25.9618	8.7677	729	531441	387420849	27.0000	9.0000
845	307546875	25.9808	8.7721	730	532900	389017000	27.0185	9.0041
846	308915776	25.0000	8.7764	731	534361	390617891	27.0370	9.0082
847	310288733	26.0192	8.7807	732	535824	392222168	27.0555	9.0123
848	311665752	26.0384	8.7850	733	537289	393832837	27.0740	9.0164
849	313046839	26.0576	8.7893	734	538756	395448904	27.0924	9.0205
850	314432000	26.0768	8.7937	735	540225	397069375	27.1109	9.0246
851	315821241	26.0960	8.7980	736	541696	398695256	27.1293	9.0287
852	317214568	26.1151	8.8023	737	543169	400326553	27.1477	9.0328
853	318611987	26.1343	8.8066	738	544644	401972272	27.1662	9.0369
854	320013504	26.1534	8.8109	739	546121	403623419	27.1846	9.0410
855	321419125	26.1725	8.8152	740	547600	405280000	27.2029	9.0450
856	322828856	26.1916	8.8194	741	549081	406942021	27.2213	9.0491
857	324242705	26.2107	8.8237	742	550564	408609488	27.2397	9.0532
858	325660672	26.2298	8.8280	743	552049	410292407	27.2580	9.0572
859	327082763	26.2488	8.8323	744	553536	411980784	27.2764	9.0613

No.	Square.	Cube.	Sq. Root.	Cube. Root.	No.	Square.	Cube.	Sq. Root.
980	960400	941192000	31.3050	9.9829	1085	1071225	1108717875	32.1714
981	963361	944076141	31.3209	9.9963	1086	1073396	1111934656	32.1870
982	966324	946966168	31.3369	9.9996	1087	1075569	1115151653	32.2026
983	969289	949862087	31.3528	9.9430	1088	1077744	1118368872	32.2180
984	972256	952763904	31.3688	9.9464	1089	1079921	1121586219	32.2335
985	975225	955671625	31.3847	9.9497	1040	1081600	1124864000	32.2490
986	978196	958585256	31.4006	9.9531	1041	1083681	1128111921	32.2645
987	974184	961504809	31.4166	9.9565	1042	1085764	1131366088	32.2800
988	976144	964430272	31.4325	9.9598	1043	1087849	1134626507	32.2955
989	978121	967361669	31.4484	9.9632	1044	1089936	1137893184	32.3110
990	980100	970299000	31.4643	9.9666	1045	1092025	1141166125	32.3265
991	982081	973242271	31.4802	9.9699	1046	1094116	1144445336	32.3419
992	984064	976191488	31.4960	9.9733	1047	1096209	1147730829	32.3574
993	986049	979146657	31.5119	9.9766	1048	1098304	1151022592	32.3728
994	988036	982107784	31.5278	9.9800	1049	1100401	1154320649	32.3883
995	990025	985074875	31.5436	9.9833	1050	1102500	1157625000	32.4037
996	992016	988047936	31.5595	9.9866	1051	1104601	1160935651	32.4191
997	994009	991026978	31.5753	9.9900	1052	1106704	1164252608	32.4345
998	996004	994011992	31.5911	9.9933	1053	1108809	1167575877	32.4500
999	998001	997002999	31.6070	9.9967	1054	1110916	1170905464	32.4654
1000	1000000	1000000000	31.6228	10.0000	1055	1113025	1174241375	32.4808
1001	1002001	1003003001	31.6386	10.0033	1056	1115136	1177583616	32.4962
1002	1004004	1006012008	31.6544	10.0067	1057	1117249	1180932193	32.5115
1003	1006009	1009027027	31.6702	10.0100	1058	1119364	1184287112	32.5269
1004	1008016	1012048064	31.6860	10.0133	1059	1121481	1187648379	32.5423
1005	1010025	1015075125	31.7017	10.0166	1060	1123600	1191016000	32.5576
1006	1012036	1018108216	31.7175	10.0200	1061	1125721	1194389981	32.5730
1007	1014049	1021147343	31.7333	10.0233	1062	1127844	1197770322	32.5883
1008	1016064	1024192512	31.7490	10.0266	1063	1129969	1201157047	32.6036
1009	1018081	1027243729	31.7648	10.0299	1064	1132096	1204550144	32.6190
1010	1020100	1030301000	31.7805	10.0332	1065	1134225	1207949625	32.6343
1011	1022121	1033364331	31.7962	10.0365	1066	1136356	1211355496	32.6497
1012	1024144	1036433728	31.8119	10.0398	1067	1138489	1214767763	32.6650
1013	1026169	1039509187	31.8277	10.0431	1068	1140624	1218186432	32.6803
1014	1028196	1042590744	31.8434	10.0465	1069	1142761	1221611509	32.6956
1015	1030225	1045678375	31.8591	10.0498	1070	1144900	1225043000	32.7109
1016	1032256	1048772096	31.8748	10.0531	1071	1147041	1228480911	32.7261
1017	1034289	1051871913	31.8904	10.0563	1072	1149184	1231925248	32.7414
1018	1036324	1054977832	31.9061	10.0596	1073	1151329	1235376017	32.7567
1019	1038351	1058089859	31.9218	10.0629	1074	1153476	1238833224	32.7719
1020	1040400	1061208000	31.9374	10.0662	1075	1155625	1242296875	32.7872
1021	1042441	1064332261	31.9531	10.0695	1076	1157776	1245766976	32.8024
1022	1044484	1067462648	31.9687	10.0728	1077	1159929	1249243529	32.8177
1023	1046529	1070599167	31.9844	10.0761	1078	1162084	1252726532	32.8329
1024	1048576	1073741824	32.0000	10.0794	1079	1164241	1256216039	32.8481
1025	1050625	1076889625	32.0156	10.0826	1080	1166400	1259712000	32.8634
1026	1052676	1080045576	32.0312	10.0859	1081	1168561	1263214441	32.8786
1027	1054729	1083206683	32.0468	10.0892	1082	1170724	1266723368	32.8938
1028	1056784	1086373952	32.0624	10.0925	1083	1172889	1270238787	32.9090
1029	1058841	1089547389	32.0780	10.0957	1084	1175056	1273760704	32.9242
1030	1060900	1092727000	32.0936	10.0990	1085	1177225	1277289125	32.9395
1031	1062961	1095912791	32.1092	10.1023	1086	1179396	1280824056	32.9547
1032	1065024	1099104768	32.1248	10.1055	1087	1181569	1284365503	32.9699
1033	1067089	1102302939	32.1403	10.1088	1088	1183744	1287913472	32.9851
1034	1069156	1105507304	32.1559	10.1121	1089	1185921	1291467969	32.9999

SQUARES, CUBES, SQUARE AND CUBE ROOTS. 101

No.	Square.	Cube.	Sq. Root.	Cube Root.	No.	Square.	Cube.	Sq. Root.	Cube Root.
1340	2310000	3581577000	39.1152	11.5330	1565	2449225	3833037125	39.5601	11.6102
1341	2343961	3588604291	39.1280	11.5355	1566	2452356	3840380496	39.5727	11.6126
1342	2377924	3595631588	39.1408	11.5380	1567	2455489	3847751263	39.5854	11.6151
1343	2350889	3602658437	39.1535	11.5395	1568	2458624	3855123432	39.5980	11.6175
1344	2353156	3609771304	39.1663	11.5330	1569	2461761	3862503000	39.6106	11.6200
1345	2355425	3616805375	39.1791	11.5355	1570	2464900	3869883000	39.6232	11.6225
1346	2357696	3623845656	39.1919	11.5380	1571	2468041	3877292411	39.6358	11.6250
1347	2359969	3630891153	39.2046	11.5405	1572	2471184	38847701248	39.6485	11.6274
1348	2362244	3637942872	39.2173	11.5430	1573	2474329	3892219017	39.6611	11.6299
1349	2364521	3645000819	39.2301	11.5455	1574	2477476	3899647224	39.6737	11.6324
1350	2366800	3652065400	39.2428	11.5480	1575	2480625	39069984375	39.6863	11.6348
1351	2369081	3659136621	39.2556	11.5505	1576	2483776	3914430976	39.6989	11.6373
1352	2371364	3666214588	39.2683	11.5530	1577	2486929	3921887033	39.7115	11.6398
1353	2373649	3673300007	39.2810	11.5555	1578	2490084	3929352552	39.7241	11.6422
1354	2375936	3680391984	39.2938	11.5580	1579	2493241	3936827539	39.7366	11.6447
1355	2378225	3687490505	39.3065	11.5605	1580	2496400	3944312000	39.7492	11.6471
1356	2380516	3694595636	39.3192	11.5630	1581	2499561	3951805041	39.7618	11.6496
1357	2382809	3701707383	39.3319	11.5655	1582	2502724	3959306868	39.7744	11.6520
1358	2385104	3708825852	39.3446	11.5680	1583	2505889	3966822287	39.7869	11.6545
1359	2387401	3716050149	39.3573	11.5705	1584	2509056	3974344704	39.7995	11.6570
1360	2389700	3723281280	39.3700	11.5730	1585	2512225	3981876625	39.8121	11.6594
1361	2392001	3730519241	39.3827	11.5755	1586	2515396	3989418056	39.8246	11.6619
1362	2394304	3737764048	39.3954	11.5780	1587	2518569	3996969009	39.8372	11.6643
1363	2396609	3745015807	39.4081	11.5805	1588	2521744	4004529472	39.8497	11.6668
1364	2398916	3752274624	39.4208	11.5830	1589	2524921	4012099169	39.8623	11.6692
1365	2401225	3759540505	39.4335	11.5855	1590	2528100	4019679000	39.8748	11.6717
1366	2403536	3766813546	39.4462	11.5880	1591	2531281	4027268801	39.8873	11.6741
1367	2405849	3774093753	39.4589	11.5905	1592	2534464	4034868688	39.8999	11.6765
1368	2408164	3781381212	39.4716	11.5930	1593	2537649	404247857	39.9124	11.6790
1369	2410481	3788676029	39.4843	11.5955	1594	2540836	4050099264	39.9249	11.6814
1370	2412800	3795978300	39.4970	11.5980	1595	2544025	4057731985	39.9375	11.7839
1371	2415121	3803288131	39.5097	11.6005	1596	2547216	4065375736	39.9500	11.6863
1372	2417444	3810605628	39.5224	11.6030	1597	2550409	4073030517	39.9625	11.6888
1373	2419769	3817930787	39.5351	11.6055	1598	2553604	4080695192	39.9750	11.6912
1374	2422096	3825263616	39.5478	11.6080	1599	2556801	4088370799	39.9875	11.6936
1375	2424425	3832604114	39.5605	11.6105	1600	2560000	4096050000	40.0000	11.6961

SQUARES AND CUBES OF DECIMALS.

No.	Square.	Cube.	No.	Square.	Cube.	No.	Square.	Cube.
1	.01	.001	.01	.0001	.000 001	.001	.00 00 01	.000 000 001
2	.04	.008	.02	.0004	.000 008	.002	.00 00 04	.000 000 008
3	.09	.027	.03	.0009	.000 027	.003	.00 00 09	.000 000 027
4	.16	.064	.04	.0016	.000 064	.004	.00 00 16	.000 000 064
5	.25	.125	.05	.0025	.000 125	.005	.00 00 25	.000 000 125
6	.36	.216	.06	.0036	.000 216	.006	.00 00 36	.000 000 216
7	.49	.343	.07	.0049	.000 343	.007	.00 00 49	.000 000 343
8	.64	.512	.08	.0064	.000 512	.008	.00 00 64	.000 000 512
9	.81	.729	.09	.0081	.000 729	.009	.00 00 81	.000 000 729
10	1.00	1.000	.10	.0100	.001 000	.010	.00 01 00	.000 001 000
11	1.21	1.728	.12	.0144	.001 728	.012	.00 01 44	.000 001 728

Note that the square has twice as many decimal places, and the cube three as many decimal places, as the root.

No.	Square.	Cube.	Sq. Root.	Cube Root.	No.	Square.	Cube.	Sq. Root.	C. R.
1200	1440000	1728000000	34.6410	10.6266	1255	1575025	1976656375	35.4290	10
1201	1442401	1732323601	34.6554	10.6295	1256	1577536	1981385216	35.4401	10
1202	1444804	1736654408	34.6699	10.6325	1257	1580049	1986121593	35.4512	10
1203	1447209	1740992347	34.6843	10.6354	1258	1582564	1990865512	35.4623	10
1204	1449616	1745337664	34.6987	10.6384	1259	1585081	1995616979	35.4734	10
1205	1452025	1749690125	34.7131	10.6413	1260	1587600	2000376030	35.4845	10
1206	1454436	1754049816	34.7275	10.6443	1261	1590121	2005142381	35.5106	10
1207	1456849	1758416743	34.7419	10.6472	1262	1592644	2009916738	35.5216	10
1208	1459264	1762790912	34.7563	10.6501	1263	1595169	2014698447	35.5327	10
1209	1461681	1767172329	34.7707	10.6530	1264	1597696	2019487744	35.5438	10
1210	1464100	1771561000	34.7851	10.6560	1265	1600225	2024284625	35.5648	10
1211	1466521	1775956931	34.7994	10.6590	1266	1602756	2029089096	35.5859	10
1212	1468944	1780360128	34.8138	10.6619	1267	1605289	2033901163	35.5969	10
1213	1471369	1784770597	34.8281	10.6648	1268	1607824	2038720832	35.6080	10
1214	1473796	1789188344	34.8425	10.6678	1269	1610361	2043548109	35.6290	10
1215	1476225	1793613375	34.8569	10.6707	1270	1612900	2048383900	35.6501	10
1216	1478656	1798045696	34.8712	10.6736	1271	1615441	2053227511	35.6511	10
1217	1481089	1802485313	34.8855	10.6765	1272	1617984	2058079548	35.6661	10
1218	1483524	1806932232	34.8999	10.6795	1273	1620529	2062939317	35.6791	10
1219	1485961	1811386450	34.9142	10.6824	1274	1623076	2067798824	35.6921	10
1220	1488400	1815848000	34.9285	10.6853	1275	1625625	2072671875	35.7071	10
1221	1490841	1820316861	34.9428	10.6883	1276	1628176	2077552576	35.7211	10
1222	1493284	1824793048	34.9571	10.6911	1277	1630729	2082440933	35.7351	10
1223	1495729	1829276567	34.9714	10.6940	1278	1633284	2087336952	35.7491	10
1224	1498176	1833767424	34.9857	10.6970	1279	1635841	2092240639	35.7631	10
1225	1500625	1838265625	35.0000	10.6999	1280	1638400	2097152000	35.7771	10
1226	1503076	1842771176	35.0143	10.7028	1281	1640961	2102071041	35.7911	10
1227	1505529	1847284083	35.0286	10.7057	1282	1643524	2106997768	35.8050	10
1228	1507984	1851804352	35.0428	10.7086	1283	1646089	2111931817	35.8190	10
1229	1510441	1856331989	35.0571	10.7115	1284	1648656	2116874304	35.8329	10
1230	1512900	1860867000	35.0714	10.7144	1285	1651225	2121824225	35.8469	10
1231	1515361	1865409391	35.0856	10.7173	1286	1653796	2126781656	35.8608	10
1232	1517824	1869959168	35.0999	10.7202	1287	1656369	2131746603	35.8748	10
1233	1520289	1874516337	35.1141	10.7231	1288	1658944	2136719172	35.8887	10
1234	1522756	1879080904	35.1283	10.7260	1289	1661521	2141700569	35.9026	10
1235	1525225	1883652875	35.1426	10.7289	1290	1664100	2146689000	35.9166	10
1236	1527696	1888232256	35.1568	10.7318	1291	1666681	2151685171	35.9305	10
1237	1530169	1892819033	35.1710	10.7347	1292	1669264	2156689098	35.9444	10
1238	1532644	1897413272	35.1852	10.7376	1293	1671849	2161700757	35.9583	10
1239	1535121	1902014919	35.1994	10.7405	1294	1674436	2166720184	35.9722	10
1240	1537600	1906624000	35.2136	10.7434	1295	1677025	2171747375	35.9861	10
1241	1540081	1911240521	35.2278	10.7463	1296	1679616	2176782336	36.0000	10
1242	1542564	1915864488	35.2420	10.7491	1297	1682209	2181825073	36.0139	10
1243	1545049	1920495907	35.2562	10.7520	1298	1684804	2186875592	36.0278	10
1244	1547536	1925134784	35.2704	10.7549	1299	1687401	2191933899	36.0416	10
1245	1550025	1929781125	35.2846	10.7578	1300	1690000	2197000000	36.0555	10
1246	1552516	1934434936	35.2987	10.7607	1301	1692601	2202073901	36.0694	10
1247	1555009	1939096223	35.3129	10.7635	1302	1695204	2207155608	36.0832	10
1248	1557504	1943764992	35.3270	10.7664	1303	1697809	2212245127	36.0971	10
1249	1560001	1948441249	35.3412	10.7693	1304	1700416	2217343464	36.1109	10
1250	1562500	1953125000	35.3553	10.7722	1305	1703025	2222449725	36.1248	10
1251	1565001	1957816251	35.3695	10.7750	1306	1705636	2227563616	36.1386	10
1252	1567504	1962515048	35.3836	10.7779	1307	1708249	2232685143	36.1525	10
1253	1570009	1967221397	35.3977	10.7808	1308	1710864	2237814112	36.1663	10
1254	1572516	1971935296	35.4119	10.7837	1309	1713481	2242950629	36.1801	10

REFERENCES AND AREAS OF CIRCLES.

No.	Diam.			Circum.			Area.		
	Diam.	Circum.	Area.	Diam.	Circum.	Area.	Diam.	Circum.	Area.
7854	65	204.20	3318.31	129	405.27	13069.81			
1416	66	207.34	3421.19	130	408.41	13273.23			
9686	67	210.49	3525.65	131	411.55	13478.22			
5064	68	213.63	3631.68	132	414.69	13684.78			
335	69	216.77	3739.28	133	417.83	13892.91			
274	70	219.91	3848.45	134	420.97	14102.61			
185	71	223.05	3959.19	135	424.12	14313.88			
266	72	226.19	4071.50	136	427.26	14526.72			
617	73	229.34	4185.39	137	430.40	14741.14			
540	74	232.48	4300.84	138	433.54	14957.12			
383	75	235.62	4417.86	139	436.68	15174.68			
19	76	238.76	4536.46	140	439.82	15393.80			
73	77	241.90	4656.63	141	442.96	15614.50			
94	78	245.04	4778.36	142	446.11	15836.77			
71	79	248.19	4901.67	143	449.25	16060.61			
96	80	251.33	5026.55	144	452.39	16286.02			
98	81	254.47	5153.00	145	455.53	16513.00			
47	82	257.61	5281.02	146	458.67	16741.55			
53	83	260.75	5410.61	147	461.81	16971.67			
16	84	263.89	5541.77	148	464.96	17203.26			
96	85	267.04	5674.50	149	468.10	17436.62			
13	86	270.18	5808.80	150	471.24	17671.46			
88	87	273.32	5944.68	151	474.38	17907.86			
89	88	276.46	6082.12	152	477.52	18145.84			
57	89	279.60	6221.14	153	480.66	18385.39			
33	90	282.74	6361.73	154	483.81	18626.50			
56	91	285.88	6503.88	155	486.95	18869.19			
75	92	289.03	6647.61	156	490.09	19113.45			
52	93	292.17	6792.91	157	493.23	19359.28			
96	94	295.31	6939.78	158	496.37	19606.68			
77	95	298.45	7088.22	159	499.51	19855.65			
25	96	301.59	7238.23	160	502.65	20106.19			
30	97	304.73	7389.81	161	505.79	20358.31			
22	98	307.88	7542.96	162	508.94	20611.99			
11	99	311.02	7697.69	163	512.08	20867.24			
88	100	314.16	7853.98	164	515.22	21124.07			
21	101	317.30	8011.85	165	518.36	21382.46			
11	102	320.44	8171.28	166	521.50	21642.43			
99	103	323.58	8332.29	167	524.65	21903.97			
64	104	326.73	8494.87	168	527.79	22167.08			
25	105	329.87	8659.01	169	530.93	22431.76			
44	106	333.01	8824.73	170	534.07	22698.01			
30	107	336.15	8992.02	171	537.21	22965.83			
53	108	339.29	9160.88	172	540.35	23235.22			
43	109	342.43	9331.32	173	543.50	23506.18			
96	110	345.58	9503.32	174	546.64	23778.71			
94	111	348.72	9676.89	175	549.78	24052.82			
96	112	351.86	9852.03	176	552.92	24328.49			
74	113	355.00	10028.75	177	556.06	24605.74			
50	114	358.14	10207.03	178	559.20	24884.56			
82	115	361.28	10386.89	179	562.35	25164.94			
72	116	364.42	10568.32	180	565.49	25446.90			
18	117	367.57	10751.32	181	568.63	25730.43			
22	118	370.71	10935.88	182	571.77	26015.53			
88	119	373.85	11122.02	183	574.91	26302.20			
01	120	376.99	11309.73	184	578.05	26590.44			
76	121	380.13	11499.01	185	581.19	26880.25			
08	122	383.27	11689.87	186	584.34	27171.63			
97	123	386.42	11882.29	187	587.48	27464.59			
09	124	389.56	12076.28	188	590.62	27759.11			
7	125	392.70	12271.85	189	593.76	28055.21			
	126	395.84	12468.98	190	596.90	28352.87			
	127	398.98	12667.69	191	600.04	28652.11			
	128	402.12	12867.96	192	603.19	28952.92			

No.	Square.	Cube.	Sq. Root.	Cube Root.	No.	Square.	Cube.	Sq. Root.	C. R.
1420	2016400	2963258000	37.6829	11.2999	1475	2175625	3209046875	38.4057	11.41
1421	2019341	29669341461	37.6962	11.2425	1476	2178576	3215578176	38.4187	11.41
1422	2022084	29705403448	37.7094	11.2452	1477	2181529	3222189331	38.4318	11.41
1423	2024929	29741743967	37.7227	11.2478	1478	2184484	3228867352	38.4448	11.41
1424	2027776	29778559024	37.7359	11.2505	1479	2187441	3235625229	38.4578	11.41
1425	2030625	29815840625	37.7492	11.2531	1480	2190400	3242472000	38.4708	11.41
1426	2033476	29853693776	37.7624	11.2557	1481	2193361	3249397641	38.4838	11.41
1427	2036329	29892148489	37.7757	11.2583	1482	2196324	3256405264	38.4968	11.41
1428	2039184	29931215762	37.7889	11.2610	1483	2199289	3263495889	38.5097	11.41
1429	2042041	29970905689	37.8021	11.2636	1484	2202256	3270669524	38.5227	11.41
1430	2044900	29991070000	37.8153	11.2662	1485	2205225	3277927165	38.5357	11.41
1431	2047761	29991695991	37.8286	11.2689	1486	2208196	3285269812	38.5487	11.41
1432	2050624	29992845608	37.8418	11.2715	1487	2211169	3292707465	38.5617	11.41
1433	2053489	29994619737	37.8550	11.2741	1488	2214144	3299240124	38.5747	11.41
1434	2056356	29997018504	37.8682	11.2767	1489	2217121	3305867789	38.5877	11.41
1435	2059225	29999987875	37.8814	11.2793	1490	2220100	3307949600	38.6007	11.41
1436	2062096	29999987875	37.8946	11.2820	1491	2223081	3314161377	38.6137	11.41
1437	2064969	29997260453	37.9078	11.2846	1492	2226064	3320484000	38.6267	11.41
1438	2067844	29993855967	37.9210	11.2872	1493	2229049	3327017577	38.6397	11.41
1439	2070721	29990727519	37.9342	11.2898	1494	2232036	3333662100	38.6527	11.41
1440	2073600	29985984000	37.9473	11.2924	1495	2235025	3340417675	38.6657	11.41
1441	2076481	29980309121	37.9605	11.2950	1496	2238016	3347284304	38.6787	11.41
1442	2079364	29973844888	37.9737	11.2977	1497	2241009	3354261987	38.6917	11.41
1443	2082249	29966539007	37.9868	11.3003	1498	2244004	3361350724	38.7047	11.41
1444	2085136	29958356884	38.0000	11.3029	1499	2247001	3368550615	38.7177	11.41
1445	2088025	29949369425	38.0132	11.3055	1500	2250000	3375861600	38.7307	11.41
1446	2090916	29939546536	38.0263	11.3081	1501	2253001	3383283681	38.7437	11.41
1447	2093809	29928944193	38.0395	11.3107	1502	2256004	3390826864	38.7567	11.41
1448	2096704	29917519392	38.0526	11.3133	1503	2259009	3398491149	38.7697	11.41
1449	2099601	2990531849	38.0657	11.3159	1504	2262016	3406276536	38.7827	11.41
1450	2102500	29892395000	38.0789	11.3185	1505	2265025	3414183025	38.7957	11.41
1451	2105401	29878719681	38.0920	11.3211	1506	2268036	3422210616	38.8087	11.41
1452	2108304	29864357408	38.1051	11.3237	1507	2271049	3430359309	38.8217	11.41
1453	2111209	29849358677	38.1182	11.3263	1508	2274064	3438629104	38.8347	11.41
1454	2114116	29833774664	38.1314	11.3289	1509	2277081	3447020001	38.8477	11.41
1455	2117025	29817671375	38.1445	11.3315	1510	2280100	3455532000	38.8607	11.41
1456	2119936	29801096688	38.1576	11.3341	1511	2283121	3464165101	38.8737	11.41
1457	2122849	29784099993	38.1707	11.3367	1512	2286144	3472929304	38.8867	11.41
1458	2125764	29766728392	38.1838	11.3393	1513	2289169	3481824609	38.8997	11.41
1459	2128681	29748937579	38.1969	11.3419	1514	2292196	3490851024	38.9127	11.41
1460	2131600	29730773600	38.2099	11.3445	1515	2295225	3499998545	38.9257	11.41
1461	2134521	29712285181	38.2230	11.3471	1516	2298256	3509267184	38.9387	11.41
1462	2137444	29693519288	38.2361	11.3496	1517	2301289	3518656941	38.9517	11.41
1463	2140369	29674428947	38.2492	11.3522	1518	2304324	3528167816	38.9647	11.41
1464	2143296	29655069344	38.2623	11.3548	1519	2307361	3537800809	38.9777	11.41
1465	2146225	29635499625	38.2753	11.3574	1520	2310400	3547555800	38.9907	11.41
1466	2149156	29615769806	38.2884	11.3600	1521	2313441	3557432801	39.0037	11.41
1467	2152089	29595929989	38.3014	11.3626	1522	2316484	3567431804	39.0167	11.41
1468	2155024	29575939772	38.3145	11.3652	1523	2319529	3577552809	39.0297	11.41
1469	2157961	29555759057	38.3275	11.3677	1524	2322576	3587795824	39.0427	11.41
1470	2160900	29535439000	38.3406	11.3703	1525	2325625	3598160845	39.0557	11.41
1471	2163841	29514929681	38.3536	11.3729	1526	2328676	3608647872	39.0687	11.41
1472	2166784	29494281104	38.3667	11.3755	1527	2331729	3619256905	39.0817	11.41
1473	2169729	29473533289	38.3797	11.3780	1528	2334784	3629987944	39.0947	11.41
1474	2172676	29452646224	38.3927	11.3806	1529	2337841	3640841089	39.1077	11.41

CIRCUMFERENCES AND AREAS OF CIRCLES. 105

Diam.	Circum.	Area.	Diam.	Circum.	Area.	Diam.	Circum.	Area.
391	1237.79	121922.07	461	1448.97	166913.60	528	1658.78	218956.44
392	1240.93	122541.75	462	1451.42	167638.53	529	1661.90	219786.61
393	1244.07	123161.00	463	1454.56	168365.02	530	1665.04	220618.84
394	1247.21	123780.82	464	1457.70	169093.08	531	1668.19	221451.65
395	1250.35	124410.21	465	1460.84	169822.72	532	1671.33	222286.63
396	1253.50	125039.17	466	1463.98	170553.92	533	1674.47	223122.98
397	1256.64	125668.71	467	1467.12	171286.70	534	1677.61	223961.00
398	1259.78	126298.81	468	1470.27	172021.05	535	1680.75	224800.59
399	1262.92	126929.48	469	1473.41	172757.07	536	1683.89	225641.75
400	1266.06	127560.73	470	1476.55	173494.45	537	1687.04	226484.48
401	1269.20	128192.55	471	1479.69	174233.51	538	1690.18	227328.79
402	1272.34	128824.93	472	1482.83	174974.14	539	1693.32	228174.66
403	1275.48	129461.89	473	1485.97	175716.35	540	1696.46	229022.10
404	1278.62	130100.12	474	1489.11	176460.12	541	1699.60	229871.12
405	1281.76	130740.52	475	1492.26	177205.46	542	1702.74	230721.71
406	1284.90	131382.19	476	1495.40	177952.37	543	1705.88	231573.86
407	1288.04	132025.43	477	1498.54	178700.86	544	1709.02	232427.59
408	1291.18	132670.24	478	1501.68	179450.91	545	1712.17	233282.89
409	1294.32	133316.63	479	1504.82	180202.54	546	1715.31	234139.76
410	1297.46	133964.58	480	1507.96	180955.74	547	1718.45	234998.20
411	1300.60	134614.10	481	1511.11	181710.50	548	1721.59	235858.21
412	1303.74	135265.20	482	1514.25	182466.84	549	1724.73	236719.79
413	1306.88	135917.86	483	1517.39	183224.75	550	1727.88	237582.94
414	1310.02	136572.10	484	1520.53	183984.23	551	1731.02	238447.67
415	1313.16	137227.91	485	1523.67	184745.28	552	1734.16	239313.96
416	1316.30	137885.29	486	1526.81	185507.50	553	1737.30	240181.83
417	1319.44	138544.24	487	1529.96	186272.10	554	1740.44	241051.26
418	1322.58	139204.76	488	1533.10	187038.86	555	1743.58	241922.27
419	1325.72	139866.85	489	1536.24	187806.19	556	1746.73	242794.85
420	1328.86	140530.51	490	1539.38	188574.10	557	1749.87	243668.99
421	1332.00	141195.74	491	1542.52	189344.57	558	1753.01	244544.71
422	1335.14	141862.54	492	1545.66	190116.62	559	1756.15	245422.00
423	1338.28	142530.92	493	1548.81	190890.24	560	1759.29	246300.86
424	1341.42	143200.86	494	1551.95	191665.43	561	1762.43	247181.30
425	1344.56	143872.38	495	1555.09	192442.18	562	1765.58	248063.33
426	1347.70	144545.46	496	1558.23	193220.51	563	1768.72	248946.87
427	1350.84	145220.12	497	1561.37	194000.41	564	1771.86	249832.01
428	1353.98	145896.35	498	1564.51	194781.89	565	1775.00	250718.73
429	1357.12	146574.15	499	1567.65	195564.93	566	1778.14	251607.01
430	1360.26	147253.52	500	1570.80	196349.54	567	1781.28	252496.87
431	1363.40	147934.46	501	1573.94	197135.73	568	1784.42	253388.30
432	1366.54	148616.97	502	1577.08	197923.48	569	1787.57	254281.29
433	1369.68	149301.05	503	1580.22	198712.80	570	1790.71	255175.86
434	1372.82	149986.70	504	1583.36	199503.70	571	1793.85	256072.00
435	1375.96	150673.93	505	1586.50	200296.17	572	1796.99	256969.71
436	1379.10	151362.72	506	1589.65	201090.20	573	1800.13	257869.09
437	1382.24	152053.08	507	1592.79	201885.81	574	1803.27	258770.25
438	1385.38	152745.02	508	1595.93	202682.99	575	1806.41	259673.07
439	1388.52	153438.53	509	1599.07	203481.74	576	1809.55	260577.56
440	1391.66	154133.60	510	1602.21	204282.06	577	1812.70	261483.83
441	1394.80	154830.25	511	1605.35	205083.95	578	1815.84	262391.97
442	1397.94	155528.47	512	1608.50	205887.42	579	1818.98	263301.97
443	1401.08	156228.26	513	1611.64	206692.45	580	1822.12	264213.74
444	1404.22	156929.62	514	1614.78	207499.05	581	1825.27	265127.19
445	1407.36	157632.55	515	1617.92	208307.23	582	1828.41	266042.31
446	1410.50	158337.06	516	1621.06	209116.97	583	1831.55	266959.10
447	1413.64	159043.13	517	1624.20	209928.29	584	1834.69	267877.64
448	1416.78	159750.77	518	1627.34	210741.18	585	1837.83	268797.89
449	1419.92	160459.99	519	1630.49	211555.63	586	1840.97	269719.59
450	1423.06	161170.77	520	1633.63	212371.66	587	1844.11	270642.85
451	1426.20	161883.13	521	1636.77	213189.26	588	1847.26	271567.66
452	1429.34	162597.05	522	1639.91	214008.43	589	1850.40	272494.12
453	1432.48	163312.55	523	1643.05	214829.17	590	1853.54	273422.23
454	1435.62	164029.62	524	1646.19	215651.49	591	1856.68	274352.00
455	1438.76	164748.26	525	1649.34	216475.37	592	1859.82	275283.43
456	1441.90	165468.47	526	1652.48	217300.82	593	1862.96	276216.43
457	1445.04	166190.25	527	1655.62	218127.85	594	1866.11	277151.97

FIFTH ROOTS AND FIFTH POWER

(Abridged from TRAUTWINE.)

No. or Root.	Power.	No. or Root.	Power.	No. or Root.	Power.	No. or Root.	Power.
.10	.000010	3.7	698.440	9.8	90392	31.8	4923597
.15	.000075	3.8	792.352	9.9	95099	32.0	5155632
.20	.000320	3.9	902.242	10.0	100000	32.2	5392186
.25	.000977	4.0	1024.00	10.2	110408	32.4	5639493
.30	.002430	4.1	1158.56	10.4	121665	32.6	5895793
.35	.005252	4.2	1306.91	10.6	133823	32.8	6161927
.40	.010240	4.3	1470.08	10.8	146933	33.0	6436343
.45	.018453	4.4	1649.16	11.0	161051	33.2	6721093
.50	.031250	4.5	1845.28	11.2	176234	33.4	7015894
.55	.050328	4.6	2059.63	11.4	192541	33.6	7320822
.60	.077760	4.7	2299.45	11.6	210084	33.8	7636332
.65	.110029	4.8	2548.04	11.8	228776	34.0	7962624
.70	.168070	4.9	2824.75	12.0	248832	34.2	8299976
.75	.237305	5.0	3125.00	12.2	270271	34.4	8648666
.80	.327680	5.1	3450.35	12.4	293163	34.6	9008978
.85	.443705	5.2	3802.04	12.6	317580	34.8	9381200
.90	.590490	5.3	4181.95	12.8	343597	35.0	9765625
.95	.773781	5.4	4591.65	13.0	371293	35.2	10162550
1.00	1.000000	5.5	5032.84	13.2	400746	35.4	10572278
1.05	1.27628	5.6	5507.32	13.4	432040	35.6	10995116
1.10	1.61061	5.7	6016.92	13.6	465259	35.8	11431377
1.15	2.01135	5.8	6563.57	13.8	500490	36.0	11881376
1.20	2.48832	5.9	7149.24	14.0	537824	36.2	12345437
1.25	3.05176	6.0	7776.00	14.2	577353	36.4	12823886
1.30	3.71293	6.1	8445.96	14.4	619174	36.6	13317055
1.35	4.48403	6.2	9161.33	14.6	663383	36.8	13825281
1.40	5.37824	6.3	9924.37	14.8	710082	37.0	14348907
1.45	6.40973	6.4	10737	15.0	759375	37.2	14888280
1.50	7.59375	6.5	11603	15.2	811368	37.4	15443762
1.55	8.94661	6.6	12523	15.4	866171	37.6	16015681
1.60	10.4858	6.7	13501	15.6	923896	37.8	16604430
1.65	12.2298	6.8	14539	15.8	984658	38.0	17210368
1.70	14.1986	6.9	15640	16.0	1048576	38.2	17833868
1.75	16.4131	7.0	16807	16.2	1115771	38.4	18475309
1.80	18.8957	7.1	18042	16.4	1186367	38.6	19135075
1.85	21.6700	7.2	19349	16.6	1260493	38.8	19813557
1.90	24.7610	7.3	20731	16.8	1338278	39.0	20511149
1.95	28.1951	7.4	22190	17.0	1419857	39.2	21228353
2.00	32.0000	7.5	23730	17.2	1505366	39.4	21965275
2.05	36.2051	7.6	25355	17.4	1594947	39.6	22722628
2.10	40.8410	7.7	27068	17.6	1688742	39.8	23500728
2.15	45.9401	7.8	28872	17.8	1786850	40.0	24300000
2.20	51.5363	7.9	30768	18.0	1889363	40.2	25121634
2.25	57.6650	8.0	32768	18.2	1996403	40.4	25965634
2.30	64.3634	8.1	34868	18.4	2108061	40.6	26832115
2.35	71.6708	8.2	37074	18.6	2224323	40.8	27721432
2.40	79.6262	8.3	39390	18.8	2345403	41.0	28633682
2.45	88.2735	8.4	41821	19.0	2471309	41.2	29568934
2.50	97.6562	8.5	44371	19.2	2601933	41.4	30527215
2.55	107.820	8.6	47043	19.4	2747949	41.6	31508642
2.60	118.814	8.7	49842	19.6	2899547	41.8	32513212
2.70	143.489	8.8	52773	19.8	3043168	42.0	33541932
2.80	172.104	8.9	55841	20.0	3190000	42.2	34594800
2.90	205.111	9.0	59049	20.2	3339332	42.4	35671822
3.00	243.000	9.1	62403	20.4	3491365	42.6	36773000
3.10	286.292	9.2	65908	20.6	3706677	42.8	37898352
3.20	335.544	9.3	69569	20.8	3893289	43.0	39048880
	391.354	9.4	73390	21.0	4084101	43.2	40224592
	454.254	9.5	77378	21.2	4282322	43.4	41426480
	5219			21.4	4488166	43.6	42654544
	6000			21.6	4701850	43.8	43908882

CUMFERENCES AND AREAS OF CIRCLES.

Area.	Diam.	Circum.	Area.	Diam.	Circum.	Area.
0.7854	65	204.20	3318.31	129	405.27	13069.81
3.1416	66	207.34	3421.19	130	408.41	13273.23
7.0686	67	210.49	3525.05	131	411.55	13478.22
12.5664	68	213.63	3631.68	132	414.69	13684.78
19.635	69	216.77	3739.28	133	417.83	13892.91
28.274	70	219.91	3848.45	134	420.97	14102.61
38.485	71	223.05	3959.19	135	424.12	14313.88
50.266	72	226.19	4071.50	136	427.26	14526.72
63.617	73	229.34	4185.89	137	430.40	14741.14
78.540	74	232.48	4300.84	138	433.54	14957.19
95.033	75	235.62	4417.86	139	436.68	15174.68
113.10	76	238.76	4536.46	140	439.82	15393.80
132.73	77	241.90	4656.03	141	442.96	15614.50
153.94	78	245.04	4777.36	142	446.11	15836.77
176.71	79	248.19	4901.07	143	449.25	16060.61
201.06	80	251.33	5026.55	144	452.39	16286.02
226.98	81	254.47	5153.00	145	455.53	16513.00
254.47	82	257.61	5281.02	146	458.67	16741.55
283.53	83	260.75	5410.01	147	461.81	16971.67
314.16	84	263.89	5541.77	148	464.96	17203.36
346.36	85	267.04	5674.50	149	468.10	17436.62
380.13	86	270.18	5808.80	150	471.24	17671.46
415.48	87	273.32	5944.68	151	474.38	17907.86
452.39	88	276.46	6082.12	152	477.52	18145.84
490.87	89	279.60	6221.14	153	480.66	18385.39
530.93	90	282.74	6361.73	154	483.81	18626.50
572.66	91	285.88	6503.88	155	486.95	18869.19
615.75	92	289.03	6647.61	156	490.09	19113.45
660.32	93	292.17	6792.91	157	493.23	19359.28
706.36	94	295.31	6939.78	158	496.37	19606.68
754.77	95	298.45	7088.22	159	499.51	19855.65
804.25	96	301.59	7238.23	160	502.65	20106.19
855.30	97	304.73	7389.81	161	505.80	20358.31
907.92	98	307.88	7542.96	162	508.94	20612.01
962.11	99	311.02	7697.69	163	512.08	20867.34
1017.88	100	314.16	7853.98	164	515.22	21124.07
1075.21	101	317.30	8011.85	165	518.36	21382.46
1134.11	102	320.44	8171.28	166	521.50	21642.43
1194.59	103	323.58	8332.29	167	524.65	21903.97
1256.64	104	326.73	8494.87	168	527.79	22167.08
1320.25	105	329.87	8659.01	169	530.93	22431.76
1385.44	106	333.01	8824.73	170	534.07	22698.01
1452.20	107	336.15	8992.02	171	537.21	22965.83
1520.53	108	339.29	9160.88	172	540.35	23235.22
1590.43	109	342.43	9331.32	173	543.50	23506.18
1661.96	110	345.58	9503.32	174	546.64	23778.71
1734.94	111	348.72	9676.89	175	549.78	24052.82
1809.50	112	351.86	9852.03	176	552.92	24328.49
1885.74	113	355.00	10028.75	177	556.06	24605.74
1963.59	114	358.14	10207.03	178	559.20	24884.56
2042.82	115	361.28	10386.89	179	562.35	25164.94
2123.73	116	364.42	10568.32	180	565.49	25446.90
2206.18	117	367.57	10751.32	181	568.63	25730.43
2290.22	118	370.71	10935.88	182	571.77	26015.53
2375.83	119	373.85	11122.02	183	574.91	26302.20
2463.01	120	376.99	11309.73	184	578.05	26590.44
2551.76	121	380.13	11499.01	185	581.19	26880.25
2642.08	122	383.27	11689.87	186	584.34	27171.63
2733.97	123	386.42	11882.29	187	587.48	27464.59
2827.43	124	389.56	12076.28	188	590.62	27759.11
2922.47	125	392.70	12271.85	189	593.76	28055.21
3019.07	126	395.84	12468.98	190	596.90	28352.87
3117.25	127	398.98	12667.69	191	600.04	28652.09
3216.99	128	402.12	12867.96	192	603.19	28952.87

Diam.	Circum.	Area.	Diam.	Circum.	Area.	Diam.	Circum.
193	606.33	29255.30	260	816.81	53092.92	327	1027.7
194	609.47	29559.25	261	819.96	53502.11	328	1030.
195	612.61	29864.77	262	823.10	53912.87	329	1033.
196	615.75	30171.86	263	826.24	54325.21	330	1036
197	618.89	30480.52	264	829.38	54739.11	331	1039.
198	622.04	30790.75	265	832.52	55154.59	332	1043.
199	625.18	31102.55	266	835.66	55571.63	333	1046.
200	628.32	31415.93	267	838.81	55990.25	334	1049
201	631.46	31730.87	268	841.95	56410.44	335	1052
202	634.60	32047.39	269	845.09	56832.20	336	1055
203	637.74	32365.47	270	848.23	57255.53	337	1058
204	640.88	32685.13	271	851.37	57680.43	338	1061
205	644.03	33006.36	272	854.51	58106.90	339	1065
206	647.17	33329.16	273	857.65	58534.94	340	1068
207	650.31	33653.53	274	860.80	58964.55	341	1071
208	653.45	33979.47	275	863.94	59395.74	342	1074
209	656.59	34306.98	276	867.08	59828.49	343	1077
210	659.73	34636.06	277	870.22	60262.82	344	1080
211	662.88	34966.71	278	873.36	60698.71	345	1083
212	666.02	35298.94	279	876.50	61136.18	346	1086
213	669.16	35632.73	280	879.65	61575.22	347	1090
214	672.30	35968.09	281	882.79	62015.82	348	1093
215	675.44	36305.03	282	885.93	62458.00	349	1096
216	678.58	36643.54	283	889.07	62901.75	350	1099
217	681.73	36983.61	284	892.21	63347.07	351	1102
218	684.87	37325.26	285	895.35	63793.97	352	1105
219	688.01	37668.48	286	898.50	64242.43	353	1108
220	691.15	38013.27	287	901.64	64692.46	354	1111
221	694.29	38359.63	288	904.78	65144.07	355	1114
222	697.43	38707.56	289	907.92	65597.24	356	1117
223	700.58	39057.07	290	911.06	66051.99	357	1120
224	703.72	39408.14	291	914.20	66508.30	358	1123
225	706.86	39760.78	292	917.35	66966.19	359	1126
226	710.00	40115.00	293	920.49	67425.65	360	1129
227	713.14	40470.78	294	923.63	67886.68	361	1132
228	716.28	40828.14	295	926.77	68349.28	362	1135
229	719.42	41187.07	296	929.91	68813.45	363	1138
230	722.57	41547.56	297	933.05	69279.19	364	1141
231	725.71	41909.63	298	936.19	69746.50	365	1144
232	728.85	42273.27	299	939.34	70215.38	366	1147
233	731.99	42638.48	300	942.48	70685.83	367	1150
234	735.13	43005.26	301	945.62	71157.86	368	1153
235	738.27	43373.61	302	948.76	71631.45	369	1156
236	741.42	43743.54	303	951.90	72106.62	370	1159
237	744.56	44115.03	304	955.04	72583.36	371	1162
238	747.70	44488.09	305	958.19	73061.66	372	1165
239	750.84	44862.73	306	961.33	73541.54	373	1168
240	753.98	45238.93	307	964.47	74022.99	374	1171
241	757.12	45616.71	308	967.61	74506.01	375	1174
242	760.27	45996.06	309	970.75	74990.60	376	1177
243	763.41	46376.98	310	973.89	75476.76	377	1180
244	766.55	46759.47	311	977.04	75964.50	378	1183
245	769.69	47143.53	312	980.18	76453.80	379	1186
246	772.83	47529.16	313	983.32	76944.67	380	1189
247	775.97	47916.36	314	986.46	77437.12	381	1192
248	779.11	48305.13	315	989.60	77931.13	382	1195
249	782.26	48695.47	316	992.74	78426.72	383	1198
250	785.40	49087.39	317	995.88	78923.88	384	1201
251	788.54	49480.87	318	999.03	79422.60	385	1204
252	791.68	49875.92	319	1002.17	79922.90	386	1207
253	794.82	50272.55	320	1005.31	80424.77	387	1210
254	797.96	50670.75	321	1008.45	80928.21	388	1213
255	801.11	51070.52	322	1011.59	81433.22	389	1216
256	804.25	51471.85	323	1014.73	81939.80	390	1219
257	807.39	51874.76	324	1017.88	82447.96	391	1222
258	810.53	52279.24	325	1021.02	82957.68	392	1225
259	813.67	52685.29	326	1024.16	83468.98	393	1228

CIRCUMFERENCES AND AREAS OF CIRCLES. 109

	Circum.	Area.	Diam.	Circum.	Area.	Diam.	Circum.	Area.
	42.804	145.80	21 ⁷ / ₁₆	68.722	375.83	30 ¹ / ₁₆	94.640	712.76
	43.127	148.49	22	69.115	380.13	¹ / ₁₆	95.033	718.69
	43.500	151.20	¹ / ₁₆	69.508	384.46	¹ / ₁₆	95.426	724.64
	43.922	153.94	¹ / ₁₆	69.900	388.82	¹ / ₁₆	95.819	730.62
	44.375	156.70	¹ / ₁₆	70.293	393.20	¹ / ₁₆	96.211	736.62
	44.768	159.48	¹ / ₁₆	70.686	397.61	¹ / ₁₆	96.604	742.64
	45.160	162.30	¹ / ₁₆	71.079	402.04	¹ / ₁₆	96.997	748.69
	45.553	165.13	¹ / ₁₆	71.471	406.49	31 ¹ / ₁₆	97.389	754.77
	45.946	167.99	¹ / ₁₆	71.864	410.97	¹ / ₁₆	97.782	760.87
	46.338	170.87	23	72.257	415.48	¹ / ₁₆	98.175	766.99
	46.731	173.78	¹ / ₁₆	72.649	420.00	¹ / ₁₆	98.567	773.14
	47.124	176.71	¹ / ₁₆	73.042	424.56	¹ / ₁₆	98.960	779.31
	47.517	179.67	¹ / ₁₆	73.435	429.13	¹ / ₁₆	99.353	785.51
	47.909	182.65	¹ / ₁₆	73.827	433.74	¹ / ₁₆	99.746	791.73
	48.302	185.66	¹ / ₁₆	74.220	438.36	¹ / ₁₆	100.138	797.93
	48.695	188.69	¹ / ₁₆	74.613	443.01	32 ¹ / ₁₆	100.531	804.15
	49.087	191.75	¹ / ₁₆	75.006	447.69	¹ / ₁₆	100.924	810.54
	49.480	194.83	24	75.398	452.39	¹ / ₁₆	101.316	816.86
	49.873	197.93	¹ / ₁₆	75.791	457.11	¹ / ₁₆	101.709	823.21
	50.265	201.06	¹ / ₁₆	76.184	461.86	¹ / ₁₆	102.102	829.58
	50.658	204.22	¹ / ₁₆	76.576	466.64	¹ / ₁₆	102.494	835.97
	51.051	207.39	¹ / ₁₆	76.969	471.44	¹ / ₁₆	102.887	842.39
	51.444	210.60	¹ / ₁₆	77.362	476.26	¹ / ₁₆	103.280	848.83
	51.836	213.82	¹ / ₁₆	77.754	481.11	33 ¹ / ₁₆	103.673	855.30
	52.229	217.08	¹ / ₁₆	78.147	485.98	¹ / ₁₆	104.065	861.79
	52.622	220.35	25	78.540	490.87	¹ / ₁₆	104.458	868.31
	53.014	223.65	¹ / ₁₆	78.933	495.79	¹ / ₁₆	104.851	874.85
	53.407	226.98	¹ / ₁₆	79.325	500.74	¹ / ₁₆	105.243	881.41
	53.800	230.33	¹ / ₁₆	79.718	505.71	¹ / ₁₆	105.636	888.00
	54.192	233.71	¹ / ₁₆	80.111	510.71	¹ / ₁₆	106.029	894.62
	54.585	237.10	¹ / ₁₆	80.503	515.72	¹ / ₁₆	106.421	901.26
	54.978	240.53	¹ / ₁₆	80.896	520.77	34 ¹ / ₁₆	106.814	907.92
	55.371	243.98	¹ / ₁₆	81.289	525.84	¹ / ₁₆	107.207	914.61
	55.763	247.45	26	81.681	530.93	¹ / ₁₆	107.600	921.32
	56.156	250.95	¹ / ₁₆	82.074	536.05	¹ / ₁₆	107.992	928.06
	56.549	254.47	¹ / ₁₆	82.467	541.19	¹ / ₁₆	108.385	934.82
	56.941	258.02	¹ / ₁₆	82.860	546.35	¹ / ₁₆	108.778	941.61
	57.334	261.59	¹ / ₁₆	83.252	551.55	¹ / ₁₆	109.170	948.42
	57.727	265.18	¹ / ₁₆	83.645	556.76	35 ¹ / ₁₆	109.563	955.25
	58.119	268.80	¹ / ₁₆	84.038	562.00	¹ / ₁₆	109.956	962.11
	58.512	272.45	¹ / ₁₆	84.430	567.27	¹ / ₁₆	110.348	969.00
	58.905	276.12	27	84.823	572.56	¹ / ₁₆	110.741	975.91
	59.298	279.81	¹ / ₁₆	85.216	577.87	¹ / ₁₆	111.134	982.84
	59.690	283.53	¹ / ₁₆	85.608	583.21	¹ / ₁₆	111.527	989.80
	60.083	287.27	¹ / ₁₆	86.001	588.57	¹ / ₁₆	111.919	996.78
	60.476	291.04	¹ / ₁₆	86.394	593.96	¹ / ₁₆	112.312	1003.8
	60.869	294.83	¹ / ₁₆	86.786	599.37	¹ / ₁₆	112.705	1010.8
	61.261	298.65	¹ / ₁₆	87.179	604.81	36 ¹ / ₁₆	113.097	1017.9
	61.654	302.49	¹ / ₁₆	87.572	610.27	¹ / ₁₆	113.490	1025.0
	62.046	306.35	28	87.965	615.75	¹ / ₁₆	113.883	1032.1
	62.439	310.24	¹ / ₁₆	88.357	621.25	¹ / ₁₆	114.275	1039.2
	62.832	314.16	¹ / ₁₆	88.750	626.80	¹ / ₁₆	114.668	1046.3
	63.225	318.10	¹ / ₁₆	89.143	632.36	¹ / ₁₆	115.061	1053.5
	63.617	322.06	¹ / ₁₆	89.535	637.94	¹ / ₁₆	115.454	1060.7
	64.010	326.05	¹ / ₁₆	89.928	643.55	¹ / ₁₆	115.846	1068.0
	64.403	330.06	¹ / ₁₆	90.321	649.18	37 ¹ / ₁₆	116.239	1075.2
	64.795	334.10	¹ / ₁₆	90.713	654.84	¹ / ₁₆	116.632	1082.5
	65.188	338.16	29	91.106	660.52	¹ / ₁₆	117.024	1089.8
	65.581	342.25	¹ / ₁₆	91.499	666.23	¹ / ₁₆	117.417	1097.1
	65.973	346.36	¹ / ₁₆	91.892	671.96	¹ / ₁₆	117.810	1104.5
	66.366	350.50	¹ / ₁₆	92.284	677.71	¹ / ₁₆	118.202	1111.8
	66.759	354.66	¹ / ₁₆	92.677	683.49	¹ / ₁₆	118.596	1119.2
	67.152	358.84	¹ / ₁₆	93.070	689.30	¹ / ₁₆	118.988	1126.7
	67.544	363.03	¹ / ₁₆	93.462	695.13	38 ¹ / ₁₆	119.381	1134.1
	67.937	367.25	¹ / ₁₆	93.855	700.98	¹ / ₁₆	119.773	1141.5
	68.330	371.51	30	94.248	706.86	¹ / ₁₆	120.166	1149.

Diam.	Circum.	Area.	Diam.	Circum.	Area.	Diam.	Circum.
595	1869.25	278050.58	663	2082.88	345236.69	731	2296.50
596	1872.39	278985.99	664	2085.02	346278.91	732	2299.65
597	1875.53	279922.97	665	2087.16	347322.70	733	2302.79
598	1878.67	280861.52	666	2089.30	348368.07	734	2305.93
599	1881.81	281801.65	667	2091.44	349415.00	735	2309.07
600	1884.96	282743.34	668	2093.58	350463.51	736	2312.21
601	1888.10	283686.60	669	2101.73	351513.59	737	2315.35
602	1891.24	284631.44	670	2104.87	352565.24	738	2318.50
603	1894.38	285577.84	671	2108.01	353618.45	739	2321.64
604	1897.52	286525.82	672	2111.15	354673.24	740	2324.78
605	1900.66	287475.36	673	2114.29	355729.60	741	2327.92
606	1903.81	288426.48	674	2117.43	356787.54	742	2331.06
607	1906.95	289379.17	675	2120.58	357847.04	743	2334.20
608	1910.09	290333.43	676	2123.72	358908.11	744	2337.34
609	1913.23	291289.26	677	2126.86	359970.75	745	2340.49
610	1916.37	292246.66	678	2130.00	361034.97	746	2343.63
611	1919.51	293205.63	679	2133.14	362100.75	747	2346.77
612	1922.65	294166.17	680	2136.28	363168.11	748	2349.91
613	1925.80	295128.28	681	2139.42	364237.04	749	2353.05
614	1928.94	296091.97	682	2142.57	365307.54	750	2356.19
615	1932.08	297057.22	683	2145.71	366379.60	751	2359.34
616	1935.22	298024.05	684	2148.85	367453.24	752	2362.48
617	1938.36	298992.44	685	2151.99	368528.45	753	2365.62
618	1941.50	299962.41	686	2155.13	369605.22	754	2368.76
619	1944.65	300933.95	687	2158.27	370683.59	755	2371.90
620	1947.79	301907.05	688	2161.42	371763.51	756	2375.04
621	1950.93	302881.73	689	2164.56	372845.00	757	2378.19
622	1954.07	303857.98	690	2167.70	373928.07	758	2381.33
623	1957.21	304835.80	691	2170.84	375012.70	759	2384.47
624	1960.35	305815.20	692	2173.98	376098.91	760	2387.61
625	1963.50	306796.16	693	2177.12	377186.68	761	2390.75
626	1966.64	307778.69	694	2180.27	378276.05	762	2393.89
627	1969.78	308762.79	695	2183.41	379367.05	763	2397.04
628	1972.92	309748.47	696	2186.55	380459.74	764	2400.18
629	1976.06	310735.71	697	2189.69	381553.50	765	2403.32
630	1979.20	311724.53	698	2192.83	382649.13	766	2406.46
631	1982.35	312714.92	699	2195.97	383746.53	767	2409.60
632	1985.49	313706.88	700	2199.11	384845.10	768	2412.74
633	1988.63	314700.40	701	2202.25	385945.44	769	2415.88
634	1991.77	315695.50	702	2205.40	387047.36	770	2419.03
635	1994.91	316692.17	703	2208.54	388150.84	771	2422.17
636	1998.05	317690.42	704	2211.68	389255.90	772	2425.31
637	2001.19	318690.23	705	2214.82	390362.52	773	2428.45
638	2004.34	319691.61	706	2217.96	391470.72	774	2431.59
639	2007.48	320694.56	707	2221.11	392580.49	775	2434.73
640	2010.62	321699.09	708	2224.25	393691.82	776	2437.88
641	2013.76	322705.18	709	2227.39	394804.73	777	2441.02
642	2016.90	323712.85	710	2230.53	395919.21	778	2444.16
643	2020.04	324722.09	711	2233.67	397035.26	779	2447.30
644	2023.19	325732.89	712	2236.81	398152.89	780	2450.44
645	2026.33	326745.27	713	2239.96	399272.08	781	2453.58
646	2029.47	327759.22	714	2243.10	400392.84	782	2456.73
647	2032.61	328774.74	715	2246.24	401515.18	783	2459.87
648	2035.75	329791.83	716	2249.38	402639.08	784	2463.01
649	2038.89	330810.49	717	2252.52	403764.50	785	2466.15
650	2042.04	331830.72	718	2255.66	404891.60	786	2469.29
651	2045.18	332852.53	719	2258.81	406020.22	787	2472.43
652	2048.32	333875.90	720	2261.95	407150.41	788	2475.58
653	2051.46	334900.85	721	2265.09	408282.17	789	2478.72
654	2054.60	335927.36	722	2268.23	409415.50	790	2481.86
655	2057.74	336955.45	723	2271.37	410550.40	791	2485.00
656	2060.88	337985.10	724	2274.51	411686.87	792	2488.14
657	2064.03	339016.33	725	2277.65	412824.91	793	2491.28
658	2067.17	340049.13	726	2280.80	413964.52	794	2494.42
659	2070.31	341083.50	727	2283.94	415105.71	795	2497.56
660	2073.45	342119.44	728	2287.08	416248.46	796	2500.70
661	2076.59	343156.95	729	2290.22	417392.79	797	2503.84
662	2079.73	344196.00	730	2293.36	418538.69	798	2506.98

REFERENCES AND AREAS OF CIRCLES. 111

Diam.	Circum.	Area.	Diam.	Circum.	Area.
71 $\frac{3}{8}$	224.231	4001.1	79 $\frac{5}{8}$	250.149	4979.5
1 $\frac{1}{8}$	224.624	4015.2	$\frac{3}{4}$	250.542	4995.2
$\frac{5}{8}$	225.017	4029.2	$\frac{7}{8}$	250.935	5010.9
$\frac{3}{4}$	225.409	4043.3	80	251.327	5026.5
$\frac{7}{8}$	225.802	4057.4	$\frac{1}{8}$	251.720	5042.3
72 $\frac{1}{8}$	226.195	4071.5	$\frac{3}{8}$	252.113	5058.0
$\frac{1}{4}$	226.587	4085.7	$\frac{5}{8}$	252.506	5073.8
$\frac{3}{8}$	226.980	4099.8	$\frac{7}{8}$	252.898	5089.6
$\frac{1}{2}$	227.373	4114.0	$\frac{3}{4}$	253.291	5105.4
$\frac{5}{8}$	227.765	4128.2	$\frac{7}{8}$	253.684	5121.2
$\frac{3}{4}$	228.158	4142.3	81 $\frac{1}{8}$	254.076	5137.1
$\frac{7}{8}$	228.551	4156.8	$\frac{3}{8}$	254.469	5153.0
73 $\frac{1}{8}$	228.944	4171.1	$\frac{1}{4}$	254.862	5168.9
$\frac{1}{4}$	229.336	4185.4	$\frac{3}{4}$	255.254	5184.9
$\frac{3}{8}$	229.729	4199.7	$\frac{5}{8}$	255.647	5200.8
$\frac{1}{2}$	230.122	4214.1	$\frac{7}{8}$	256.040	5216.8
$\frac{3}{4}$	230.514	4228.5	$\frac{1}{8}$	256.433	5232.8
$\frac{5}{8}$	230.907	4242.9	$\frac{3}{8}$	256.825	5248.9
$\frac{7}{8}$	231.300	4257.4	$\frac{1}{2}$	257.218	5264.9
74 $\frac{1}{8}$	231.692	4271.8	82 $\frac{1}{8}$	257.611	5281.0
$\frac{1}{4}$	232.085	4286.3	$\frac{3}{8}$	258.003	5297.1
$\frac{3}{8}$	232.478	4300.8	$\frac{1}{4}$	258.396	5313.3
$\frac{1}{2}$	232.871	4315.4	$\frac{3}{8}$	258.789	5329.4
$\frac{3}{4}$	233.263	4329.9	$\frac{5}{8}$	259.181	5345.6
$\frac{7}{8}$	233.656	4344.5	$\frac{1}{2}$	259.574	5361.8
75 $\frac{1}{8}$	234.049	4359.2	$\frac{3}{8}$	259.967	5378.1
$\frac{1}{4}$	234.441	4373.8	$\frac{5}{8}$	260.359	5394.3
$\frac{3}{8}$	234.834	4388.5	$\frac{7}{8}$	260.752	5410.6
$\frac{1}{2}$	235.227	4403.1	$\frac{1}{8}$	261.145	5426.9
$\frac{3}{4}$	235.619	4417.9	$\frac{1}{4}$	261.538	5443.3
$\frac{5}{8}$	236.012	4432.6	$\frac{3}{8}$	261.930	5459.6
$\frac{7}{8}$	236.405	4447.4	$\frac{1}{2}$	262.323	5476.0
76 $\frac{1}{8}$	236.798	4462.2	$\frac{3}{8}$	262.716	5492.4
$\frac{1}{4}$	237.190	4477.0	$\frac{5}{8}$	263.108	5508.8
$\frac{3}{8}$	237.583	4491.8	$\frac{7}{8}$	263.501	5525.3
$\frac{1}{2}$	237.976	4506.7	84 $\frac{1}{8}$	263.894	5541.8
$\frac{3}{4}$	238.368	4521.5	$\frac{3}{8}$	264.286	5558.3
$\frac{5}{8}$	238.761	4536.5	$\frac{1}{4}$	264.679	5574.8
$\frac{7}{8}$	239.154	4551.4	$\frac{3}{8}$	265.072	5591.4
77 $\frac{1}{8}$	239.546	4566.4	$\frac{1}{2}$	265.465	5607.9
$\frac{1}{4}$	239.939	4581.3	$\frac{3}{8}$	265.857	5624.5
$\frac{3}{8}$	240.332	4596.3	$\frac{5}{8}$	266.250	5641.2
$\frac{1}{2}$	240.725	4611.4	$\frac{7}{8}$	266.643	5657.8
$\frac{3}{4}$	241.117	4626.4	85 $\frac{1}{8}$	267.035	5674.5
$\frac{5}{8}$	241.510	4641.5	$\frac{3}{8}$	267.428	5691.2
$\frac{7}{8}$	241.903	4656.6	$\frac{1}{4}$	267.821	5707.9
78 $\frac{1}{8}$	242.295	4671.8	$\frac{3}{8}$	268.213	5724.7
$\frac{1}{4}$	242.688	4686.9	$\frac{5}{8}$	268.606	5741.5
$\frac{3}{8}$	243.081	4702.1	$\frac{7}{8}$	268.999	5758.3
$\frac{1}{2}$	243.473	4717.3	$\frac{1}{2}$	269.392	5775.1
$\frac{3}{4}$	243.866	4732.5	$\frac{3}{4}$	269.784	5791.9
$\frac{5}{8}$	244.259	4747.8	$\frac{7}{8}$	270.177	5808.8
$\frac{7}{8}$	244.652	4763.1	86 $\frac{1}{8}$	270.570	5825.7
79 $\frac{1}{8}$	245.044	4778.4	$\frac{3}{8}$	270.962	5842.6
$\frac{1}{4}$	245.437	4793.7	$\frac{5}{8}$	271.355	5859.6
$\frac{3}{8}$	245.830	4809.0	$\frac{7}{8}$	271.748	5876.5
$\frac{1}{2}$	246.222	4824.4	$\frac{1}{2}$	272.140	5893.5
$\frac{3}{4}$	246.615	4839.8	$\frac{3}{4}$	272.533	5910.6
$\frac{5}{8}$	247.008	4855.2	$\frac{7}{8}$	272.926	5927.6
$\frac{7}{8}$	247.400	4870.7	87 $\frac{1}{8}$	273.319	5944.7
80 $\frac{1}{8}$	247.793	4886.2	$\frac{3}{8}$	273.711	5961.8
$\frac{1}{4}$	248.186	4901.7	$\frac{5}{8}$	274.104	5978.9
$\frac{3}{8}$	248.579	4917.2	$\frac{7}{8}$	274.497	5996.0
$\frac{1}{2}$	248.971	4932.7	$\frac{1}{2}$	274.889	6013.2
$\frac{3}{4}$	249.364	4948.3	$\frac{3}{4}$	275.282	6030.4
$\frac{5}{8}$	249.757	4963.9	$\frac{7}{8}$	275.675	6047.6

CIRCUMFERENCES AND AREAS OF CIRCLES
Advancing by Eighths.

Diam.	Circum.	Area.	Diam.	Circum.	Area.	Diam.	Circum.
1/64	.04909	.00019	2 3/8	7.4619	4.4301	6 1/8	19.4
1/32	.09818	.00077	7/16	7.6576	4.6664	1 1/4	19.4
3/64	.14726	.00173	1/8	7.8540	4.9087	9/8	20.1
1/16	.19635	.00307	9/16	8.0503	5.1572	1/2	20.4
3/32	.29452	.00690	5/8	8.2467	5.4119	1/2	20.1
1/8	.39270	.01227	11/16	8.4430	5.6727	3/4	21
5/32	.49087	.01917	3/4	8.6394	5.9396	7/8	21
3/16	.58905	.02761	13/16	8.8357	6.2126	7.	21
7/32	.68722	.03758	3/8	9.0321	6.4918	1/8	22
1/4	.78540	.04909	15/16	9.2284	6.7771	1/8	22
9/32	.88357	.06213	3.	9.4248	7.0686	1/8	22
5/16	.98175	.07670	1/10	9.6211	7.3662	1/8	22
11/32	1.0799	.09281	1/8	9.8175	7.6699	1/8	24
3/8	1.1781	.11045	3/16	10.014	7.9798	1/8	24
13/32	1.2763	.12962	1/4	10.210	8.2958	1/8	25
7/16	1.3744	.15033	5/16	10.407	8.6179	1/8	25
15/32	1.4726	.17257	3/8	10.603	8.9462	1/8	25
1/2	1.5708	.19635	7/16	10.799	9.2806	1/8	26
17/32	1.6690	.22166	1/2	10.996	9.6211	1/8	26
9/16	1.7671	.24850	9/16	11.192	9.9678	1/8	27
19/32	1.8653	.27688	5/8	11.388	10.321	1/8	27
3/4	1.9635	.30680	3/4	11.585	10.680	1/8	27
21/32	2.0617	.33824	7/8	11.781	11.045	1/8	28
11/16	2.1598	.37122	13/16	11.977	11.416	1/8	28
23/32	2.2580	.40574	15/16	12.174	11.798	1/8	29
3/4	2.3562	.44179	1.	12.370	12.177	1/8	29
25/32	2.4544	.47937	1/16	12.566	12.566	1/8	30
13/16	2.5525	.51849	1/8	12.769	12.962	1/8	30
27/32	2.6507	.55914	3/16	12.959	13.364	1/8	31
3/8	2.7489	.60132	1/4	13.155	13.772	1/8	31
29/32	2.8471	.64504	5/16	13.352	14.186	1/8	31
15/16	2.9452	.69029	3/8	13.548	14.607	1/8	31
31/32	3.0434	.73708	7/16	13.744	15.033	1/8	32
1.	3.1416	.7854	9/16	13.941	15.466	1/8	32
1/16	3.2379	.8866	1/2	14.137	15.904	1/8	32
1/8	3.3343	.9940	3/4	14.334	16.349	1/8	33
3/16	3.4306	1.1075	5/8	14.530	16.800	1/8	33
1/4	3.5270	1.2272	7/8	14.726	17.257	1/8	34
5/16	4.1293	1.3530	15/16	14.923	17.728	1/8	34
3/8	4.3197	1.4849	1.	15.119	18.190	1/8	35
7/16	4.5100	1.6230	1/16	15.315	18.655	1/8	35
1/2	4.7124	1.7671	1/8	15.512	19.127	1/8	36
9/16	4.9087	1.9175	3/16	15.708	19.605	1/8	36
5/8	5.1051	2.0739	1/4	15.904	20.089	1/8	36
11/16	5.3014	2.2365	5/16	16.101	20.629	1/8	36
3/4	5.4978	2.4053	3/8	16.297	21.135	1/8	37
13/16	5.6941	2.5802	7/16	16.493	21.648	1/8	37
5/8	5.8905	2.7612	9/16	16.689	22.166	1/8	38
15/16	6.0868	2.9483	1.	16.886	22.691	1/8	38
6.	6.2832	3.1416	1/16	17.082	23.221	1/8	38
7.	6.4796	3.3710	1/8	17.279	23.758	1/8	39
8.	6.6760	3.6008	3/16	17.475	24.301	1/8	39
9.	6.8724	3.8310	1/4	17.671	24.850	1/8	40
10.	7.0688	4.0616	5/16	17.868	25.406	1/8	40
11.	7.2652	4.2926	3/8	18.064	25.967	1/8	40
12.	7.4616	4.5239	7/16	18.261	26.535	1/8	41
13.	7.6580	4.7555	9/16	18.457	27.109	1/8	41
14.	7.8544	4.9874	1.	18.653	27.688	1/8	42
15.	8.0508	5.2196	1/16	18.850	28.274	1/8	42

CIRCUMFERENCES AND AREAS OF CIRCLES. 109

Circum.	Area.	Diam.	Circum.	Area.	Diam.	Circum.	Area.
42.804	145.80	21 ⁷ / ₈	68.732	375.83	30 ¹ / ₈	94.640	712.76
43.197	148.49	22	69.115	380.13	30 ¹ / ₄	95.033	718.69
43.590	151.20	22 ¹ / ₄	69.508	384.46	30 ¹ / ₂	95.426	724.64
43.982	153.94	22 ¹ / ₂	69.900	388.82	30 ³ / ₄	95.819	730.62
44.375	156.70	22 ³ / ₄	70.293	393.20	31	96.211	736.62
44.768	159.48	23	70.686	397.61	31 ¹ / ₈	96.604	742.64
45.160	162.30	23 ¹ / ₄	71.079	402.04	31 ¹ / ₄	96.997	748.69
45.553	165.13	23 ¹ / ₂	71.471	406.49	31 ¹ / ₂	97.389	754.77
45.946	167.99	23 ³ / ₄	71.864	410.97	31 ³ / ₄	97.782	760.87
46.338	170.87	24	72.257	415.48	31 ⁷ / ₈	98.175	766.99
46.731	173.78	24 ¹ / ₄	72.649	420.00	31 ¹ / ₂	98.567	773.14
47.124	176.71	24 ¹ / ₂	73.042	424.56	31 ³ / ₄	98.960	779.31
47.517	179.67	24 ³ / ₄	73.435	429.13	31 ⁷ / ₈	99.353	785.51
47.909	182.65	24 ⁷ / ₈	73.827	433.74	32	99.746	791.73
48.302	185.66	25	74.220	438.36	32 ¹ / ₈	100.138	797.98
48.695	188.69	25 ¹ / ₄	74.613	443.01	32 ¹ / ₄	100.531	804.25
49.087	191.75	25 ¹ / ₂	75.006	447.69	32 ¹ / ₂	100.924	810.54
49.480	194.83	25 ³ / ₄	75.398	452.39	32 ³ / ₄	101.316	816.86
49.873	197.93	25 ⁷ / ₈	75.791	457.11	33	101.709	823.21
50.265	201.06	26	76.184	461.86	33 ¹ / ₈	102.102	829.58
50.658	204.22	26 ¹ / ₄	76.576	466.64	33 ¹ / ₄	102.494	835.97
51.051	207.39	26 ¹ / ₂	76.969	471.44	33 ¹ / ₂	102.887	842.39
51.444	210.60	26 ³ / ₄	77.362	476.26	33 ³ / ₄	103.280	848.83
51.836	213.82	26 ⁷ / ₈	77.754	481.11	34	103.673	855.30
52.229	217.08	27	78.147	485.98	34 ¹ / ₈	104.065	861.79
52.622	220.35	27 ¹ / ₄	78.540	490.87	34 ¹ / ₄	104.458	868.31
53.014	223.65	27 ¹ / ₂	78.933	495.79	34 ¹ / ₂	104.851	874.85
53.407	226.98	27 ³ / ₄	79.325	500.74	34 ³ / ₄	105.243	881.41
53.800	230.33	27 ⁷ / ₈	79.718	505.71	34 ⁷ / ₈	105.636	888.00
54.192	233.71	28	80.111	510.71	35	106.029	894.62
54.585	237.10	28 ¹ / ₄	80.503	515.72	35 ¹ / ₈	106.421	901.26
54.978	240.53	28 ¹ / ₂	80.896	520.77	35 ¹ / ₄	106.814	907.92
55.371	243.98	28 ³ / ₄	81.289	525.84	35 ¹ / ₂	107.207	914.61
55.763	247.45	28 ⁷ / ₈	81.681	530.93	35 ³ / ₄	107.600	921.32
56.156	250.95	29	82.074	536.05	35 ⁷ / ₈	107.992	928.06
56.549	254.47	29 ¹ / ₄	82.467	541.19	35 ¹ / ₂	108.385	934.82
56.941	258.02	29 ¹ / ₂	82.860	546.35	35 ³ / ₄	108.778	941.61
57.334	261.59	29 ³ / ₄	83.252	551.55	35 ⁷ / ₈	109.170	948.42
57.727	265.18	29 ⁷ / ₈	83.645	556.76	36	109.563	955.25
58.119	268.80	30	84.038	562.00	36 ¹ / ₈	109.956	962.11
58.512	272.45	30 ¹ / ₄	84.430	567.27	36 ¹ / ₄	110.348	969.00
58.905	276.12	30 ¹ / ₂	84.823	572.56	36 ¹ / ₂	110.741	975.91
59.298	279.81	30 ³ / ₄	85.216	577.87	36 ³ / ₄	111.134	982.84
59.690	283.53	30 ⁷ / ₈	85.608	583.21	36 ⁷ / ₈	111.527	989.80
60.083	287.27	31	86.001	588.57	36 ¹ / ₂	111.919	996.78
60.476	291.04	31 ¹ / ₄	86.394	593.96	36 ¹ / ₄	112.312	1003.8
60.868	294.83	31 ¹ / ₂	86.786	599.37	36 ³ / ₄	112.705	1010.8
61.261	298.65	31 ³ / ₄	87.179	604.81	36 ⁷ / ₈	113.097	1017.9
61.654	302.49	31 ⁷ / ₈	87.572	610.27	37	113.490	1025.0
62.046	306.35	32	87.965	615.75	37 ¹ / ₈	113.883	1032.1
62.439	310.24	32 ¹ / ₄	88.357	621.26	37 ¹ / ₄	114.275	1039.2
62.832	314.16	32 ¹ / ₂	88.750	626.80	37 ¹ / ₂	114.668	1046.3
63.225	318.10	32 ³ / ₄	89.143	632.36	37 ³ / ₄	115.061	1053.5
63.617	322.06	32 ⁷ / ₈	89.535	637.94	37 ⁷ / ₈	115.454	1060.7
64.010	326.05	33	89.928	643.55	37 ¹ / ₂	115.846	1068.0
64.403	330.06	33 ¹ / ₄	90.321	649.18	37 ¹ / ₄	116.239	1075.2
64.795	334.10	33 ¹ / ₂	90.713	654.84	37 ³ / ₄	116.632	1082.5
65.188	338.16	33 ³ / ₄	91.106	660.52	37 ⁷ / ₈	117.024	1089.8
65.581	342.25	33 ⁷ / ₈	91.499	666.23	38	117.417	1097.1
65.973	346.36	34	91.892	671.96	38 ¹ / ₈	117.810	1104.5
66.366	350.50	34 ¹ / ₄	92.284	677.71	38 ¹ / ₄	118.202	1111.8
66.759	354.66	34 ¹ / ₂	92.677	683.49	38 ¹ / ₂	118.596	1119.2
67.152	358.84	34 ³ / ₄	93.070	689.30	38 ³ / ₄	118.988	1126.7
67.545	363.05	34 ⁷ / ₈	93.462	695.13	38 ⁷ / ₈	119.381	1134.2
67.937	367.28	35	93.855	700.98	38 ¹ / ₂	119.773	1141.8
68.330	371.54	35 ¹ / ₄	94.248	706.86	38 ¹ / ₄	120.165	1149.4

Diam.	Circum.	Area.	Diam.	Circum.	Area.	Diam.	Circum.
38 $\frac{36}{8}$	120.559	1156.6	46 $\frac{56}{8}$	146.477	1707.4	54 $\frac{56}{8}$	172.2
$\frac{38}{8}$	120.951	1164.2	$\frac{46}{8}$	146.869	1716.5	55 $\frac{56}{8}$	173.2
$\frac{38}{8}$	121.344	1171.7	$\frac{46}{8}$	147.262	1725.7	$\frac{54}{8}$	173.3
$\frac{38}{8}$	121.737	1179.3	47 $\frac{56}{8}$	147.655	1734.9	$\frac{54}{8}$	173.4
$\frac{38}{8}$	122.129	1186.9	$\frac{46}{8}$	148.048	1744.2	$\frac{54}{8}$	173.5
39 $\frac{36}{8}$	122.522	1194.6	$\frac{46}{8}$	148.440	1753.5	$\frac{54}{8}$	173.6
$\frac{38}{8}$	122.915	1202.3	$\frac{46}{8}$	148.833	1762.7	$\frac{54}{8}$	173.7
$\frac{38}{8}$	123.308	1210.0	$\frac{46}{8}$	149.226	1772.1	$\frac{54}{8}$	173.8
$\frac{38}{8}$	123.700	1217.7	$\frac{46}{8}$	149.618	1781.4	$\frac{54}{8}$	173.9
$\frac{38}{8}$	124.093	1225.4	$\frac{46}{8}$	150.011	1790.8	56 $\frac{56}{8}$	174.0
$\frac{38}{8}$	124.486	1233.2	$\frac{46}{8}$	150.404	1800.1	$\frac{54}{8}$	174.1
$\frac{38}{8}$	124.878	1241.0	48 $\frac{56}{8}$	150.796	1809.6	$\frac{54}{8}$	174.2
$\frac{38}{8}$	125.271	1248.8	$\frac{46}{8}$	151.189	1819.0	$\frac{54}{8}$	174.3
40 $\frac{36}{8}$	125.664	1256.6	$\frac{46}{8}$	151.582	1828.5	$\frac{54}{8}$	174.4
$\frac{38}{8}$	126.056	1264.5	$\frac{46}{8}$	151.975	1837.9	$\frac{54}{8}$	174.5
$\frac{38}{8}$	126.449	1272.4	$\frac{46}{8}$	152.367	1847.5	$\frac{54}{8}$	174.6
$\frac{38}{8}$	126.842	1280.3	$\frac{46}{8}$	152.760	1857.0	$\frac{54}{8}$	174.7
$\frac{38}{8}$	127.235	1288.2	$\frac{46}{8}$	153.153	1866.5	57 $\frac{56}{8}$	174.8
$\frac{38}{8}$	127.627	1296.2	$\frac{46}{8}$	153.545	1876.1	$\frac{54}{8}$	174.9
$\frac{38}{8}$	128.020	1304.2	49 $\frac{56}{8}$	153.938	1885.7	$\frac{54}{8}$	175.0
$\frac{38}{8}$	128.413	1312.2	$\frac{46}{8}$	154.331	1895.4	$\frac{54}{8}$	180.0
41 $\frac{36}{8}$	128.805	1320.3	$\frac{46}{8}$	154.723	1905.0	$\frac{54}{8}$	180.1
$\frac{38}{8}$	129.198	1328.3	$\frac{46}{8}$	155.116	1914.7	$\frac{54}{8}$	181.1
$\frac{38}{8}$	129.591	1336.4	$\frac{46}{8}$	155.509	1924.4	$\frac{54}{8}$	181.2
$\frac{38}{8}$	129.983	1344.5	$\frac{46}{8}$	155.902	1934.2	$\frac{54}{8}$	181.3
$\frac{38}{8}$	130.376	1352.7	$\frac{46}{8}$	156.294	1943.9	58 $\frac{56}{8}$	181.4
$\frac{38}{8}$	130.769	1360.8	$\frac{46}{8}$	156.687	1953.7	$\frac{54}{8}$	181.5
$\frac{38}{8}$	131.161	1369.0	50 $\frac{56}{8}$	157.080	1963.5	$\frac{54}{8}$	181.6
$\frac{38}{8}$	131.554	1377.2	$\frac{46}{8}$	157.472	1973.3	$\frac{54}{8}$	181.7
42 $\frac{36}{8}$	131.947	1385.4	$\frac{46}{8}$	157.865	1983.2	$\frac{54}{8}$	181.8
$\frac{38}{8}$	132.340	1393.7	$\frac{46}{8}$	158.258	1993.1	$\frac{54}{8}$	181.9
$\frac{38}{8}$	132.732	1402.0	$\frac{46}{8}$	158.650	2003.0	$\frac{54}{8}$	182.0
$\frac{38}{8}$	133.125	1410.3	$\frac{46}{8}$	159.043	2012.9	$\frac{54}{8}$	182.1
$\frac{38}{8}$	133.518	1418.6	$\frac{46}{8}$	159.436	2022.8	59 $\frac{56}{8}$	182.2
$\frac{38}{8}$	133.910	1427.0	$\frac{46}{8}$	159.829	2032.8	$\frac{54}{8}$	182.3
$\frac{38}{8}$	134.303	1435.4	$\frac{46}{8}$	160.221	2042.8	$\frac{54}{8}$	182.4
43 $\frac{36}{8}$	134.696	1443.8	51 $\frac{56}{8}$	160.614	2052.8	$\frac{54}{8}$	182.5
$\frac{38}{8}$	135.088	1452.2	$\frac{46}{8}$	161.007	2062.9	$\frac{54}{8}$	182.6
$\frac{38}{8}$	135.481	1460.7	$\frac{46}{8}$	161.399	2073.0	$\frac{54}{8}$	182.7
$\frac{38}{8}$	135.874	1469.1	$\frac{46}{8}$	161.792	2083.1	$\frac{54}{8}$	182.8
$\frac{38}{8}$	136.267	1477.6	$\frac{46}{8}$	162.185	2093.2	$\frac{54}{8}$	182.9
$\frac{38}{8}$	136.659	1486.2	$\frac{46}{8}$	162.577	2103.3	60 $\frac{56}{8}$	183.0
$\frac{38}{8}$	137.052	1494.7	$\frac{46}{8}$	162.970	2113.5	$\frac{54}{8}$	183.1
$\frac{38}{8}$	137.445	1503.3	52 $\frac{56}{8}$	163.363	2123.7	$\frac{54}{8}$	183.2
$\frac{38}{8}$	137.837	1511.9	$\frac{46}{8}$	163.756	2133.9	$\frac{54}{8}$	183.3
44 $\frac{36}{8}$	138.230	1520.5	$\frac{46}{8}$	164.148	2144.2	$\frac{54}{8}$	183.4
$\frac{38}{8}$	138.623	1529.2	$\frac{46}{8}$	164.541	2154.5	$\frac{54}{8}$	183.5
$\frac{38}{8}$	139.015	1537.9	$\frac{46}{8}$	164.934	2164.8	$\frac{54}{8}$	183.6
$\frac{38}{8}$	139.408	1546.6	$\frac{46}{8}$	165.326	2175.1	$\frac{54}{8}$	183.7
$\frac{38}{8}$	139.801	1555.3	$\frac{46}{8}$	165.719	2185.4	61 $\frac{56}{8}$	183.8
$\frac{38}{8}$	140.194	1564.0	$\frac{46}{8}$	166.112	2195.8	$\frac{54}{8}$	183.9
$\frac{38}{8}$	140.586	1572.8	53 $\frac{56}{8}$	166.504	2206.2	$\frac{54}{8}$	184.0
$\frac{38}{8}$	140.979	1581.6	$\frac{46}{8}$	166.897	2216.6	$\frac{54}{8}$	184.1
45 $\frac{36}{8}$	141.372	1590.4	$\frac{46}{8}$	167.290	2227.0	$\frac{54}{8}$	184.2
$\frac{38}{8}$	141.764	1599.3	$\frac{46}{8}$	167.683	2237.5	$\frac{54}{8}$	184.3
$\frac{38}{8}$	142.157	1608.2	$\frac{46}{8}$	168.075	2248.0	$\frac{54}{8}$	184.4
$\frac{38}{8}$	142.550	1617.0	$\frac{46}{8}$	168.468	2258.5	$\frac{54}{8}$	184.5
$\frac{38}{8}$	142.942	1626.0	$\frac{46}{8}$	168.861	2269.1	62 $\frac{56}{8}$	184.6
$\frac{38}{8}$	143.335	1634.9	$\frac{46}{8}$	169.253	2279.6	$\frac{54}{8}$	184.7
$\frac{38}{8}$	143.728	1643.9	$\frac{46}{8}$	169.646	2290.2	$\frac{54}{8}$	184.8
$\frac{38}{8}$	144.121	1652.9	54 $\frac{56}{8}$	170.039	2300.8	$\frac{54}{8}$	184.9
$\frac{38}{8}$	144.513	1661.9	$\frac{46}{8}$	170.431	2311.5	$\frac{54}{8}$	185.0
$\frac{38}{8}$			$\frac{46}{8}$	170.824	2322.1	$\frac{54}{8}$	185.1
			$\frac{46}{8}$	171.217	2332.8	$\frac{54}{8}$	185.2
			$\frac{46}{8}$	171.609	2343.5	$\frac{54}{8}$	185.3
			$\frac{46}{8}$	172.002	2354.3	63 $\frac{56}{8}$	185.4

Area.	Diam.	Circum.	Area.	Diam.	Circum.	Area.
129.6	71 $\frac{3}{8}$	224.231	4001.1	79 $\frac{5}{8}$	250.149	4079.5
142.0	71 $\frac{1}{2}$	224.634	4015.2	79 $\frac{3}{4}$	250.542	4095.2
154.5	71 $\frac{5}{8}$	225.017	4029.2	79 $\frac{1}{2}$	250.935	5010.9
166.9	71 $\frac{3}{4}$	225.400	4043.3	80	251.327	5026.5
179.4	71 $\frac{7}{8}$	225.802	4057.4	1 $\frac{1}{8}$	251.720	5042.3
191.9	72	226.196	4071.5	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	252.113	5058.0
204.4	1 $\frac{1}{8}$	226.587	4085.7	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	252.506	5073.8
217.0	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	226.980	4099.8	1 $\frac{3}{8}$	252.898	5089.6
229.6	1 $\frac{3}{8}$	227.373	4114.0	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	253.291	5105.4
242.2	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	227.765	4128.2	1 $\frac{5}{8}$	253.684	5121.2
254.8	1 $\frac{3}{4}$	228.158	4142.5	1 $\frac{7}{8}$	254.076	5137.1
267.5	1 $\frac{7}{8}$	228.551	4156.8	81	254.469	5153.0
280.1	72	228.944	4171.1	1 $\frac{1}{8}$	254.862	5168.9
292.8	73	229.336	4185.4	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	255.254	5184.9
305.6	1 $\frac{1}{8}$	229.729	4199.7	1 $\frac{3}{8}$	255.647	5200.8
318.3	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	230.122	4214.1	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	256.040	5216.8
331.1	1 $\frac{3}{8}$	230.514	4228.5	1 $\frac{5}{8}$	256.433	5232.8
343.9	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	230.907	4242.9	1 $\frac{7}{8}$	256.825	5248.9
356.7	1 $\frac{3}{4}$	231.300	4257.4	82	257.218	5264.9
369.6	1 $\frac{7}{8}$	231.692	4271.8	1 $\frac{1}{8}$	257.611	5281.0
382.4	74	232.085	4286.3	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	258.003	5297.1
395.3	1 $\frac{1}{8}$	232.478	4300.8	1 $\frac{3}{8}$	258.396	5313.3
408.2	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	232.871	4315.4	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	258.789	5329.4
421.2	1 $\frac{3}{8}$	233.263	4329.9	1 $\frac{5}{8}$	259.181	5345.6
434.2	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	233.656	4344.5	1 $\frac{7}{8}$	259.574	5361.8
447.2	1 $\frac{3}{4}$	234.049	4359.2	83	259.967	5378.1
460.2	1 $\frac{7}{8}$	234.441	4373.8	1 $\frac{1}{8}$	260.359	5394.3
473.2	75	234.834	4388.5	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	260.752	5410.6
486.3	1 $\frac{1}{8}$	235.227	4403.1	1 $\frac{3}{8}$	261.145	5426.9
499.4	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	235.619	4417.9	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	261.538	5443.3
512.5	1 $\frac{3}{8}$	236.012	4432.6	1 $\frac{5}{8}$	261.930	5459.6
525.7	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	236.405	4447.4	1 $\frac{7}{8}$	262.323	5476.0
538.8	1 $\frac{3}{4}$	236.798	4462.2	84	262.716	5492.4
552.0	1 $\frac{7}{8}$	237.190	4477.0	1 $\frac{1}{8}$	263.108	5508.8
565.2	76	237.583	4491.8	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	263.501	5525.3
578.5	1 $\frac{1}{8}$	237.976	4506.7	1 $\frac{3}{8}$	263.894	5541.8
591.7	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	238.368	4521.5	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	264.286	5558.3
605.0	1 $\frac{3}{8}$	238.761	4536.5	1 $\frac{5}{8}$	264.679	5574.8
618.3	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	239.154	4551.4	1 $\frac{7}{8}$	265.072	5591.4
631.7	1 $\frac{3}{4}$	239.546	4566.4	85	265.465	5607.9
645.0	1 $\frac{7}{8}$	239.939	4581.3	1 $\frac{1}{8}$	265.857	5624.5
658.4	77	240.332	4596.3	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	266.250	5641.2
671.8	1 $\frac{1}{8}$	240.725	4611.4	1 $\frac{3}{8}$	266.643	5657.8
685.3	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	241.117	4626.4	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	267.035	5674.5
698.7	1 $\frac{3}{8}$	241.510	4641.5	1 $\frac{5}{8}$	267.428	5691.2
712.2	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	241.903	4656.6	1 $\frac{7}{8}$	267.821	5707.9
725.7	1 $\frac{3}{4}$	242.295	4671.8	86	268.213	5724.7
739.3	1 $\frac{7}{8}$	242.688	4686.9	1 $\frac{1}{8}$	268.606	5741.5
752.8	79	243.081	4702.1	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	268.999	5758.3
766.4	1 $\frac{1}{8}$	243.473	4717.3	1 $\frac{3}{8}$	269.392	5775.1
780.0	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	243.866	4732.5	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	269.784	5791.9
793.7	1 $\frac{3}{8}$	244.259	4747.8	1 $\frac{5}{8}$	270.177	5808.8
807.3	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	244.652	4763.1	1 $\frac{7}{8}$	270.570	5825.7
821.0	78	245.044	4778.4	87	270.962	5842.6
834.7	1 $\frac{1}{8}$	245.437	4793.7	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	271.355	5859.6
848.5	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	245.830	4809.0	1 $\frac{3}{8}$	271.748	5876.5
862.2	1 $\frac{3}{8}$	246.222	4824.4	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	272.140	5893.5
876.0	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	246.615	4839.8	1 $\frac{5}{8}$	272.533	5910.6
889.8	1 $\frac{3}{4}$	247.008	4855.2	1 $\frac{7}{8}$	272.926	5927.6
903.6	79	247.400	4870.7	1 $\frac{1}{8}$	273.319	5944.7
917.5	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	247.793	4886.2	1 $\frac{3}{8}$	273.711	5961.8
931.4	1 $\frac{3}{8}$	248.186	4901.7	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	274.104	5978.9
945.3	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	248.579	4917.2	1 $\frac{5}{8}$	274.497	5996.0
959.2	1 $\frac{3}{4}$	248.971	4932.7	88	274.890	6013.1
973.1	1 $\frac{7}{8}$	249.364	4948.3	1 $\frac{1}{8}$	275.282	6030.2
987.1	80	249.757	4963.9	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	275.675	6047.3

Diam.	Circum.	Area.	Diam.	Circum.	Area.	Diam.	Circum.
87 $\frac{7}{8}$	276.067	6064.9	92.	289.027	6647.6	96 $\frac{1}{8}$	301.
88.	276.460	6082.1	$\frac{1}{8}$	289.419	6665.7	$\frac{3}{8}$	302.
$\frac{1}{8}$	276.853	6099.4	$\frac{1}{4}$	289.812	6683.8	$\frac{5}{8}$	303.
$\frac{1}{4}$	277.246	6116.7	$\frac{3}{8}$	290.205	6701.9	$\frac{7}{8}$	303.
$\frac{3}{8}$	277.638	6134.1	$\frac{1}{2}$	290.597	6720.1		303.
$\frac{1}{2}$	278.031	6151.4	$\frac{5}{8}$	290.990	6738.2		303.
$\frac{3}{4}$	278.424	6168.8	$\frac{3}{4}$	291.383	6756.4		304.
$\frac{7}{8}$	278.816	6186.2	$\frac{7}{8}$	291.775	6774.7	97.	304.
	279.209	6203.7	93.	292.168	6792.9	$\frac{1}{8}$	305.
89.	279.602	6221.1	$\frac{1}{8}$	292.561	6811.2	$\frac{3}{8}$	305.
$\frac{1}{8}$	279.994	6238.6	$\frac{1}{4}$	292.954	6829.5	$\frac{5}{8}$	305.
$\frac{1}{4}$	280.387	6256.1	$\frac{3}{8}$	293.346	6847.8	$\frac{7}{8}$	306.
$\frac{3}{8}$	280.780	6273.7	$\frac{1}{2}$	293.739	6866.1		306.
$\frac{1}{2}$	281.173	6291.2	$\frac{5}{8}$	294.132	6884.5		307.
$\frac{3}{4}$	281.565	6308.8	$\frac{3}{4}$	294.524	6902.9		307.
$\frac{7}{8}$	281.958	6326.4	$\frac{7}{8}$	294.917	6921.3	98.	307.
	282.351	6344.1	94.	295.310	6939.8	$\frac{1}{8}$	308.
90.	282.743	6361.7	$\frac{1}{8}$	295.702	6958.2	$\frac{3}{8}$	308.
$\frac{1}{8}$	283.136	6379.4	$\frac{1}{4}$	296.095	6976.7	$\frac{5}{8}$	309.
$\frac{1}{4}$	283.529	6397.1	$\frac{3}{8}$	296.488	6995.3	$\frac{7}{8}$	309.
$\frac{3}{8}$	283.921	6414.9	$\frac{1}{2}$	296.881	7013.8		309.
$\frac{1}{2}$	284.314	6432.6	$\frac{5}{8}$	297.273	7032.4		310.
$\frac{3}{4}$	284.707	6450.4	$\frac{3}{4}$	297.666	7051.0		310.
$\frac{7}{8}$	285.100	6468.2	$\frac{7}{8}$	298.059	7069.6	99.	311.
	285.492	6486.0	95.	298.451	7088.2	$\frac{1}{8}$	311.
91.	285.885	6503.9	$\frac{1}{8}$	298.844	7106.9	$\frac{3}{8}$	311.
$\frac{1}{8}$	286.278	6521.8	$\frac{1}{4}$	299.237	7125.6	$\frac{5}{8}$	312.
$\frac{1}{4}$	286.670	6539.7	$\frac{3}{8}$	299.629	7144.3	$\frac{7}{8}$	312.
$\frac{3}{8}$	287.063	6557.6	$\frac{1}{2}$	300.022	7163.0		312.
$\frac{1}{2}$	287.456	6575.5	$\frac{5}{8}$	300.415	7181.8		313.
$\frac{3}{4}$	287.848	6593.5	$\frac{3}{4}$	300.807	7200.6		313.
$\frac{7}{8}$	288.241	6611.5	$\frac{7}{8}$	301.200	7219.4	100.	314.
	288.634	6629.6	96.	301.593	7238.2		

**DECIMALS OF A FOOT EQUIVALENT TO
AND FRACTIONS OF AN INCH.**

Inches.	0	$\frac{1}{8}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{3}{8}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{5}{8}$	9
0	0	.01042	.02083	.03125	.04166	.05208	.06
1	.0833	.0937	.1042	.1146	.1250	.1354	.14
2	.1667	.1771	.1875	.1979	.2083	.2188	.22
3	.2500	.2604	.2708	.2813	.2917	.3021	.31
4	.3333	.3437	.3542	.3646	.3750	.3854	.39
5	.4167	.4271	.4375	.4479	.4583	.4688	.47
6	.5000	.5104	.5208	.5313	.5417	.5521	.56
7	.5833	.5937	.6042	.6146	.6250	.6354	.64
8	.6667	.6771	.6875	.6979	.7083	.7188	.72
9	.7500	.7604	.7708	.7813	.7917	.8021	.81
10	.8333	.8437	.8542	.8646	.8750	.8854	.89
11	.9167	.9271	.9375	.9479	.9583	.9688	.97

Versed Sine.	Area.	Versed Sine.	Area.	Versed Sine.	Area.	Versed Sine.	Area.
.313	.21015	.36	.25455	.407	.30024	.454	.34076
.314	.21108	.361	.25551	.408	.30122	.455	.34176
.315	.21201	.362	.25647	.409	.30220	.456	.34275
.316	.21294	.363	.25743	.41	.30319	.457	.34375
.317	.21387	.364	.25839	.411	.30417	.458	.34475
.318	.21480	.365	.25936	.412	.30516	.459	.34575
.319	.21573	.366	.26032	.413	.30614	.46	.34674
.32	.21667	.367	.26128	.414	.30712	.461	.34774
.321	.21760	.368	.26225	.415	.30811	.462	.34874
.322	.21853	.369	.26321	.416	.30910	.463	.34973
.323	.21947	.37	.26418	.417	.31008	.464	.35073
.324	.22040	.371	.26514	.418	.31107	.465	.35173
.325	.22134	.372	.26611	.419	.31205	.466	.35273
.326	.22228	.373	.26708	.42	.31304	.467	.35372
.327	.22322	.374	.26805	.421	.31403	.468	.35472
.328	.22415	.375	.26901	.422	.31502	.469	.35572
.329	.22509	.376	.26998	.423	.31600	.47	.35672
.33	.22603	.377	.27095	.424	.31699	.471	.35772
.331	.22697	.378	.27192	.425	.31798	.472	.35871
.332	.22792	.379	.27289	.426	.31897	.473	.35971
.333	.22886	.38	.27386	.427	.31996	.474	.36071
.334	.22980	.381	.27483	.428	.32095	.475	.36171
.335	.23074	.382	.27580	.429	.32194	.476	.36271
.336	.23169	.383	.27678	.43	.32293	.477	.36371
.337	.23263	.384	.27775	.431	.32392	.478	.36471
.338	.23358	.385	.27872	.432	.32491	.479	.36571
.339	.23453	.386	.27969	.433	.32590	.48	.36670
.34	.23547	.387	.28067	.434	.32689	.481	.36770
.341	.23642	.388	.28164	.435	.32788	.482	.36870
.342	.23737	.389	.28262	.436	.32887	.483	.36970
.343	.23832	.39	.28359	.437	.32987	.484	.37070
.344	.23927	.391	.28457	.438	.33086	.485	.37170
.345	.24022	.392	.28554	.439	.33185	.486	.37270
.346	.24117	.393	.28652	.44	.33284	.487	.37370
.347	.24212	.394	.28750	.441	.33384	.488	.37470
.348	.24307	.395	.28848	.442	.33483	.489	.37570
.349	.24403	.396	.28945	.443	.33582	.49	.37670
.35	.24498	.397	.29043	.444	.33682	.491	.37770
.351	.24593	.398	.29141	.445	.33781	.492	.37870
.352	.24689	.399	.29239	.446	.33880	.493	.37970
.353	.24784	.4	.29337	.447	.33980	.494	.38070
.354	.24880	.401	.29435	.448	.34079	.495	.38170
.355	.24976	.402	.29533	.449	.34179	.496	.38270
.356	.25071	.403	.29631	.45	.34278	.497	.38370
.357	.25167	.404	.29729	.451	.34378	.498	.38470
.358	.25263	.405	.29827	.452	.34477	.499	.38570
.359	.25359	.406	.29926	.453	.34577	.5	.38670

For finding the area of a segment see Mensuration, page 69.

AREAS OF THE SEGMENTS OF A CIRCLE.

(Diameter = 1; Rise or Versed Sine in parts of Diameter being given.)

RULE FOR USE OF THE TABLE.—Divide the rise or height of the segment (the diameter to obtain the versed sine. Multiply the area in the table corresponding to this versed sine by the square of the diameter.

If the segment exceeds a semicircle its area is area of circle—area of segment whose rise is (diam. of circle—rise of segment).

Given chord and rise, to find diameter, Diam. = (square of half chord rise) + rise. The half chord is a mean proportional between the two parts into which the chord divides the diameter which is perpendicular to it.

Versed Sine.	Area.	Versed Sine.	Area.	Versed Sine.	Area.	Versed Sine.	Area.	Versed Sine.	Area.
.001	.00004	.054	.01646	.107	.04514	.16	.08111	.213	.12
.002	.00012	.055	.01691	.108	.04576	.161	.08185	.214	.12
.003	.00029	.056	.01737	.109	.04638	.162	.08258	.215	.12
.004	.00034	.057	.01783	.11	.04701	.163	.08332	.216	.13
.005	.00047	.058	.01830	.111	.04763	.164	.08406	.217	.13
.006	.00062	.059	.01877	.112	.04826	.165	.08480	.218	.13
.007	.00078	.06	.01924	.113	.04889	.166	.08554	.219	.13
.008	.00095	.061	.01972	.114	.04953	.167	.08629	.22	.13
.009	.00113	.062	.02020	.115	.05016	.168	.08704	.221	.13
.01	.00133	.063	.02068	.116	.05080	.169	.08779	.222	.13
.011	.00153	.064	.02117	.117	.05145	.17	.08854	.223	.13
.012	.00175	.065	.02166	.118	.05209	.171	.08929	.224	.13
.013	.00197	.066	.02215	.119	.05274	.172	.09004	.225	.13
.014	.0022	.067	.02265	.12	.05338	.173	.09080	.226	.13
.015	.00244	.068	.02315	.121	.05404	.174	.09155	.227	.13
.016	.00268	.069	.02366	.122	.05469	.175	.09231	.228	.13
.017	.00294	.07	.02417	.123	.05535	.176	.09307	.229	.13
.018	.0032	.071	.02468	.124	.05600	.177	.09384	.23	.13
.019	.00347	.072	.02520	.125	.05666	.178	.09460	.231	.13
.02	.00375	.073	.02571	.126	.05733	.179	.09537	.232	.13
.021	.00403	.074	.02624	.127	.05799	.18	.09613	.233	.13
.022	.00432	.075	.02676	.128	.05866	.181	.09690	.234	.13
.023	.00462	.076	.02729	.129	.05933	.182	.09767	.235	.13
.024	.00492	.077	.02782	.13	.06000	.183	.09845	.236	.13
.025	.00523	.078	.02836	.131	.06067	.184	.09922	.237	.13
.026	.00555	.079	.02889	.132	.06135	.185	.10000	.238	.13
.027	.00587	.08	.02943	.133	.06203	.186	.10077	.239	.13
.028	.00619	.081	.02998	.134	.06271	.187	.10155	.24	.13
.029	.00653	.082	.03053	.135	.06339	.188	.10233	.241	.13
.03	.00687	.083	.03108	.136	.06407	.189	.10312	.242	.13
.031	.00721	.084	.03163	.137	.06476	.19	.10390	.243	.13
.032	.00756	.085	.03219	.138	.06545	.191	.10469	.244	.13
.033	.00791	.086	.03275	.139	.06614	.192	.10547	.245	.13
.034	.00827	.087	.03331	.14	.06683	.193	.10626	.246	.13
.035	.00864	.088	.03387	.141	.06753	.194	.10705	.247	.13
.036	.00901	.089	.03444	.142	.06822	.195	.10784	.248	.13
.037	.00938	.09	.03501	.143	.06892	.196	.10864	.249	.13
.038	.00976	.091	.03559	.144	.06963	.197	.10943	.25	.13
.039	.01015	.092	.03616	.145	.07033	.198	.11023	.251	.13
.04	.01054	.093	.03674	.146	.07103	.199	.11102	.252	.13
.041	.01093	.094	.03732	.147	.07174	.2	.11182	.253	.13
.042	.01133	.095	.03791	.148	.07245	.201	.11262	.254	.13
.043	.01173	.096	.03850	.149	.07316	.202	.11343	.255	.13
.044	.01214	.097	.03909	.15	.07387	.203	.11423	.256	.13
.045	.01255	.098	.03968	.151	.07459	.204	.11504	.257	.13
.046	.01297	.099	.04028	.152	.07531	.205	.11584	.258	.13
.047	.01339	.1	.04087	.153	.07603	.206	.11665	.259	.13
.048	.01382	.101	.04148	.154	.07675	.207	.11746	.26	.13
.049	.01425	.102	.04208	.155	.07747	.208	.11827	.261	.13
.05	.01468	.103	.04269	.156	.07819	.209	.11908	.262	.13
.051	.01512	.104	.04330	.157	.07892	.21	.11990	.263	.13
.052	.01557	.105	.04391	.158	.07965	.211	.12071	.264	.13
.053	.01602	.106	.04452	.159	.08038	.212	.12153	.265	.13

SPHERES—(Continued.)

Diam.	Sur- face.	Solid- ity.	Diam.	Sur- face.	Solid- ity.	Diam.	Sur- face.	Solid- ity.
1590.4	5964.1	40 1/2	5153.1	34783	70 1/2	15615	183471	
1626.0	6165.2	41.	5281.1	36087	71.	15837	187402	
1661.9	6370.6	42.	5410.7	37423	72.	16061	191389	
1698.2	6580.6	43.	5541.9	38792	73.	16286	195433	
1735.0	6795.2	44.	5674.5	40194	74.	16513	199532	
1772.1	7014.3	45.	5808.8	41630	75.	16742	203689	
1809.6	7238.2	46.	5944.7	43099	76.	16972	207908	
1847.5	7466.7	47.	6082.1	44602	77.	17204	212175	
1885.8	7700.1	48.	6221.2	46141	78.	17437	216505	
1924.4	7938.3	49.	6361.7	47713	79.	17672	220894	
1963.3	8181.3	50.	6503.9	49321	80.	17908	225341	
2002.5	8429.2	51.	6647.6	50965	81.	18146	229848	
2042.0	8682.0	52.	6792.9	52645	82.	18386	234414	
2081.7	8939.9	53.	6939.9	54362	83.	18626	239041	
2121.7	9202.8	54.	7088.3	56115	84.	18869	243728	
2161.7	9470.8	55.	7238.3	57906	85.	19114	248475	
2202.0	9744.0	56.	7389.9	59734	86.	19360	253284	
2242.8	10022	57.	7543.1	61601	87.	19607	258155	
2283.8	10306	58.	7697.7	63506	88.	19856	263088	
2324.8	10595	59.	7854.0	65450	89.	20106	268083	
2365.8	10889	60.	8011.8	67433	90.	20358	273141	
2407.0	11189	61.	8171.2	69456	91.	20612	278263	
2448.2	11494	62.	8332.3	71519	92.	20867	283447	
2489.5	11805	63.	8494.8	73622	93.	21124	288696	
2530.9	12121	64.	8658.9	75767	94.	21382	294010	
2572.4	12443	65.	8824.8	77952	95.	21642	299388	
2613.9	12770	66.	8992.0	80178	96.	21904	304831	
2655.5	13103	67.	9160.8	82448	97.	22167	310340	
2697.2	13442	68.	9331.2	84760	98.	22432	315915	
2738.9	13787	69.	9503.2	87114	99.	22698	321556	
2780.7	14137	70.	9676.8	89511		22966	327264	
2822.6	14494		9852.0	91953		23235	333039	
2864.5	14856			10029		23506	338882	
2906.5	15224			10207		23779	344792	
2948.5	15599			10387		24053	350771	
2990.6	15979			10568		24328	356819	
3032.7	16366			10751		24606	362935	
3074.8	16758			10936		24885	369122	
3117.0	17157			11122		25165	375378	
3159.2	17563			11310		25447	381704	
3201.5	17974			11499		25730	388102	
3243.8	18392			11690		26016	394570	
3286.1	18817			11882		26302	401109	
3328.5	19248			12076		26590	407721	
3370.9	19685			12272		26880	414405	
3413.3	20129			12469		27172	421161	
3455.8	20580			12668		27464	427991	
3498.2	21037			12868		27759	434894	
3540.7	21501			13070		28055	441871	
3583.2	22449			13273		28353	448920	
3625.7	23425			13478		28652	456047	
3668.2	24429			13685		28953	463248	
3710.7	25461			13893		29255	470524	
3753.2	26522			14103		29559	477874	
3795.7	27612			14314		29865	485302	
3838.2	28731			14527		30172	492808	
3880.7	29880			14741		30481	500388	
3923.2	31059			14957		30791	508040	
3965.7	32270			15175		31103	515757	
4008.2	33510			15394		31416	523532	

MATHEMATICAL TABLES.

SPHERES.

Some errors of 1 in the last figure only. From TRAUTWINE.)

Sur- face.	Solid- ity.	Diam.	Sur- face.	Solid- ity.	Diam.	Sur- face.	Solid- ity.
.00307	.00002	3 1/4	33.183	17.974	9 7/8	306.38	504.21
.01227	.00013	5-10	34.472	19.031	10	314.16	521.00
.02761	.00043	3/8	35.784	20.129	10 1/8	322.06	528.48
.04909	.00102	7-16	37.122	21.268	10 1/4	330.06	536.88
.07670	.00200	1/2	38.484	22.449	10 1/2	338.16	544.74
.11045	.00345	9-16	39.872	23.674	10 3/8	346.36	553.12
.15033	.00548	5/8	41.283	24.942	10 1/2	354.66	562.04
.19635	.00818	11-16	42.719	26.254	10 5/8	363.05	570.48
.24851	.01165	3/4	44.179	27.611	10 3/4	371.54	579.41
.30680	.01598	13-16	45.664	29.016	11	380.13	588.81
.37123	.02127	7/8	47.173	30.466	11 1/8	388.83	598.52
.44179	.02761	15-16	48.708	31.965	11 1/4	397.61	730.31
.51848	.03511	4.	50.265	33.510	11 1/2	406.49	770.64
.60132	.04385	1/8	53.456	36.751	11 3/8	415.48	796.33
.69028	.05393	1 1/4	56.745	40.195	11 1/2	424.50	822.38
.78540	.06545	3/8	60.133	43.847	11 3/4	433.73	849.49
.99403	.09319	1 1/2	63.617	47.713	11 5/8	443.01	876.79
.2272	.12783	5/8	67.201	51.801	12	452.39	904.78
.4849	.17014	3/4	70.883	56.116	12 1/8	471.44	962.52
.7671	.22089	7/8	74.663	60.663	12 1/4	490.87	1022.7
.0739	.28084	5.	78.540	65.450	12 1/2	510.71	1085.3
.4053	.35077	1/8	82.516	70.482	13	530.93	1150.3
.7611	.43143	1 1/4	86.591	75.767	13 1/8	551.55	1218.0
.1416	.52360	3/8	90.763	81.308	13 1/4	572.55	1288.3
.5466	.62804	1 1/2	95.033	87.113	13 1/2	593.95	1361.2
.9761	.74551	5/8	99.401	93.189	14	615.75	1436.8
.4301	.87681	3/4	103.87	99.541	14 1/8	637.95	1515.1
.9088	1.0247	7/8	108.44	106.18	14 1/4	660.52	1596.3
.4119	1.1839	4.	113.10	113.10	14 1/2	683.49	1680.3
.9396	1.3611	1/8	117.87	120.31	15	706.85	1767.2
.4919	1.5553	1 1/4	122.72	127.83	15 1/8	730.63	1857.0
.0686	1.7671	3/8	127.68	135.66	15 1/4	754.77	1949.8
.6099	1.9974	1 1/2	132.73	143.79	15 1/2	779.32	2044.7
.2957	2.2468	5/8	137.89	152.25	16	804.25	2144.7
.9461	2.5161	3/4	143.14	161.03	16 1/8	829.57	2246.5
.6211	2.8062	7/8	148.49	170.14	16 1/4	855.29	2352.1
.321	3.1177	4.	153.94	179.59	16 1/2	881.42	2460.6
.044	3.4514	1/8	159.49	189.39	17	907.93	2572.4
.793	3.8083	1 1/4	165.13	199.53	17 1/8	934.83	2687.5
.566	4.1888	3/8	170.87	210.03	17 1/4	962.12	2806.2
.364	4.5939	1 1/2	176.71	220.89	17 1/2	989.80	2928.2
.186	5.0243	5/8	182.66	232.13	18	1017.9	3053.6
.033	5.4800	3/4	188.69	243.73	18 1/8	1046.4	3182.6
.904	5.9641	7/8	194.83	255.72	18 1/4	1075.2	3315.3
.800	6.4751	4.	201.06	268.08	18 1/2	1104.5	3451.5
.721	7.0144	1/8	207.39	280.85	19	1134.5	3591.4
.666	7.5829	1 1/4	213.82	294.01	19 1/8	1164.2	3735.0
.635	8.1813	3/8	220.33	307.58	19 1/4	1194.6	3882.5
.629	8.8103	1 1/2	226.98	321.56	19 1/2	1225.4	4033.7
.648	9.4708	5/8	233.71	335.95	20	1256.7	4188.5
.691	10.164	3/4	240.53	350.77	20 1/8	1288.3	4347.5
.758	10.889	7/8	247.45	366.02	20 1/4	1320.3	4510.9
.850	11.649	4.	254.47	381.70	20 1/2	1352.7	4677.9
.967	12.443	1/8	261.50	397.83	21	1385.5	4849.1
.109	13.272	1 1/4	268.51	414.41	21 1/8	1418.6	5024.3
.274	14.137	3/8	275.12	431.44	21 1/4	1452.2	5203.7
.465	15.039	1 1/2	283.33	448.92	21 1/2	1486.2	5387.4
		5/8	291.04	466.87	22	1520.5	5575.3
		3/4	298.65	485.31	1/4	1555.3	5767.3

CYLINDRICAL VESSELS, TANKS, CISTERNS, ETC.
 Diameter in Feet and Inches, Area in Square Feet, and
 U. S. Gallons Capacity for One Foot in Depth.

1 gallon = 231 cubic inches = $\frac{1 \text{ cubic foot}}{7.4805}$ = 0.13368 cubic feet.

Am.	Area.	Gals.	Diam.	Area.	Gals.	Diam.	Area.	Gals.
In.	Sq. ft.	1 foot depth.	Ft. In.	Sq. ft.	1 foot depth.	Ft. In.	Sq. ft.	1 foot depth.
1	.785	5.87	5 8	25.22	188.66	19	283.53	2120.9
2	.922	6.89	5 9	25.97	194.25	19 3	291.04	2177.1
3	1.069	8.00	5 10	26.73	199.92	19 6	298.65	2234.0
4	1.227	9.18	5 11	27.49	205.67	19 9	306.35	2291.7
5	1.396	10.44	6	28.27	211.51	20	314.16	2350.1
6	1.576	11.79	6 3	30.68	229.50	20 3	322.06	2409.2
7	1.767	13.22	6 6	33.18	248.23	20 6	330.06	2469.1
8	1.969	14.73	6 9	35.78	267.69	20 9	338.16	2529.6
9	2.182	16.32	7	38.48	287.88	21	346.36	2591.0
10	2.405	17.99	7 3	41.28	308.81	21 3	354.66	2653.0
11	2.640	19.75	7 6	44.18	330.49	21 6	363.05	2715.8
12	2.885	21.58	7 9	47.17	352.88	21 9	371.54	2779.3
13	3.142	23.50	8	50.27	376.01	22	380.13	2843.6
14	3.409	25.50	8 3	53.46	399.88	22 3	388.82	2908.6
15	3.687	27.58	8 6	56.75	424.49	22 6	397.61	2974.3
16	3.976	29.74	8 9	60.13	449.82	22 9	406.49	3040.8
17	4.276	31.99	9	63.62	475.89	23	415.48	3108.0
18	4.587	34.31	9 3	67.20	502.70	23 3	424.56	3175.9
19	4.900	36.72	9 6	70.88	530.24	23 6	433.74	3244.6
20	5.211	39.21	9 9	74.66	558.51	23 9	443.01	3314.0
21	5.585	41.78	10	78.54	587.52	24	452.39	3384.1
22	5.940	44.43	10 3	82.52	617.29	24 3	461.86	3455.0
23	6.305	47.16	10 6	86.59	647.74	24 6	471.44	3526.6
24	6.681	49.98	10 9	90.76	678.95	24 9	481.11	3598.9
25	7.069	52.88	11	95.03	710.90	25	490.87	3672.0
26	7.467	55.86	11 3	99.40	743.58	25 3	500.74	3745.8
27	7.876	58.92	11 6	103.87	776.99	25 6	510.71	3820.3
28	8.296	62.06	11 9	108.43	811.14	25 9	520.77	3895.6
29	8.727	65.28	12	113.10	846.03	26	530.93	3971.6
30	9.168	68.58	12 3	117.86	881.65	26 3	541.19	4048.4
31	9.621	71.97	12 6	122.72	918.00	26 6	551.55	4125.9
32	10.085	75.44	12 9	127.68	955.09	26 9	562.00	4204.1
33	10.559	78.99	13	132.73	992.91	27	572.56	4283.0
34	11.045	82.62	13 3	137.89	1031.5	27 3	583.21	4362.7
35	11.541	86.33	13 6	143.14	1070.8	27 6	593.96	4443.1
36	12.048	90.13	13 9	148.49	1110.8	27 9	604.81	4524.3
37	12.566	94.00	14	153.94	1151.5	28	615.75	4606.2
38	13.095	97.96	14 3	159.48	1193.0	28 3	626.80	4688.8
39	13.635	102.00	14 6	165.13	1235.3	28 6	637.94	4772.1
40	14.186	106.12	14 9	170.87	1278.2	28 9	649.18	4856.2
41	14.748	110.32	15	176.71	1321.9	29	660.52	4941.0
42	15.321	114.61	15 3	182.65	1366.4	29 3	671.96	5026.6
43	15.90	118.97	15 6	188.69	1411.5	29 6	683.49	5112.9
44	16.50	123.42	15 9	194.83	1457.4	29 9	695.13	5199.9
45	17.10	127.95	16	201.06	1504.1	30	706.86	5287.7
46	17.72	132.56	16 3	207.39	1551.4	30 3	718.69	5376.2
47	18.35	137.25	16 6	213.82	1599.5	30 6	730.62	5465.4
48	18.99	142.02	16 9	220.35	1648.4	30 9	742.64	5555.4
49	19.63	146.88	17	226.98	1697.9	31	754.75	5646.1
50	20.29	151.82	17 3	233.71	1748.2	31 3	766.99	5737.5
51	20.97	156.83	17 6	240.53	1799.3	31 6	779.31	5829.7
52	21.65	161.93	17 9	247.45	1851.1	31 9	791.73	5922.6
53	22.34	167.12	18	254.47	1903.6	32	804.25	6016.2
54	23.04	172.38	18 3	261.59	1956.8	32 3	816.86	6110.6
55	23.76	177.72	18 6	268.80	2010.8	32 6	829.58	6205.7
56	24.48	183.15	18 9	276.12	2065.5	32 9	842.39	6301.5

**CONTENTS IN CUBIC FEET AND U. S. GALLONS
PIPES AND CYLINDERS OF VARIOUS DIAMETERS
AND ONE FOOT IN LENGTH.**

1 gallon = 231 cubic inches. 1 cubic foot = 7.4805 gallons.

Diameter in Inches.	For 1 Foot in Length.		Diameter in Inches.	For 1 Foot in Length.		Diameter in Inches.	For 1 Foot in Length.
	Cubic Ft. also Area in Sq. Ft.	U. S. Gals., 231 Cu. In.		Cubic Ft. also Area in Sq. Ft.	U. S. Gals., 231 Cu. In.		
3/4	.0003	.0025	6 3/4	.2485	1.859	19	1.969
5-16	.0005	.004	7	.3073	1.999	19 1/2	2.074
3/8	.0008	.0057	7 1/4	.3807	2.145	20	2.182
7-16	.001	.0078	7 1/2	.3068	2.295	20 1/2	2.292
1/2	.0014	.0102	7 3/4	.3276	2.45	21	2.405
9-16	.0017	.0129	8	.3491	2.611	21 1/2	2.521
5/8	.0021	.0159	8 1/4	.3712	2.777	22	2.640
11-16	.0026	.0193	8 1/2	.3941	2.948	22 1/2	2.761
3/4	.0031	.0230	8 3/4	.4176	3.125	23	2.885
13-16	.0036	.0269	9	.4418	3.305	23 1/2	3.012
7/8	.0042	.0312	9 1/4	.4667	3.491	24	3.142
15-16	.0048	.0359	9 1/2	.4922	3.682	25	3.400
1	.0055	.0408	9 3/4	.5185	3.879	26	3.687
1 1/4	.0085	.0638	10	.5454	4.08	27	3.976
1 1/2	.0122	.0918	10 1/4	.5730	4.286	28	4.276
1 3/4	.0167	.1249	10 1/2	.6013	4.498	29	4.587
2	.0218	.1632	10 3/4	.6303	4.715	30	4.909
2 1/4	.0276	.2066	11	.66	4.937	31	5.241
2 1/2	.0341	.2550	11 1/4	.6903	5.164	32	5.585
2 3/4	.0412	.3085	11 1/2	.7213	5.396	33	5.940
3	.0491	.3672	11 3/4	.7530	5.633	34	6.305
3 1/4	.0576	.4309	12	.7854	5.875	35	6.681
3 1/2	.0668	.4998	12 1/4	.8222	6.375	36	7.069
3 3/4	.0767	.5738	13	.9218	6.895	37	7.467
4	.0873	.6528	13 1/4	.994	7.436	38	7.876
4 1/4	.0985	.7369	14	1.069	7.997	39	8.296
4 1/2	.1134	.8263	14 1/4	1.147	8.578	40	8.727
4 3/4	.1231	.9206	15	1.227	9.180	41	9.168
5	.1364	1.020	15 1/4	1.310	9.801	42	9.621
5 1/4	.1503	1.125	16	1.396	10.44	43	10.085
5 1/2	.1650	1.234	16 1/4	1.485	11.11	44	10.559
5 3/4	.1803	1.349	17	1.576	11.79	45	11.045
6	.1963	1.469	17 1/4	1.670	12.49	46	11.541
6 1/4	.2131	1.594	18	1.768	13.22	47	12.048
6 1/2	.2304	1.724	18 1/4	1.867	13.96	48	12.566

To find the capacity of pipes greater than the largest given in the table for a pipe of one half the given size, and multiply its capacity by 4; or one of one third its size, and multiply its capacity by 9.

To find the weight of water in any of the given sizes multiply the in cubic feet by 62 1/2 or the gallons by 8 1/8, or, if a closer approach required, by the weight of a cubic foot of water at the actual temperature of the pipe.

Given the dimensions of a cylinder in inches, to find its capacity in gallons: Square the diameter, multiply by the length and by .0034

$$\text{net gallons} = \frac{d^2 \times .7854 \times l}{231} = .0034d^2l.$$

DRICAL VESSELS, TANKS, CISTERNS, ETC.

r in Feet and Inches, Area in Square Feet, and
S. Gallons Capacity for One Foot in Depth.

$$\text{Gallon} = 231 \text{ cubic inches} = \frac{1 \text{ cubic foot}}{7.4805} = 0.13368 \text{ cubic feet.}$$

Area.	Gals.	Diam.	Area.	Gals.	Diam.	Area.	Gals.
ft.	1 foot depth.	Ft. In.	Sq. ft.	1 foot depth.	Ft. In.	Sq. ft.	1 foot depth.
785	5 87	5 8	25.22	188.66	19	283.53	2120.9
922	6.89	5 9	25.97	194.25	19 3	291.04	2177.1
969	8.00	5 10	26.73	199.92	19 6	298.65	2234.0
927	9.18	5 11	27.49	205.67	19 9	306.35	2291.7
996	10.44	6	28.27	211.51	20	314.16	2350.1
576	11.79	6 3	30.68	229.50	20 3	322.06	2409.2
767	13.22	6 6	33.18	248.23	20 6	330.06	2469.1
969	14.73	6 9	35.78	267.60	20 9	338.16	2529.6
1182	16.32	7	38.48	287.88	21	346.36	2591.0
1405	17.99	7 3	41.38	308.81	21 3	354.66	2653.0
1640	19.75	7 6	44.48	330.49	21 6	363.05	2715.8
1885	21.58	7 9	47.17	352.88	21 9	371.54	2779.3
1142	23.50	8	50.27	376.01	22	380.13	2843.6
1409	25.50	8 3	53.46	399.88	22 3	388.82	2908.6
1687	27.58	8 6	56.75	424.48	22 6	397.61	2974.3
1976	29.74	8 9	60.13	449.82	22 9	406.49	3040.8
1276	31.99	9	63.62	475.89	23	415.48	3108.0
1587	34.31	9 3	67.20	502.70	23 3	424.56	3175.9
1909	36.72	9 6	70.88	530.24	23 6	433.74	3244.6
2241	39.21	9 9	74.66	558.51	23 9	443.01	3314.0
2585	41.78	10	78.54	587.52	24	452.39	3384.1
2940	44.43	10 3	82.52	617.26	24 3	461.86	3455.0
3305	47.16	10 6	86.59	647.74	24 6	471.44	3526.6
3681	49.98	10 9	90.76	678.95	24 9	481.11	3598.9
4069	52.88	11	95.03	710.90	25	490.87	3672.0
4467	55.86	11 3	99.40	743.58	25 3	500.74	3745.8
4876	58.92	11 6	103.87	776.99	25 6	510.71	3820.3
5296	62.06	11 9	108.43	811.14	25 9	520.77	3895.6
5727	65.28	12	113.10	846.03	26	530.93	3971.6
6168	68.58	12 3	117.86	881.65	26 3	541.19	4048.4
6621	71.97	12 6	122.72	918.00	26 6	551.55	4125.9
7085	75.44	12 9	127.68	955.09	26 9	562.00	4204.1
7560	78.99	13	132.73	992.91	27	572.56	4283.0
8045	82.62	13 3	137.89	1031.51	27 3	583.21	4362.7
8540	86.33	13 6	143.14	1070.88	27 6	593.96	4443.1
9045	90.13	13 9	148.49	1110.87	27 9	604.81	4524.3
9560	94.00	14	153.94	1151.51	28	615.75	4606.2
10085	97.96	14 3	159.48	1193.00	28 3	626.80	4688.8
10620	102.00	14 6	165.13	1235.35	28 6	637.94	4772.1
11165	106.12	14 9	170.87	1278.32	28 9	649.18	4856.2
11720	110.32	15	176.71	1321.91	29	660.52	4941.0
12285	114.61	15 3	182.65	1366.24	29 3	671.96	5026.6
12860	118.97	15 6	188.69	1411.55	29 6	683.49	5112.9
13445	123.42	15 9	194.83	1457.45	29 9	695.13	5199.9
14040	127.96	16	201.06	1504.11	30	706.86	5287.7
14645	132.56	16 3	207.39	1551.44	30 3	718.69	5376.2
15260	137.25	16 6	213.82	1599.55	30 6	730.62	5465.4
15885	142.02	16 9	220.35	1648.44	30 9	742.64	5555.4
16520	146.88	17	226.98	1697.91	31	754.77	5646.1
17165	151.82	17 3	233.71	1748.22	31 3	766.99	5737.5
17820	156.83	17 6	240.53	1799.33	31 6	779.31	5829.7
18485	161.93	17 9	247.45	1851.11	31 9	791.73	5922.6
19160	167.12	18	254.47	1903.66	32	804.25	6016.2
19845	172.39	18 3	261.59	1956.88	32 3	816.86	6110.6
20540	177.72	18 6	268.80	2010.88	32 6	829.58	6205.7
21245	183.15	18 9	276.12	2065.55	32 9	842.39	6301.5

MATHEMATICAL TABLES.

GALLONS AND CUBIC FEET.

ates Gallons in a given Number of Cubic Feet.

= 7.480519 U. S. gallons; 1 gallon = 231 cu. in. = .13368056 cu. ft.

Gallons.	Cubic Ft.	Gallons.	Cubic Ft.	Gallons.
0.75	50	374.0	8,000	59,844.2
1.50	60	448.8	9,000	67,324.7
2.24	70	523.6	10,000	74,805.2
2.99	80	598.4	20,000	149,610.4
3.74	90	673.2	30,000	224,415.6
4.49	100	748.0	40,000	299,220.8
5.24	200	1,496.1	50,000	374,025.9
5.98	300	2,244.2	60,000	448,831.1
6.73	400	2,992.2	70,000	523,636.3
7.48	500	3,740.3	80,000	598,441.5
14.96	600	4,488.3	90,000	673,246.7
22.44	700	5,236.4	100,000	748,051.9
29.92	800	5,984.4	200,000	1,496,103.8
37.40	900	6,732.5	300,000	2,244,155.7
44.88	1,000	7,480.5	400,000	2,992,207.6
52.36	2,000	14,961.0	500,000	3,740,259.5
59.84	3,000	22,441.6	600,000	4,488,311.4
67.32	4,000	29,922.1	700,000	5,236,363.3
74.80	5,000	37,402.6	800,000	5,984,415.2
149.6	6,000	44,883.1	900,000	6,732,467.1
294.4	7,000	52,363.6	1,000,000	7,480,519.0
299.2				

ubic Feet in a given Number of Gallons.

Cubic Ft.	Gallons.	Cubic Ft.	Gallons.	Cubic Ft.
.134	1,000	133.681	1,000,000	133,680.6
.267	2,000	267.361	2,000,000	267,361.1
.401	3,000	401.042	3,000,000	401,041.7
.535	4,000	534.722	4,000,000	534,722.2
.668	5,000	668.403	5,000,000	668,402.8
.802	6,000	802.083	6,000,000	802,083.3
.936	7,000	935.764	7,000,000	935,763.9
1.069	8,000	1,069.444	8,000,000	1,069,444.4
1.203	9,000	1,203.125	9,000,000	1,203,125.0
1.337	10,000	1,336.806	10,000,000	1,336,805.6

SQUARE FEET IN PLATES—(Continued.)

Ft. and Ins. Long.	Ins. Long.	Square Feet.	Ft. and Ins. Long.	Ins. Long.	Square Feet.	Ft. and Ins. Long.	Ins. Long.	Square Feet.
17. 6	210	1.458	22. 5	269	1.868	27. 4	328	
7	211	1.465	6	270	1.875	5	329	
8	212	1.472	7	271	1.882	6	330	
9	213	1.479	8	272	1.889	7	331	
10	214	1.486	9	273	1.896	8	332	
11	215	1.493	10	274	1.903	9	333	
18. 0	216	1.5	11	275	1.91	10	334	
1	217	1.507	23. 0	276	1.917	11	335	
2	218	1.514	1	277	1.924	28. 0	336	
3	219	1.521	2	278	1.931	1	337	
4	220	1.528	3	279	1.938	2	338	
5	221	1.535	4	280	1.944	3	339	
6	222	1.542	5	281	1.951	4	340	
7	223	1.549	6	282	1.958	5	341	
8	224	1.556	7	283	1.965	6	342	
9	225	1.563	8	284	1.972	7	343	
0	226	1.569	9	285	1.979	8	344	
11	227	1.576	10	286	1.986	9	345	
19. 0	228	1.583	11	287	1.993	10	346	
1	229	1.59	24. 0	288	2.	11	347	
2	230	1.597	1	289	2.007	29. 0	348	
3	231	1.604	2	290	2.014	1	349	
4	232	1.611	3	291	2.021	2	350	
5	233	1.618	4	292	2.028	3	351	
6	234	1.625	5	293	2.035	4	352	
7	235	1.632	6	294	2.042	5	353	
8	236	1.639	7	295	2.049	6	354	
9	237	1.645	8	296	2.056	7	355	
10	238	1.653	9	297	2.063	8	356	
11	239	1.659	10	298	2.069	9	357	
20. 0	240	1.667	11	299	2.076	10	358	
1	241	1.674	25. 0	300	2.083	11	359	
2	242	1.681	1	301	2.09	30. 0	360	
3	243	1.688	2	302	2.097	1	361	
4	244	1.694	3	303	2.104	2	362	
5	245	1.701	4	304	2.111	3	363	
6	246	1.708	5	305	2.118	4	364	
7	247	1.715	6	306	2.125	5	365	
8	248	1.722	7	307	2.132	6	366	
9	249	1.729	8	308	2.139	7	367	
10	250	1.736	9	309	2.146	8	368	
11	251	1.743	10	310	2.153	9	369	
21. 0	252	1.75	11	311	2.16	10	370	
1	253	1.757	26. 0	312	2.167	11	371	
2	254	1.764	1	313	2.174	31. 0	372	
3	255	1.771	2	314	2.181	1	373	
4	256	1.778	3	315	2.188	2	374	
5	257	1.785	4	316	2.194	3	375	
6	258	1.792	5	317	2.201	4	376	
7	259	1.799	6	318	2.208	5	377	
8	260	1.806	7	319	2.215	6	378	
9	261	1.813	8	320	2.222	7	379	
10	262	1.819	9	321	2.229	8	380	
11	263	1.826	10	322	2.236	9	381	
22. 0	264	1.833	11	323	2.243	10	382	
1	265	1.84	27. 0	324	2.25	11	383	
2	266	1.847	1	325	2.257	32. 0	384	
3	267	1.854	2	326	2.264	1	385	
4	268	1.861	3	327	2.271	2	386	

**NUMBER OF BARRELS (31 1-2 GALLONS) IN
CISTERNS AND TANKS.—Continued.**

Depth in Feet.	Diameter in Feet.							
	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30
1	98.666	107.432	116.571	126.083	135.968	146.226	157.858	167.862
5	493.3	537.2	582.9	630.4	679.8	731.1	784.3	839.3
6	592.0	644.6	699.4	756.5	815.8	877.4	941.1	1007.2
7	690.7	752.0	816.0	882.6	951.8	1023.6	1098.0	1175.0
8	789.3	859.5	932.6	1008.7	1087.7	1169.8	1254.9	1342.9
9	888.0	966.9	1049.1	1134.7	1223.7	1316.0	1411.7	1510.8
10	986.7	1074.3	1165.7	1260.8	1359.7	1462.2	1568.6	1678.9
11	1085.3	1181.8	1282.3	1386.9	1495.6	1608.5	1725.4	1846.5
12	1184.0	1289.2	1398.8	1513.0	1631.6	1754.7	1882.3	2014.4
13	1282.7	1396.6	1515.4	1639.1	1767.6	1900.9	2039.2	2182.2
14	1381.3	1504.0	1632.0	1765.2	1903.6	2047.2	2196.0	2350.1
15	1480.0	1611.5	1748.6	1891.2	2039.5	2193.4	2352.9	2517.9
16	1578.7	1718.9	1865.1	2017.3	2175.5	2339.6	2509.7	2685.8
17	1677.3	1826.3	1981.7	2143.4	2311.5	2485.8	2666.6	2853.7
18	1776.0	1933.8	2098.3	2269.5	2447.4	2632.0	2823.4	3021.5
19	1874.7	2041.2	2214.8	2395.6	2583.4	2778.3	2980.3	3189.4
20	1973.3	2148.6	2331.4	2521.7	2719.4	2924.5	3137.2	3357.3

LOGARITHMS.

Logarithms (abbreviation *log*).—The log of a number is the exponent of the power to which it is necessary to raise a fixed number to produce the given number. The fixed number is called the *base*. Thus if the base is 10, the log of 1000 is 3, for $10^3 = 1000$. There are two systems of logs in general use, the *common*, in which the base is 10, and the *Naperian*, or *hyperbolic*, in which the base is 2.718281828 The Naperian base is commonly denoted by *e*, as in the equation $e^y = x$, in which *y* is the Nap. log of *x*.

In any system of logs, the log of 1 is 0; the log of the base, taken in that system, is 1. In any system the base of which is greater than 1, the logs of all numbers greater than 1 are positive and the logs of all numbers less than 1 are negative.

The modulus of any system is equal to the reciprocal of the Naperian log of the base of that system. The modulus of the Naperian system is 1, that of the common system is .4342945.

The log of a number in any system equals the modulus of that system \times the Naperian log of the number.

The *hyperbolic* or *Naperian* log of any number equals the common log \times 2.3025851.

Every log consists of two parts, an entire part called the *characteristic*, or *index*, and the decimal part, or *mantissa*. The mantissa only is given in the usual tables of common logs, with the decimal point omitted. The characteristic is found by a simple rule, viz., it is one less than the number of figures to the left of the decimal point in the number whose log is to be found. Thus the characteristic of numbers from 1 to 9.99 + is 0, from 10 to 99.99 + is 1, from 100 to 999 + is 2, from .1 to .99 + is -1, from .01 to .999 + is -2, etc. Thus

<i>log</i> of 2000 is 3.30103;	<i>log</i> of .2 is -1.30103;
" " 200 " 2.30103;	" " .02 " -2.30103;
" " 20 " 1.30103;	" " .002 " -3.30103;
" " 2 " 0.30103;	" " .0002 " -4.30103.

The minus sign is frequently written above the characteristic thus $\log .002 = \bar{3}.30103$. The characteristic only is negative, the decimal part, mantissa, being always positive.

When a log consists of a negative index and a positive mantissa, it is usual to write the negative sign over the index, or else to add 10 to the index, and to indicate the subtraction of 10 from the resulting logarithm.

Thus $\log .2 = \bar{1}.30103$, and this may be written $9.30103 - 10$.

In tables of logarithmic sines, etc., the -10 is generally omitted, as being understood.

Rules for use of the table of Logarithms.—To find the log of any whole number.—For 1 to 100 inclusive the log is given complete in the small table on page 129.

For 100 to 999 inclusive the decimal part of the log is given opposite the given number in the column headed 0 in the table (including the two figures to the left, making six figures). Prefix the characteristic, or index, 2.

For 1000 to 9999 inclusive: The last four figures of the log are found opposite the first three figures of the given number and in the vertical column headed with the fourth figure of the given number; prefix the two figures under column 0, and the index, which is 3.

For numbers over 10,000 having five or more digits: Find the decimal part of the log for the first four digits as above, multiply the difference figure in the last column by the remaining digit or digits, and divide by 10 if there be only one digit more, by 100 if there be two more, and so on; add the quotient to the log of the first four digits and prefix the index, which will be 4 if there are five digits, 5 if there are six digits, and so on. The table of proportional parts may be used, as shown below.

To find the log of a decimal fraction or of a whole number and a decimal.—First find the log of the quantity as if there were no decimal point, then prefix the index according to rule; the index will be one less than the number of figures to the left of the decimal point.

Required log of 3.141593.

	log of	3.141	=	0.497068,	Diff. = 138
From proportional parts		5	=	690	
"	"	09	=	1242	
"	"	003	=	041	
<hr/>					
	log	3.141593		0.4971498	

To find the number corresponding to a given log.—First find in the table the log nearest to the decimal part of the given log and take the first four digits of the required number from the column N and the top foot of the column containing the log which is the next less than the given log. To find the 5th and 6th digits subtract the log in the table from the given log, multiply the difference by 100, and divide by the figure in the Diff. column opposite the log; annex the quotient to the four digits already found, and place the decimal point according to the rule; the number of figures to the left of the decimal point is one greater than the index.

Find number corresponding to the log	0.497150
Next lowest log in table corresponds to	3141.....	.497068
		Diff. = 82
Tabular diff. = 138;	$82 \div 138 = .59 +$	

The index being 0, the number is therefore 3.14159 +.

To multiply two numbers by the use of logarithms.—Add together the logs of the two numbers, and find the number whose log is the sum.

To divide two numbers.—Subtract the log of the less from the log of the greater, and find the number whose log is the difference.

To raise a number to any given power.—Multiply the log of the number by the exponent of the power, and find the number whose log is the product.

To find any root of a given number.—Divide the log of the number by the index of the root. The quotient is the log of the root.

To find the reciprocal of a number.—Subtract the decimal part of the log of the number from 0, add 1 to the index and change the sign of the result; the result is the log of the reciprocal.

Required the reciprocal of 3.141593.

Log of 3.141593, as found above..... 0.4971498
 Subtract decimal part from 0 gives..... 0.5028502
 Add 1 to the index, and changing sign of the index gives.. 1.5028502

which is the log of 0.31831.

To find the fourth term of a proportion by logarithms.
 Add the logarithms of the second and third terms, and from their sum subtract the logarithm of the first term.

When one logarithm is to be subtracted from another, it may be more convenient to convert the subtraction into an addition, which may be done by first subtracting the given logarithm from 10, adding the difference to the other logarithm, and afterwards rejecting the 10.

The difference between a given logarithm and 10 is called its *arithmetical complement*, or *cologarithm*.

To subtract one logarithm from another is the same as to add its complement and then reject 10 from the result. For $a - b = 10 - b + a - 10$.

To work a proportion, then, by logarithms, add the complement of the logarithm of the first term to the logarithms of the second and third terms. The characteristic must afterwards be diminished by 10.

Example in logarithms with a negative index.—Solve by logarithms $(\frac{526}{1011})^{2.45}$, which means divide 526 by 1011 and raise the quotient to the 2.45 power.

log 526 = 2.720986
 log 1011 = 3.004751
 log of quotient = - 1.716235
 Multiply by 2.45
 - 2.581175
 - 2.8 64940
 - 1.43 2470
 - 1.30 477575 = .20173, Ans.

In multiplying - 1.7 by 5, we say: $5 \times 7 = 35$, 3 to carry; $5 \times -1 = -5$ less carried = -2. In adding -2 + 8 + 3 + 1 carried from previous column, say: $1 + 3 + 8 = 12$, minus 2 = 10, set down 0 and carry 1; $1 + 4 - 2 = 3$.

LOGARITHMS OF NUMBERS FROM 1 TO 100.

N.	Log.	N.	Log.	N.	Log.	N.	Log.	N.	Log.
1	0.000000	21	1.322219	41	1.612784	61	1.785330	81	1.908485
2	0.301030	22	1.343433	42	1.623249	62	1.792392	82	1.913814
3	0.477121	23	1.361728	43	1.633468	63	1.799341	83	1.919078
4	0.602060	24	1.380211	44	1.643453	64	1.806180	84	1.924270
5	0.698970	25	1.397940	45	1.653213	65	1.812913	85	1.929410
6	0.778151	26	1.414973	46	1.662758	66	1.819544	86	1.934498
7	0.845098	27	1.431364	47	1.672098	67	1.826075	87	1.939519
8	0.903090	28	1.447158	48	1.681241	68	1.832509	88	1.944483
9	0.954243	29	1.462398	49	1.690196	69	1.838849	89	1.949390
10	1.000000	30	1.477121	50	1.698970	70	1.845098	90	1.954243
11	1.041393	31	1.491362	51	1.707570	71	1.851258	91	1.959041
12	1.079181	32	1.505150	52	1.716003	72	1.857332	92	1.963788
13	1.113943	33	1.518514	53	1.724276	73	1.863323	93	1.968483
14	1.146128	34	1.531479	54	1.732394	74	1.869233	94	1.973128
15	1.176091	35	1.544068	55	1.740363	75	1.875061	95	1.977724
16	1.204120	36	1.556303	56	1.748188	76	1.880814	96	1.982271
17	1.230449	37	1.568202	57	1.755875	77	1.886491	97	1.986772
18	1.255273	38	1.579784	58	1.763428	78	1.892095	98	1.991226
19	1.278554	39	1.591065	59	1.770852	79	1.897627	99	1.995643
20	1.301330	40	1.602060	60	1.778151	80	1.903000	100	2.000000

No. 100 L. 000.]					[No. 109 L.					
N.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
100	000000	0434	0868	1301	1734	2166	2598	3029	3461	3891
1	4321	4751	5181	5609	6038	6466	6894	7321	7748	8174
2	8600	9026	9451	9876						
3	012837	3259	3680	4100	4521	4940	5360	5779	6197	6616
4	7083	7451	7808	8284	8700	9116	9532	9947		
5	021189	1603	2016	2428	2841	3252	3664	4075	4486	4896
6	5306	5715	6125	6533	6942	7350	7757	8164	8571	8978
7	9384	9789								
8	033424	3826	4227	4628	5029	5430	5830	6230	6629	7028
9	7426	7825	8223	8620	9017	9414	9811			
	04							0207	0602	0998

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

Dif.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
434	43.4	86.8	130.2	173.6	217.0	260.4	303.8	347.2
433	43.3	86.6	129.9	173.2	216.5	259.8	303.1	346.4
432	43.2	86.4	129.6	172.8	216.0	259.2	302.4	345.6
431	43.1	86.2	129.3	172.4	215.5	258.6	301.7	344.8
430	43.0	86.0	129.0	172.0	215.0	258.0	301.0	344.0
429	42.9	85.8	128.7	171.6	214.5	257.4	300.3	343.2
428	42.8	85.6	128.4	171.2	214.0	256.8	299.6	342.4
427	42.7	85.4	128.1	170.8	213.5	256.2	298.9	341.6
426	42.6	85.2	127.8	170.4	213.0	255.6	298.2	340.8
425	42.5	85.0	127.5	170.0	212.5	255.0	297.5	340.0
424	42.4	84.8	127.2	169.6	212.0	254.4	296.8	339.2
423	42.3	84.6	126.9	169.2	211.5	253.8	296.1	338.4
422	42.2	84.4	126.6	168.8	211.0	253.2	295.4	337.6
421	42.1	84.2	126.3	168.4	210.5	252.6	294.7	336.8
420	42.0	84.0	126.0	168.0	210.0	252.0	294.0	336.0
419	41.9	83.8	125.7	167.6	209.5	251.4	293.3	335.2
418	41.8	83.6	125.4	167.2	209.0	250.8	292.6	334.4
417	41.7	83.4	125.1	166.8	208.5	250.2	291.9	333.6
416	41.6	83.2	124.8	166.4	208.0	249.6	291.2	332.8
415	41.5	83.0	124.5	166.0	207.5	249.0	290.5	332.0
414	41.4	82.8	124.2	165.6	207.0	248.4	289.8	331.2
413	41.3	82.6	123.9	165.2	206.5	247.8	289.1	330.4
412	41.2	82.4	123.6	164.8	206.0	247.2	288.4	329.6
411	41.1	82.2	123.3	164.4	205.5	246.6	287.7	328.8
410	41.0	82.0	123.0	164.0	205.0	246.0	287.0	328.0
409	40.9	81.8	122.7	163.6	204.5	245.4	286.3	327.2
408	40.8	81.6	122.4	163.2	204.0	244.8	285.6	326.4
407	40.7	81.4	122.1	162.8	203.5	244.2	284.9	325.6
406	40.6	81.2	121.8	162.4	203.0	243.6	284.2	324.8
405	40.5	81.0	121.5	162.0	202.5	243.0	283.5	324.0
404	40.4	80.8	121.2	161.6	202.0	242.4	282.8	323.2
403	40.3	80.6	120.9	161.2	201.5	241.8	282.1	322.4
402	40.2	80.4	120.6	160.8	201.0	241.2	281.4	321.6
401	40.1	80.2	120.3	160.4	200.5	240.6	280.7	320.8
400	40.0	80.0	120.0	160.0	200.0	240.0	280.0	320.0
399	39.9	79.8	119.7	159.6	199.5	239.4	279.3	319.2
398	39.8	79.6	119.4	159.2	199.0	238.8	278.6	318.4
397			119.1	158.8	198.5	238.2	277.9	317.6
396			118.8	158.4	198.0	237.6	277.2	316.8
395			118.5	158.0	197.5	237.0	276.5	316.0

[L]

[No. 119 L. 078.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Diff.
1787	2182	2576	2969	3362	3755	4148	4540	4932	398
5714	6105	6495	6885	7275	7664	8053	8442	8830	390
9606	9993								
		0380	0766	1153	1538	1924	2309	2694	386
3463	3846	4230	4613	4996	5378	5760	6142	6524	383
7286	7666	8046	8426	8805	9185	9563	9942		
								0320	379
1075	1453	1829	2206	2582	2958	3333	3709	4083	376
4932	5306	5580	5953	6326	6699	7071	7443	7815	373
8557	8928	9298	9668						
				0038	0407	0776	1145	1514	370
2250	2617	2985	3352	3718	4085	4451	4816	5182	366
5912	6276	6640	7004	7368	7731	8094	8457	8819	363

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
79.0	118.5	158.0	197.5	237.0	276.5	316.0	355.5
78.8	118.2	157.6	197.0	236.4	275.8	315.2	354.6
78.6	117.9	157.2	196.5	235.8	275.1	314.4	353.7
78.4	117.6	156.8	196.0	235.2	274.4	313.6	352.8
78.2	117.3	156.4	195.5	234.6	273.7	312.8	351.9
78.0	117.0	156.0	195.0	234.0	273.0	312.0	351.0
77.8	116.7	155.6	194.5	233.4	272.3	311.2	350.1
77.6	116.4	155.2	194.0	232.8	271.6	310.4	349.2
77.4	116.1	154.8	193.5	232.2	270.9	309.6	348.3
77.2	115.8	154.4	193.0	231.6	270.2	308.8	347.4
77.0	115.5	154.0	192.5	231.0	269.5	308.0	346.5
76.8	115.2	153.6	192.0	230.4	268.8	307.2	345.6
76.6	114.9	153.2	191.5	229.8	268.1	306.4	344.7
76.4	114.6	152.8	191.0	229.2	267.4	305.6	343.8
76.2	114.3	152.4	190.5	228.6	266.7	304.8	342.9
76.0	114.0	152.0	190.0	228.0	266.0	304.0	342.0
75.8	113.7	151.6	189.5	227.4	265.3	303.2	341.1
75.6	113.4	151.2	189.0	226.8	264.6	302.4	340.2
75.4	113.1	150.8	188.5	226.2	263.9	301.6	339.3
75.2	112.8	150.4	188.0	225.6	263.2	300.8	338.4
75.0	112.5	150.0	187.5	225.0	262.5	300.0	337.5
74.8	112.2	149.6	187.0	224.4	261.8	299.2	336.6
74.6	111.9	149.2	186.5	223.8	261.1	298.4	335.7
74.4	111.6	148.8	186.0	223.2	260.4	297.6	334.8
74.2	111.3	148.4	185.5	222.6	259.7	296.8	333.9
74.0	111.0	148.0	185.0	222.0	259.0	296.0	333.0
73.8	110.7	147.6	184.5	221.4	258.3	295.2	332.1
73.6	110.4	147.2	184.0	220.8	257.6	294.4	331.2
73.4	110.1	146.8	183.5	220.2	256.9	293.6	330.3
73.2	109.8	146.4	183.0	219.6	256.2	292.8	329.4
73.0	109.5	146.0	182.5	219.0	255.5	292.0	328.5
72.8	109.2	145.6	182.0	218.4	254.8	291.2	327.6
72.6	108.9	145.2	181.5	217.8	254.1	290.4	326.7
72.4	108.6	144.8	181.0	217.2	253.4	289.6	325.8
72.2	108.3	144.4	180.5	216.6	252.7	288.8	324.9
72.0	108.0	144.0	180.0	216.0	252.0	288.0	324.0
71.8	107.7	143.6	179.5	215.4	251.3	287.2	323.1
71.6	107.4	143.2	179.0	214.8	250.6	286.4	322.2
71.4	107.1	142.8	178.5	214.2	249.9	285.6	321.3
71.2	106.8	142.4	178.0	213.6	249.2	284.8	320.4

[No. 130 L. 079.]

[No. 134 L. 150.]

N.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Diff.
120	079181	9543	9904								
				0266	0626	0987	1347	1707	2067	2426	2785
1	082785	3144	3503	3861	4219	4576	4934	5291	5647	6004	37
2	6390	6716	7071	7426	7781	8136	8490	8845	9198	9552	37
3	9905										37
4		0258	0611	0963	1315	1667	2018	2370	2721	3071	37
5	093422	3772	4132	4471	4820	5169	5518	5866	6215	6562	36
	0910	7257	7604	7951	8298	8644	8990	9335	9681		36
6	100371	0715	1059	1403	1747	2091	2434	2777	3119	3462	36
7	3804	4146	4487	4828	5169	5510	5851	6191	6531	6871	34
8	7210	7549	7888	8227	8565	8903	9241	9579	9916		34
9	110500	0926	1263	1599	1934	2270	2605	2940	3275	3609	33
										0253	33
130	3943	4277	4611	4944	5278	5611	5943	6276	6608	6940	33
1	7603	7934	8265	8595		8926	9256	9586	9915		33
2	120574	0903	1231	1560	1888	2216	2544	2871	3198	3525	32
3	3852	4178	4504	4830	5156	5481	5806	6131	6456	6781	32
4	7105	7429	7753	8076	8399	8722	9045	9368	9690		32
	13									0012	32

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

Diff.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
355	35.5	71.0	106.5	142.0	177.5	213.0	248.5	284.0	319.5
354	35.4	70.8	106.2	141.6	177.0	212.4	247.8	283.2	318.6
353	35.3	70.6	105.9	141.2	176.5	211.8	247.1	282.4	317.7
352	35.2	70.4	105.6	140.8	176.0	211.2	246.4	281.6	316.8
351	35.1	70.2	105.3	140.4	175.5	210.6	245.7	280.8	315.9
350	35.0	70.0	105.0	140.0	175.0	210.0	245.0	280.0	315.0
349	34.9	69.8	104.7	139.6	174.5	209.4	244.3	279.2	314.1
348	34.8	69.6	104.4	139.2	174.0	208.8	243.6	278.4	313.2
347	34.7	69.4	104.1	138.8	173.5	208.2	242.9	277.6	312.3
346	34.6	69.2	103.8	138.4	173.0	207.6	242.2	276.8	311.4
345	34.5	69.0	103.5	138.0	172.5	207.0	241.5	276.0	310.5
344	34.4	68.8	103.2	137.6	172.0	206.4	240.8	275.2	309.6
343	34.3	68.6	102.9	137.2	171.5	205.8	240.1	274.4	308.7
342	34.2	68.4	102.6	136.8	171.0	205.2	239.4	273.6	307.8
341	34.1	68.2	102.3	136.4	170.5	204.6	238.7	272.8	306.9
340	34.0	68.0	102.0	136.0	170.0	204.0	238.0	272.0	306.0
339	33.9	67.8	101.7	135.6	169.5	203.4	237.3	271.2	305.1
338	33.8	67.6	101.4	135.2	169.0	202.8	236.6	270.4	304.2
337	33.7	67.4	101.1	134.8	168.5	202.2	235.9	269.6	303.3
336	33.6	67.2	100.8	134.4	168.0	201.6	235.2	268.8	302.4
335	33.5	67.0	100.5	134.0	167.5	201.0	234.5	268.0	301.5
334	33.4	66.8	100.2	133.6	167.0	200.4	233.8	267.2	300.6
333	33.3	66.6	99.9	133.2	166.5	199.8	233.1	266.4	299.7
332	33.2	66.4	99.6	132.8	166.0	199.2	232.4	265.6	298.8
331	33.1	66.2	99.3	132.4	165.5	198.6	231.7	264.8	297.9
330	33.0	66.0	99.0	132.0	165.0	198.0	231.0	264.0	297.0
329	32.9	65.8	98.7	131.6	164.5	197.4	230.3	263.2	
328	32.8	65.6	98.4	131.2	164.0	196.8	229.6	262.4	
327	32.7	65.4	98.1	130.8	163.5	196.2	228.9	261.6	
326	32.6	65.2	97.8	130.4	163.0	195.6	228.2	260.8	
325	32.5	65.0	97.5	130.0	162.5	195.0	227.5	260.0	
324	32.4	64.8	97.2	129.6	162.0	194.4	226.8	259.2	
323	32.3	64.6	96.9	129.2	161.5	193.8	226.1	258.4	
322	32.2	64.4	96.6	128.8	161.0	193.2	225.4	257.6	

130.]

[No. 149 L. 175.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Diff.
0055	0977	1298	1619	1939	2260	2580	2900	3219	3521	321
0838	4177	4496	4814	5133	5451	5769	6086	6403	6703	318
7037	7354	7671	7987	8303	8618	8934	9249	9564		316
0194	0508	0822	1136	1450	1763	2076	2389	2702		314
3327	3639	3951	4263	4574	4885	5196	5507	5818		311
6438	6748	7058	7367	7670	7985	8294	8603	8911		309
9327	9635									
		0142	0449	0756	1063	1370	1676	1982		307
2594	2900	3205	3510	3815	4120	4424	4728	5032		305
5640	5943	6246	6549	6852	7154	7457	7759	8061		303
8064	8365	8666	8967	9268						
				0168	0469	0769	1068	1365		301
1967	1967	2266	2564	2863	3161	3460	3758	4055		299
4050	4947	5244	5541	5838	6134	6430	6726	7022		297
7613	7908	8203	8497	8792	9086	9380	9674	9968		295
0355	0848	1141	1434	1726	2019	2311	2603	2895		293
3478	3769	4060	4351	4641	4932	5222	5512	5802		291

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
64.2	96.3	128.4	160.5	192.6	224.7	256.8	288.9
64.0	96.0	128.0	160.0	192.0	224.0	256.0	288.0
63.8	95.7	127.6	159.5	191.4	223.9	255.2	287.1
63.6	95.4	127.2	159.0	190.8	223.6	254.4	286.2
63.4	95.1	126.8	158.5	190.2	221.9	253.6	285.3
63.2	94.8	126.4	158.0	189.6	221.2	252.8	284.4
63.0	94.5	126.0	157.5	189.0	220.5	252.0	283.5
62.8	94.2	125.6	157.0	188.4	219.8	251.2	282.6
62.6	93.9	125.2	156.5	187.8	219.1	250.4	281.7
62.4	93.6	124.8	156.0	187.2	218.4	249.6	280.8
62.2	93.3	124.4	155.5	186.6	217.7	248.8	279.9
62.0	93.0	124.0	155.0	186.0	217.0	248.0	279.0
61.8	92.7	123.6	154.5	185.4	216.3	247.2	278.1
61.6	92.4	123.2	154.0	184.8	215.6	246.4	277.2
61.4	92.1	122.8	153.5	184.2	214.9	245.6	276.3
61.2	91.8	122.4	153.0	183.6	214.2	244.8	275.4
61.0	91.5	122.0	152.5	183.0	213.5	244.0	274.5
60.8	91.2	121.6	152.0	182.4	212.8	243.2	273.6
60.6	90.9	121.2	151.5	181.8	212.1	242.4	272.7
60.4	90.6	120.8	151.0	181.2	211.4	241.6	271.8
60.2	90.3	120.4	150.5	180.6	210.7	240.8	270.9
60.0	90.0	120.0	150.0	180.0	210.0	240.0	270.0
59.8	89.7	119.6	149.5	179.4	209.3	239.2	269.1
59.6	89.4	119.2	149.0	178.8	208.6	238.4	268.2
59.4	89.1	118.8	148.5	178.2	207.9	237.6	267.3
59.2	88.8	118.4	148.0	177.6	207.2	236.8	266.4
59.0	88.5	118.0	147.5	177.0	206.5	236.0	265.5
58.8	88.2	117.6	147.0	176.4	205.8	235.2	264.6
58.6	87.9	117.2	146.5	175.8	205.1	234.4	263.7
58.4	87.6	116.8	146.0	175.2	204.4	233.6	262.8
58.2	87.3	116.4	145.5	174.6	203.7	232.8	261.9
58.0	87.0	116.0	145.0	174.0	203.0	232.0	261.0
57.8	86.7	115.6	144.5	173.4	202.3	231.2	260.1
57.6	86.4	115.2	144.0	172.8	201.6	230.4	259.2
57.4	86.1	114.8	143.5	172.2	200.9	229.6	258.3
57.2	85.8	114.4	143.0	171.6	200.2	228.8	257.4

No. 150 L. 176.]										[No
N.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
150	176091	6381	6670	6959	7248	7536	7825	8113	8401	
1	8977	9264	9552	9839						
2	181844	2129	2415	2700	2985	3270	3555	3839	4123	
3	4691	4975	5259	5542	5825	6108	6391	6674	6956	
4	7521	7803	8084	8366	8647	8928	9209	9490	9771	
5	190932	0612	0892	1171	1451	1730	2010	2289	2567	
6	3125	3403	3681	3959	4237	4514	4792	5069	5346	
7	5900	6176	6453	6729	7005	7281	7556	7832	8107	
8	8657	8932	9206	9481	9755					
9	201397	1670	1943	2216	2488	2761	3033	3305	3577	
160	4120	4391	4663	4934	5204	5475	5746	6016	6286	
1	6826	7096	7365	7634	7904	8173	8441	8710	8979	
2	9515	9783								
3	212188	2454	2720	2986	3252	3518	3783	4049	4314	
4	4844	5109	5373	5638	5902	6166	6430	6694	6957	
5	7484	7747	8010	8273	8536	8798	9060	9323	9585	
6	220108	0370	0631	0892	1153	1414	1675	1936	2196	
7	2716	2976	3236	3496	3755	4015	4274	4533	4792	
8	5309	5568	5826	6084	6342	6600	6858	7115	7372	
9	7887	8144	8400	8657	8913	9170	9426	9682	9938	
23										

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

Diff.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
285	28.5	57.0	85.5	114.0	142.5	171.0	199.5
284	28.4	56.8	85.2	113.6	142.0	170.4	198.8
283	28.3	56.6	84.9	113.2	141.5	169.8	198.1
282	28.2	56.4	84.6	112.8	141.0	169.2	197.4
281	28.1	56.2	84.3	112.4	140.5	168.6	196.7
280	28.0	56.0	84.0	112.0	140.0	168.0	196.0
279	27.9	55.8	83.7	111.6	139.5	167.4	195.3
278	27.8	55.6	83.4	111.2	139.0	166.8	194.6
277	27.7	55.4	83.1	110.8	138.5	166.2	193.9
276	27.6	55.2	82.8	110.4	138.0	165.6	193.2
275	27.5	55.0	82.5	110.0	137.5	165.0	192.5
274	27.4	54.8	82.2	109.6	137.0	164.4	191.8
273	27.3	54.6	81.9	109.2	136.5	163.8	191.1
272	27.2	54.4	81.6	108.8	136.0	163.2	190.4
271	27.1	54.2	81.3	108.4	135.5	162.6	189.7
270	27.0	54.0	81.0	108.0	135.0	162.0	189.0
269	26.9	53.8	80.7	107.6	134.5	161.4	188.3
268	26.8	53.6	80.4	107.2	134.0	160.8	187.6
267	26.7	53.4	80.1	106.8	133.5	160.2	186.9
266	26.6	53.2	79.8	106.4	133.0	159.6	186.2
265	26.5	53.0	79.5	106.0	132.5	159.0	185.5
264	26.4	52.8	79.2	105.6	132.0	158.4	184.8
263	26.3	52.6	78.9	105.2	131.5	157.8	184.1
262	26.2	52.4	78.6	104.8	131.0	157.2	183.4
261	26.1	52.2	78.3	104.4	130.5	156.6	182.7
260	26.0	52.0	78.0	104.0	130.0	156.0	182.0
259	25.9	51.8	77.7	103.6	129.5	155.4	181.3
258	25.8	51.6	77.4	103.2	129.0	154.8	180.6
257	25.7	51.4	77.1	102.8	128.5	154.2	179.9
256	25.6	51.2	76.8	102.4	128.0	153.6	179.2
255	25.5	51.0	76.5	102.0	127.5	153.0	178.5

80.]

[No. 189 L. 278.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Diff.
0704	0960	1215	1470	1734	1979	2234	2488	2742	255
3250	3504	3757	4011	4264	4517	4770	5023	5276	253
5781	6033	6285	6537	6789	7041	7292	7544	7795	252
8297	8548	8799	9049	9299	9550	9800			
							0050	0300	250
0799	1048	1297	1546	1795	2044	2293	2541	2790	249
3286	3534	3782	4030	4277	4525	4773	5019	5266	248
5759	6006	6252	6499	6745	6991	7237	7482	7728	246
8219	8464	8709	8954	9198	9443	9687			
								0176	245
0664	0908	1151	1395	1638	1881	2125	2368	2610	243
3096	3338	3580	3823	4064	4306	4548	4790	5031	242
5514	5755	5996	6237	6477	6718	6958	7198	7439	241
7918	8158	8398	8637	8877	9116	9355	9594	9833	239
0810	0548	0787	1025	1263	1501	1739	1976	2214	238
2088	2325	3162	3399	3636	3873	4109	4346	4582	237
5054	5290	5525	5761	5996	6232	6467	6702	6937	235
7466	7641	7875	8110	8344	8578	8812	9046	9279	234
9746	9980								
		0313	0446	0679	0912	1144	1377	1609	233
2074	2306	2538	2770	3001	3233	3464	3696	3927	232
4389	4620	4850	5081	5311	5542	5772	6002	6232	230
6692	6921	7151	7380	7609	7838	8067	8296	8525	229

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1.0	76.5	102.0	127.5	153.0	178.5	204.0	229.5
0.8	76.2	101.6	127.0	152.4	177.8	203.2	228.6
0.6	75.9	101.2	126.5	151.8	177.1	202.4	227.7
0.4	75.6	100.8	126.0	151.2	176.4	201.6	226.8
0.2	75.3	100.4	125.5	150.6	175.7	200.8	225.9
0.0	75.0	100.0	125.0	150.0	175.0	200.0	225.0
0.8	74.7	99.6	124.5	149.4	174.3	199.2	224.1
0.6	74.4	99.2	124.0	148.8	173.6	198.4	223.2
0.4	74.1	98.8	123.5	148.2	172.9	197.6	222.3
0.2	73.8	98.4	123.0	147.6	172.2	196.8	221.4
0.0	73.5	98.0	122.5	147.0	171.5	196.0	220.5
0.8	73.2	97.6	122.0	146.4	170.8	195.2	219.6
0.6	72.9	97.2	121.5	145.8	170.1	194.4	218.7
0.4	72.6	96.8	121.0	145.2	169.4	193.6	217.8
0.2	72.3	96.4	120.5	144.6	168.7	192.8	216.9
0.0	72.0	96.0	120.0	144.0	168.0	192.0	216.0
0.8	71.7	95.6	119.5	143.4	167.3	191.2	215.1
0.6	71.4	95.2	119.0	142.8	166.6	190.4	214.2
0.4	71.1	94.8	118.5	142.2	165.9	189.6	213.3
0.2	70.8	94.4	118.0	141.6	165.2	188.8	212.4
0.0	70.5	94.0	117.5	141.0	164.5	188.0	211.5
0.8	70.2	93.6	117.0	140.4	163.8	187.2	210.6
0.6	69.9	93.2	116.5	139.8	163.1	186.4	209.7
0.4	69.6	92.8	116.0	139.2	162.4	185.6	208.8
0.2	69.3	92.4	115.5	138.6	161.7	184.8	207.9
0.0	69.0	92.0	115.0	138.0	161.0	184.0	207.0
0.8	68.7	91.6	114.5	137.4	160.3	183.2	206.1
0.6	68.4	91.2	114.0	136.8	159.6	182.4	205.2
0.4	68.1	90.8	113.5	136.2	158.9	181.6	204.3
0.2	67.8	90.4	113.0	135.6	158.2	180.8	203.4

No. 190 L. 278.]										[No. 214										
N.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9										
190	278754	8982	9211	9439	9667	9895														
1	281033	1261	1488	1715	1942	2169	2396	2622	2849	3075	0122	0351	0578	0806						
2	3301	3527	3753	3979	4205	4431	4656	4882	5107	5332										
3	5557	5782	6007	6232	6456	6681	6905	7130	7354	7578										
4	7802	8026	8249	8473	8696	8920	9143	9366	9589	9812										
5	990095	0257	0480	0702	0925	1147	1369	1591	1813	2034										
6	2256	2478	2699	2920	3141	3363	3584	3804	4025	4246										
7	4466	4687	4907	5127	5347	5567	5787	6007	6226	6446										
8	6665	6884	7104	7323	7542	7761	7979	8198	8416	8635										
9	8853	9071	9289	9507	9725	9943					0161	0378	0595	0813						
200	301030	1247	1464	1681	1898	2114	2331	2547	2764	2980										
1	3196	3412	3628	3844	4059	4275	4491	4706	4921	5136										
2	5351	5566	5781	5996	6211	6425	6639	6854	7068	7282										
3	7496	7710	7924	8137	8351	8564	8778	8991	9204	9417										
4	9630	9843																		
5	311754	1966	2177	2389	2600	2812	3023	3234	3445	3656										
6	3867	4078	4289	4499	4710	4920	5130	5340	5551	5760										
7	5970	6180	6390	6599	6809	7018	7227	7436	7646	7854										
8	8063	8272	8481	8690	8898	9106	9314	9522	9730	9938										
9	330146	0854	0562	0769	0977	1184	1391	1598	1805	2012										
210	2219	2426	2633	2839	3046	3253	3458	3665	3871	4077										
1	4282	4488	4694	4899	5105	5310	5516	5721	5926	6131										
2	6336	6541	6745	6950	7155	7359	7563	7767	7972	8176										
3	8380	8583	8787	8991	9194	9398	9601	9805												
4	330414	0617	0819	1022	1225	1427	1630	1832	2034	2236										

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

Diff.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
225	22.5	45.0	67.5	90.0	112.5	135.0	157.5	180.0
224	22.4	44.8	67.2	89.6	112.0	134.4	156.8	179.2
223	22.3	44.6	66.9	89.2	111.5	133.8	156.1	178.4
222	22.2	44.4	66.6	88.8	111.0	133.2	155.4	177.6
221	22.1	44.2	66.3	88.4	110.5	132.6	154.7	176.8
220	22.0	44.0	66.0	88.0	110.0	132.0	154.0	176.0
219	21.9	43.8	65.7	87.6	109.5	131.4	153.3	175.2
218	21.8	43.6	65.4	87.2	109.0	130.8	152.6	174.4
217	21.7	43.4	65.1	86.8	108.5	130.2	151.9	173.6
216	21.6	43.2	64.8	86.4	108.0	129.6	151.2	172.8
215	21.5	43.0	64.5	86.0	107.5	129.0	150.5	172.0
214	21.4	42.8	64.2	85.6	107.0	128.4	149.8	171.2
213	21.3	42.6	63.9	85.2	106.5	127.8	149.1	170.4
212	21.2	42.4	63.6	84.8	106.0	127.2	148.4	169.6
211	21.1	42.2	63.3	84.4	105.5	126.6	147.7	168.8
210	21.0	42.0	63.0	84.0	105.0	126.0	147.0	168.0
209	20.9	41.8	62.7	83.6	104.5	125.4	146.3	167.2
208	20.8	41.6	62.4	83.2	104.0	124.8	145.6	166.4
207	20.7	41.4	62.1	82.8	103.5	124.2	144.9	165.6
"	20.6	41.2	61.8	82.4	103.0	123.6	144.2	164.8
"		41.0	61.5	82.0	102.5	123.0	143.5	164.0
"			61.2	81.6	102.0	122.4	142.8	163.2
"			60.9	81.2	101.5	121.8	142.1	162.4
"			60.6	80.8	101.0	121.2	141.4	161.6

R.]

[No. 239 L. 880.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Diff.
3640	2842	3044	3246	3447	3649	3850	4051	4253	202
4635	4836	5037	5237	5438	5638	5839	6039	6200	201
6600	6800	7000	7200	7459	7659	7858	8058	8257	200
8636	8835	9054	9253	9451	9650	9849			
0642	0841	1039	1237	1435	1632	1830	2028	2225	199
2630	2817	3014	3212	3409	3606	3802	3999	4196	197
4989	4785	4981	5178	5374	5570	5766	5962	6157	196
6549	6744	6939	7135	7330	7525	7720	7915	8110	195
8500	8694	8889	9083	9278	9472	9666			
0442	0636	0829	1023	1216	1410	1603	1796	1989	194
2375	2568	2761	2954	3147	3339	3532	3724	3916	192
4301	4493	4685	4876	5068	5260	5452	5643	5834	192
6217	6408	6599	6790	6981	7172	7363	7554	7744	191
8125	8316	8506	8696	8886	9076	9266	9456	9646	190
0125	0215	0404	0593	0783	0972	1161	1350	1539	189
1917	2105	2294	2482	2671	2859	3048	3236	3424	188
3800	3988	4176	4363	4551	4739	4926	5113	5301	188
5675	5862	6049	6236	6423	6610	6796	6983	7169	187
7542	7729	7915	8101	8287	8473	8659	8845	9030	186
9401	9587	9772	9958						
1253	1437	1622	1806	0143	0328	0513	0698	0883	185
3006	3290	3464	3647	1991	2175	2360	2544	2728	184
4932	5115	5298	5481	3831	4015	4198	4382	4565	184
6759	6942	7124	7306	5664	5846	6029	6212	6394	183
8580	8761	8943	9124	7488	7670	7852	8034	8216	182
				9306	9487	9668	9849		
								0080	181

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0.4	60.6	80.8	101.0	121.2	141.4	161.6	181.8
0.2	60.3	80.4	100.5	120.6	140.7	160.8	180.9
0.0	60.0	80.0	100.0	120.0	140.0	160.0	180.0
0.8	59.7	79.6	99.5	119.4	139.3	159.2	179.1
0.6	59.4	79.2	99.0	118.8	138.6	158.4	178.2
0.4	59.1	78.8	98.5	118.2	137.9	157.6	177.3
0.2	58.8	78.4	98.0	117.6	137.2	156.8	176.4
0.0	58.5	78.0	97.5	117.0	136.5	156.0	175.5
0.8	58.2	77.6	97.0	116.4	135.8	155.2	174.6
0.6	57.9	77.2	96.5	115.8	135.1	154.4	173.7
0.4	57.6	76.8	96.0	115.2	134.4	153.6	172.8
0.2	57.3	76.4	95.5	114.6	133.7	152.8	171.9
0.0	57.0	76.0	95.0	114.0	133.0	152.0	171.0
0.8	56.7	75.6	94.5	113.4	132.3	151.2	170.1
0.6	56.4	75.2	94.0	112.8	131.6	150.4	169.2
0.4	56.1	74.8	93.5	112.2	130.9	149.6	168.3
0.2	55.8	74.4	93.0	111.6	130.2	148.8	167.4
0.0	55.5	74.0	92.5	111.0	129.5	148.0	166.5
0.8	55.2	73.6	92.0	110.4	128.8	147.2	165.6
0.6	54.9	73.2	91.5	109.8	128.1	146.4	164.7
0.4	54.6	72.8	91.0	109.2	127.4	145.6	163.8
0.2	54.3	72.4	90.5	108.6	126.7	144.8	162.9
0.0	54.0	72.0	90.0	108.0	126.0	144.0	162.0
0.8	53.7	71.6	89.5	107.4	125.3	143.2	161.1

No. 240 L. 380.]										[No. 20
N.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
240	380211	0392	0573	0754	0934	1115	1296	1476	1656	1837
1	2017	2.97	2377	2557	2737	2917	3097	3277	3456	3637
2	3815	3995	4174	4353	4533	4712	4891	5070	5249	5429
3	5606	5785	5964	6142	6321	6499	6677	6856	7034	7212
4	7390	7568	7746	7924	8101	8279	8456	8634	8811	8989
5	9166	9343	9520	9698	9875	0051	0228	0405	0582	0759
6	390935	1112	1288	1464	1641	1817	1993	2169	2345	2522
7	2697	2873	3048	3224	3400	3575	3751	3926	4101	4277
8	4452	4627	4802	4977	5152	5326	5501	5676	5850	6025
9	6199	6374	6548	6722	6896	7071	7245	7419	7592	7767
250	7940	8114	8287	8461	8634	8808	8981	9154	9328	9502
1	9674	9847	0020	0192	0365	0538	0711	0883	1056	1229
2	401401	1573	1745	1917	2089	2261	2433	2605	2777	2949
3	3121	2992	3464	3635	3807	3978	4149	4320	4492	4664
4	4834	5005	5176	5346	5517	5688	5858	6029	6199	6370
5	6540	6710	6881	7051	7221	7391	7561	7731	7901	8071
6	8240	8410	8579	8749	8918	9087	9257	9426	9595	9764
7	9933	0102	0271	0440	0609	0777	0946	1114	1283	1451
8	411620	1788	1956	2124	2293	2461	2629	2796	2964	3132
9	3300	3467	3635	3803	3970	4137	4305	4472	4639	4806
260	4973	5140	5307	5474	5641	5808	5974	6141	6308	6475
1	6641	6807	6973	7139	7306	7472	7638	7804	7970	8137
2	8301	8467	8633	8798	8964	9129	9295	9460	9625	9791
3	9956	0121	0286	0451	0616	0781	0945	1110	1275	1440
4	421604	1708	1933	2097	2261	2426	2590	2754	2918	3082
5	3246	3410	3574	3737	3901	4065	4228	4392	4555	4719
6	4882	5045	5208	5371	5534	5697	5860	6023	6186	6349
7	6511	6674	6836	6999	7161	7324	7486	7648	7811	7973
8	8135	8297	8459	8621	8783	8944	9106	9268	9429	9591
9	9752	9914	0075	0236	0398	0559	0720	0881	1042	1203
43										

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

Diff.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
178	17.8	35.6	53.4	71.2	89.0	106.8	124.6	142.4
177	17.7	35.4	53.1	70.8	88.5	106.2	123.9	141.7
176	17.6	35.2	52.8	70.4	88.0	105.6	123.2	141.0
175	17.5	35.0	52.5	70.0	87.5	105.0	122.5	140.3
174	17.4	34.8	52.2	69.6	87.0	104.4	121.8	139.6
173	17.3	34.6	51.9	69.2	86.5	103.8	121.1	138.9
172	17.2	34.4	51.6	68.8	86.0	103.2	120.4	138.2
171	17.1	34.2	51.3	68.4	85.5	102.6	119.7	137.5
170	17.0	34.0	51.0	68.0	85.0	102.0	119.0	136.8
169	16.9	33.8	50.7	67.6	84.5	101.4	118.3	136.1
168	16.8	33.6	50.4	67.2	84.0	100.8	117.6	135.4
167	16.7	33.4	50.1	66.8	83.5	100.2	116.9	134.7
166	16.6	33.2	49.8	66.4	83.0	99.6	116.2	134.0
165	16.5	33.0	49.5	66.0	82.5	99.0	115.5	133.3
164	16.4	32.8	49.2	65.6	82.0	98.4	114.8	132.6
			49.9	65.2	81.5	97.8	114.1	131.9
			50.6	64.8	81.0	97.2	113.4	131.2
			51.3	64.4	80.5	96.6	112.7	130.5

[No. 431.]

[No. 299 L. 476.]

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Diff.
431964	1525	1685	1846	2007	2167	2328	2488	2649	2809	161
2969	3130	3290	3450	3610	3770	3930	4090	4249	4409	160
4569	4729	4888	5048	5207	5367	5526	5685	5844	6004	159
6168	6328	6481	6640	6799	6957	7116	7275	7433	7592	159
7751	7909	8067	8226	8384	8542	8701	8859	9017	9175	158
9333	9491	9648	9806	9964	0122	0279	0437	0594	0752	158
440009	1066	1224	1381	1538	1695	1852	2009	2166	2323	157
2480	2637	2793	2950	3106	3263	3419	3576	3732	3889	157
4045	4201	4357	4513	4669	4825	4981	5137	5293	5449	156
5604	5760	5915	6071	6226	6382	6537	6692	6848	7003	155
7158	7313	7468	7623	7778	7933	8088	8242	8397	8552	155
8706	8861	9015	9170	9324	9478	9633	9787	9941	0095	154
450249	0408	0557	0711	0865	1018	1172	1326	1479	1633	154
1786	1940	2093	2247	2400	2553	2706	2859	3012	3165	153
3318	3471	3624	3777	3930	4082	4235	4387	4540	4692	153
4845	4997	5150	5302	5454	5606	5758	5910	6062	6214	152
6366	6518	6670	6821	6973	7125	7276	7428	7579	7731	152
7882	8033	8184	8336	8487	8638	8789	8940	9091	9242	151
9392	9543	9694	9845	9995	0146	0296	0447	0597	0748	151
460898	1048	1198	1348	1499	1649	1799	1948	2098	2248	150
2398	2548	2697	2847	2997	3146	3296	3445	3594	3744	150
3893	4042	4191	4340	4490	4639	4788	4936	5085	5234	149
5383	5532	5680	5829	5977	6126	6274	6423	6571	6719	149
6868	7016	7164	7312	7460	7608	7756	7904	8052	8200	148
8247	8395	8543	8690	8838	9085	9233	9380	9527	9675	148
9822	9969	0116	0263	0410	0557	0704	0851	0998	1145	147
471292	1438	1585	1732	1878	2025	2171	2318	2464	2610	146
2756	2903	3049	3195	3341	3487	3633	3779	3925	4071	146
4216	4362	4508	4653	4799	4944	5090	5235	5381	5526	146
5671	5816	5962	6107	6252	6397	6542	6687	6832	6976	145

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

Diff.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
161	16.1	32.2	48.3	64.4	80.5	96.6	112.7	128.8	144.9
160	16.0	32.0	48.0	64.0	80.0	96.0	112.0	128.0	144.0
159	15.9	31.8	47.7	63.6	79.5	95.4	111.3	127.2	143.1
158	15.8	31.6	47.4	63.2	79.0	94.8	110.6	126.4	142.2
157	15.7	31.4	47.1	62.8	78.5	94.2	109.9	125.6	141.3
156	15.6	31.2	46.8	62.4	78.0	93.6	109.2	124.8	140.4
155	15.5	31.0	46.5	62.0	77.5	93.0	108.5	124.0	139.5
154	15.4	30.8	46.2	61.6	77.0	92.4	107.8	123.2	138.6
153	15.3	30.6	45.9	61.2	76.5	91.8	107.1	122.4	137.7
152	15.2	30.4	45.6	60.8	76.0	91.2	106.4	121.6	136.8
151	15.1	30.2	45.3	60.4	75.5	90.6	105.7	120.8	135.9
150	15.0	30.0	45.0	60.0	75.0	90.0	105.0	120.0	135.0
149	14.9	29.8	44.7	59.6	74.5	89.4	104.3	119.2	134.1
148	14.8	29.6	44.4	59.2	74.0	88.8	103.6	118.4	133.2
147	14.7	29.4	44.1	58.8	73.5	88.2	102.9	117.6	132.3
146	14.6	29.2	43.8	58.4	73.0	87.6	102.2	116.8	131.4
145	14.5	29.0	43.5	58.0	72.5	87.0	101.5	116.0	130.5
144	14.4	28.8	43.2	57.6	72.0	86.4	100.8	115.2	129.6
143	14.3	28.6	42.9	57.2	71.5	85.8	100.1	114.4	128.7
142	14.2	28.4	42.6	56.8	71.0	85.2	99.4	113.6	127.8
141	14.1	28.2	42.3	56.4	70.5	84.6	98.7	112.8	126.9
140	14.0	28.0	42.0	56.0	70.0	84.0	98.0	112.0	126.0

No. 300 L. 477.]

[No. 330 L. 4

N.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Diff.
300	477121	7366	7411	7555	7700	7844	7989	8133	8278	8422	14
1	8566	8711	8855	8999	9143	9287	9431	9575	9719	9863	14
2	480007	0151	0294	0438	0582	0725	0869	1012	1156	1299	14
3	1443	1586	1729	1873	2016	2159	2302	2445	2588	2731	14
4	2874	3016	3159	3302	3445	3587	3730	3872	4015	4157	14
5	4300	4442	4585	4727	4869	5011	5153	5295	5437	5579	14
6	5721	5863	6005	6147	6289	6430	6572	6714	6855	6997	14
7	7138	7280	7421	7563	7704	7845	7986	8127	8269	8410	14
8	8551	8692	8833	8974	9114	9255	9396	9537	9677	9818	14
9	9938	0099	0239	0380	0520	0661	0801	0941	1081	1222	14
310	491362	1502	1642	1783	1922	2062	2201	2341	2481	2621	14
1	2760	2900	3040	3179	3319	3458	3597	3737	3876	4015	14
2	4155	4294	4433	4572	4711	4850	4989	5128	5267	5406	14
3	5544	5683	5822	5960	6099	6238	6376	6515	6653	6791	14
4	6930	7068	7206	7344	7483	7621	7759	7897	8035	8173	14
5	8311	8448	8586	8724	8862	8999	9137	9275	9412	9550	14
6	9687	9824	9962	0099	0236	0374	0511	0648	0785	0922	14
7	501050	1196	1333	1470	1607	1744	1880	2017	2154	2291	14
8	2427	2564	2700	2837	2973	3109	3246	3382	3518	3655	14
9	3791	3927	4063	4199	4335	4471	4607	4743	4878	5014	14
320	5150	5286	5421	5557	5693	5828	5964	6099	6234	6370	14
1	6505	6640	6776	6911	7046	7181	7316	7451	7586	7721	14
2	7856	7991	8126	8260	8395	8530	8664	8799	8934	9068	14
3	9303	9337	9471	9606	9740	9874	0009	0143	0277	0411	14
4	510545	0679	0813	0947	1081	1215	1349	1482	1616	1750	14
5	1883	2017	2151	2284	2418	2551	2684	2818	2951	3084	14
6	3218	3351	3484	3617	3750	3883	4016	4149	4282	4415	14
7	4548	4681	4813	4946	5079	5211	5344	5476	5609	5741	14
8	5874	6006	6139	6271	6403	6535	6668	6800	6932	7064	14
9	7196	7328	7460	7592	7724	7855	7987	8119	8251	8382	14
330	8514	8646	8777	8909	9040	9171	9303	9434	9566	9697	14
1	9828	9959	0090	0221	0353	0484	0615	0745	0876	1007	14
2	521138	1259	1400	1539	1671	1792	1922	2053	2183	2314	14
3	2444	2575	2705	2835	2966	3096	3226	3356	3486	3616	14
4	3746	3876	4006	4136	4266	4396	4526	4656	4785	4915	14
5	5045	5174	5304	5434	5563	5693	5822	5951	6081	6210	14
6	6539	6669	6798	6927	7056	7185	7314	7443	7572	7701	14
7	7630	7759	7888	8016	8145	8274	8402	8531	8660	8788	14
8	8917	9045	9174	9302	9430	9559	9687	9815	9943	0072	14
9	530200	0328	0456	0584	0712	0840	0968	1096	1223	1351	14

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

Diff.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
139	13.9	27.8	41.7	55.6	69.5	83.4	97.3	111.2
138	13.8	27.6	41.4	55.2	69.0	82.8	96.6	110.4
137	13.7	27.4	41.1	54.8	68.5	82.2	95.9	109.6
136	13.6	27.2	40.8	54.4	68.0	81.6	95.2	108.8
135	13.5	27.0	40.5	54.0	67.5	81.0	94.5	108.0
134	13.4	26.8	40.2	53.6	67.0	80.4	93.8	107.2
133	13.3	26.6	39.9	53.2	66.5	79.8	93.1	106.4
132	13.2	26.4	39.6	52.8	66.0	79.2	92.4	105.6
131	13.1	26.2	39.3	52.4	65.5	78.6	91.7	104.8
130	13.0	26.0	39.0	52.0	65.0	78.0	91.0	104.0
129	12.9	25.8	38.7	51.6	64.5	77.4	90.3	103.2
128	12.8	25.6	38.4	51.2	64.0	76.8	89.6	102.4

[No. L. 531.]

[No. 379 L. 570.]

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Diff.
531479	1607	1734	1862	1990	2117	2245	2372	2500	2627	128
2754	2882	3009	3136	3264	3391	3518	3645	3772	3899	127
4026	4153	4280	4407	4534	4661	4787	4914	5041	5167	127
5294	5421	5547	5674	5800	5927	6053	6180	6306	6432	126
6558	6685	6811	6937	7063	7189	7315	7441	7567	7693	126
7819	7945	8071	8197	8322	8448	8574	8699	8825	8951	126
9076	9202	9327	9452	9578	9703	9829	9954			
								0079	0204	125
540329	0455	0580	0705	0830	0955	1080	1205	1330	1454	125
1579	1704	1829	1953	2078	2203	2327	2452	2576	2701	125
2825	2950	3074	3199	3323	3447	3571	3696	3820	3944	124
4068	4192	4316	4440	4564	4688	4812	4936	5060	5183	124
5307	5431	5555	5678	5802	5925	6049	6172	6296	6419	124
6543	6666	6789	6913	7036	7159	7282	7405	7529	7652	123
7775	7898	8021	8144	8267	8389	8512	8635	8758	8881	123
9003	9126	9249	9371	9494	9616	9739	9861	9984		
									0106	123
550228	0351	0473	0595	0717	0840	0962	1084	1206	1328	122
1450	1572	1694	1816	1938	2060	2181	2303	2425	2547	122
2698	2790	2911	3032	3153	3274	3395	3516	3637	3758	121
3883	4004	4125	4247	4368	4489	4610	4731	4852	4973	121
5094	5215	5336	5457	5578	5699	5820	5940	6061	6182	121
6303	6423	6544	6664	6785	6905	7025	7146	7267	7387	120
7507	7627	7748	7868	7988	8108	8228	8349	8469	8589	120
8709	8829	8949	9068	9188	9308	9428	9548	9667	9787	120
9907										
	0026	0146	0265	0385	0504	0624	0743	0863	0982	119
561101	1221	1340	1459	1578	1698	1817	1936	2055	2174	119
2293	2412	2531	2650	2769	2887	3006	3125	3244	3363	119
3481	3600	3719	3837	3955	4074	4192	4311	4429	4548	119
4666	4784	4903	5021	5139	5257	5375	5494	5612	5730	118
5848	5966	6084	6202	6320	6437	6555	6673	6791	6909	118
7026	7144	7262	7379	7497	7614	7732	7849	7967	8084	118
8202	8319	8436	8554	8671	8788	8905	9023	9140	9257	117
9374	9491	9608	9725	9842	9959					
						0076	0193	0309	0426	117
570543	0690	0776	0893	1010	1126	1243	1359	1476	1592	117
1709	1825	1942	2058	2174	2291	2407	2523	2639	2755	116
2872	2988	3104	3220	3336	3452	3568	3684	3800	3915	116
4031	4147	4263	4379	4494	4610	4726	4841	4957	5072	116
5185	5303	5419	5534	5650	5765	5880	5996	6111	6226	116
6341	6457	6572	6687	6802	6917	7032	7147	7262	7377	115
7492	7607	7722	7836	7951	8066	8181	8295	8410	8525	115
8639	8754	8868	8983	9097	9212	9326	9441	9555	9669	114

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

Diff.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
128	12.8	25.6	38.4	51.2	64.0	76.8	89.6	102.4	115.2
127	12.7	25.4	38.1	50.8	63.5	76.2	88.9	101.6	114.3
126	12.6	25.2	37.8	50.4	63.0	75.6	88.2	100.8	113.4
125	12.5	25.0	37.5	50.0	62.5	75.0	87.5	100.0	112.5
124	12.4	24.8	37.2	49.6	62.0	74.4	86.8	99.2	111.6
123	12.3	24.6	36.9	49.2	61.5	73.8	86.1	98.4	110.7
122	12.2	24.4	36.6	48.8	61.0	73.2	85.4	97.6	109.8
121	12.1	24.2	36.3	48.4	60.5	72.6	84.7	96.8	108.9
120	12.0	24.0	36.0	48.0	60.0	72.0	84.0	96.0	108.0
119	11.9	23.8	35.7	47.6	59.5	71.4	83.3	95.2	107.1

No. 300 L. 477.]

[No. 330 L.

N.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
300	477121	7366	7411	7555	7700	7844	7989	8133	8278	8422
1	8566	8711	8855	8999	9143	9287	9431	9575	9719	9863
2	480007	0151	0294	0438	0582	0725	0869	1012	1156	1300
3	1443	1586	1729	1872	2015	2159	2302	2445	2588	2731
4	2874	3016	3159	3302	3445	3587	3730	3872	4015	4157
5	4300	4442	4585	4727	4869	5011	5153	5295	5437	5579
6	5721	5863	6005	6147	6289	6430	6572	6714	6855	6997
7	7128	7280	7421	7563	7704	7845	7986	8127	8269	8410
8	8551	8692	8833	8974	9114	9255	9396	9537	9677	9818
9	9658	0099	0239	0380	0520	0661	0801	0941	1081	1222
310	491302	1502	1642	1782	1922	2062	2201	2341	2481	2621
1	2760	2900	3040	3179	3319	3458	3597	3737	3876	4015
2	4155	4294	4433	4572	4711	4850	4989	5128	5267	5406
3	5544	5683	5822	5960	6099	6238	6376	6515	6653	6792
4	6930	7068	7206	7344	7483	7621	7759	7897	8035	8173
5	8311	8448	8586	8724	8862	8999	9137	9275	9412	9550
6	9687	9824	9962	0099	0236	0374	0511	0648	0785	0922
7	501050	1196	1333	1470	1607	1744	1880	2017	2154	2291
8	2427	2564	2700	2837	2973	3109	3246	3382	3518	3655
9	3791	3927	4063	4199	4335	4471	4607	4743	4878	5014
320	5150	5286	5421	5557	5693	5828	5964	6099	6234	6370
1	6505	6640	6776	6911	7046	7181	7316	7451	7586	7721
2	7856	7991	8126	8260	8395	8530	8664	8799	8934	9068
3	9303	9337	9471	9606	9740	9874	0009	0143	0277	0411
4	510545	0679	0813	0947	1081	1215	1349	1482	1616	1750
5	1883	2017	2151	2284	2418	2551	2684	2818	2951	3084
6	3218	3351	3484	3617	3750	3883	4016	4149	4282	4415
7	4548	4681	4813	4946	5079	5211	5344	5476	5609	5741
8	5874	6006	6139	6271	6403	6535	6668	6800	6932	7064
9	7195	7328	7460	7592	7724	7855	7987	8119	8251	8382
330	8514	8646	8777	8909	9040	9171	9303	9434	9566	9697
1	9828	9950	0090	0221	0353	0484	0615	0745	0876	1007
2	521138	1250	1400	1530	1661	1792	1922	2053	2183	2314
3	2444	2575	2705	2835	2966	3096	3226	3356	3486	3616
4	3746	3876	4006	4136	4266	4396	4526	4656	4785	4915
5	5045	5174	5304	5434	5563	5693	5822	5951	6081	6210
6	6339	6469	6598	6727	6856	6985	7114	7243	7372	7501
7	7630	7759	7888	8016	8145	8274	8402	8531	8660	8788
8	8917	9045	9174	9302	9430	9559	9687	9815	9943	0072
9	530200	0328	0456	0584	0712	0840	0968	1096	1223	1351

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

Diff.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
139	13.0	27.8	41.7	55.6	69.5	83.4	97.3	111.2
138	13.8	27.6	41.4	55.2	69.0	82.8	96.6	110.4
137	13.7	27.4	41.1	54.8	68.5	82.2	95.9	109.8
136	13.6	27.2	40.8	54.4	68.0	81.6	95.2	109.2
135	13.5	27.0	40.5	54.0	67.5	81.0	94.5	108.6
134	13.4	26.8	40.2	53.6	67.0	80.4	93.8	107.9
133	13.3	26.6	39.9	53.2	66.5	79.8	93.1	107.3
132	13.2	26.4	39.6	52.8	66.0	79.2	92.4	106.6
131	13.1	26.2	39.3	52.4	65.5	78.6	91.7	106.0
130	13.0	26.0	39.0	52.0	65.0	78.0	91.0	105.4
129	12.9	25.8	38.7	51.6	64.5	77.4	90.3	104.8
128	12.8	25.6	38.4	51.2	64.0	76.8	89.6	104.2

[No. 459 L. 662.]

3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Diff.
862	8466	8571	8676	8780	8884	8989	105
906	9511	9615	9719	9824	9928		
						0032	
948	0552	0656	0760	0864	0968	1072	104
988	1592	1695	1799	1903	2007	2110	
525	2628	2732	2835	2939	3042	3146	
559	3663	3766	3869	3973	4076	4179	
591	4695	4798	4901	5004	5107	5210	103
621	5724	5827	5929	6032	6135	6238	
648	6751	6853	6956	7058	7161	7263	
673	7775	7878	7980	8082	8185	8287	
695	8797	8900	9002	9104	9206	9308	102
715	9817	9919					
			0021	0123	0224	0326	
733	0835	0936	1038	1139	1241	1342	
748	1849	1951	2052	2153	2255	2356	
2761	2862	2963	3064	3165	3266	3367	
3771	3872	3973	4074	4175	4276	4376	101
4779	4880	4981	5081	5182	5283	5383	
5785	5886	5986	6087	6187	6287	6388	
6789	6889	6989	7089	7189	7290	7390	
7790	7890	7990	8090	8190	8290	8389	100
8789	8888	8988	9088	9188	9287	9387	
9785	9885	9984					
			0084	0183	0283	0382	
			0978	1077	1177	1276	1375
0779	0879	1970	2069	2168	2267	2366	
1771	1871	2959	3058	3156	3255	3354	99
2761	2860						
		3946	4044	4143	4242	4340	
		4931	5029	5127	5226	5324	
		5913	6011	6110	6208	6306	
		6894	6992	7089	7187	7285	98
		7872	7969	8067	8165	8262	
		8848	8945	9043	9140	9237	
		9821	9919				
				0016	0113	0210	
302	0599	0696	0793	0890	0987	1084	97
472	1569	1666	1762	1859	1956	2053	
440	2536	2633	2730	2826	2923	3019	
3405	3502	3598	3695	3791	3888	3984	4080
4309	4465	4562	4658	4754	4850	4946	5042
5331	5427	5523	5619	5715	5810	5906	6002
6290	6386	6482	6577	6673	6769	6864	6960
7247	7343	7438	7534	7629	7725	7820	7916
8202	8298	8393	8488	8584	8679	8774	8870
9155	9250	9346	9441	9536	9631	9726	9821
			0391	0486	0581	0676	0771
			1339	1434	1529	1623	1718
			2286	2380	2475	2569	2663

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
21.0	31.5	42.0	52.5	63.0	73.5	84.0	94.5
20.8	31.2	41.6	52.0	62.4	72.8	83.2	93.6
20.6	30.9	41.2	51.5	61.8	72.1	82.4	92.7
20.4	30.6	40.8	51.0	61.2	71.4	81.6	91.8
20.2	30.3	40.4	50.5	60.6	70.7	80.8	90.9
20.0	30.0	40.0	50.0	60.0	70.0	80.0	90.0
19.8	29.7	39.6	49.5	59.4	69.3	79.2	89.1

No. 460 L. 662.]

[No. 499 L.

N	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
460	662758	2852	2947	3041	3135	3229	3324	3418	3512	3607
1	3701	3795	3889	3983	4078	4172	4266	4360	4454	4548
2	4642	4736	4830	4924	5018	5112	5206	5299	5393	5487
3	5581	5675	5769	5862	5956	6050	6143	6237	6331	6424
4	6518	6612	6705	6799	6892	6986	7079	7173	7266	7360
5	7453	7546	7640	7733	7826	7920	8013	8106	8199	8293
6	8380	8473	8572	8665	8759	8852	8945	9038	9131	9224
7	9317	9410	9503	9596	9689	9782	9875	9967	0060	0153
8	070246	0339	0431	0524	0617	0710	0802	0895	0988	1080
9	1173	1265	1358	1451	1543	1636	1728	1821	1913	2005
470	2098	2190	2283	2375	2467	2560	2652	2744	2836	2929
1	3021	3113	3205	3297	3390	3482	3574	3666	3758	3850
2	3942	4034	4126	4218	4310	4402	4494	4586	4677	4769
3	4861	4953	5045	5137	5228	5320	5412	5503	5595	5687
4	5778	5870	5962	6053	6145	6236	6328	6419	6511	6602
5	6694	6785	6876	6968	7059	7151	7242	7333	7424	7515
6	7607	7698	7789	7881	7972	8063	8154	8245	8336	8427
7	8518	8609	8700	8791	8882	8973	9064	9155	9246	9337
8	9428	9519	9610	9700	9791	9882	9973	0063	0154	0245
9	080330	0426	0517	0607	0698	0789	0879	0970	1060	1151
480	1241	1332	1422	1513	1603	1693	1784	1874	1964	2055
1	2145	2235	2326	2416	2506	2596	2686	2777	2867	2957
2	3047	3137	3227	3317	3407	3497	3587	3677	3767	3857
3	3947	4037	4127	4217	4307	4396	4486	4576	4666	4756
4	4845	4935	5025	5114	5204	5294	5383	5473	5563	5652
5	5742	5831	5921	6010	6100	6189	6279	6368	6458	6547
6	6636	6726	6815	6904	6994	7083	7172	7261	7351	7440
7	7529	7618	7707	7796	7886	7975	8064	8153	8242	8331
8	8420	8509	8598	8687	8776	8865	8953	9042	9131	9220
9	9309	9398	9486	9575	9664	9753	9841	9930	0019	0107
490	690196	0285	0373	0462	0550	0639	0728	0816	0905	0993
1	1081	1170	1258	1347	1435	1524	1612	1700	1789	1877
2	1965	2053	2142	2230	2318	2406	2494	2583	2671	2759
3	2847	2935	3023	3111	3199	3287	3375	3463	3551	3639
4	3727	3815	3903	3991	4078	4166	4254	4342	4430	4517
5	4605	4693	4781	4868	4956	5044	5131	5219	5307	5394
6	5482	5569	5657	5744	5832	5919	6007	6094	6182	6269
7	6356	6444	6531	6618	6706	6793	6880	6968	7055	7142
8	7229	7317	7404	7491	7578	7665	7752	7839	7926	8014
9	8100	8188	8275	8362	8449	8535	8622	8709	8796	8883

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

Diff.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
98	9.8	19.6	29.4	39.2	49.0	58.8	68.6	78.4
97	9.7	19.4	29.1	38.8	48.5	58.2	67.9	77.6
96	9.6	19.2	28.8	38.4	48.0	57.6	67.2	76.8
95	9.5	19.0	28.5	38.0	47.5	57.0	66.5	76.0
94	9.4	18.8	28.2	37.6	47.0	56.4	65.8	75.2
93	9.3	18.6	27.9	37.2	46.5	55.8	65.1	74.4
92	9.2	18.4	27.6	36.8	46.0	55.2	64.4	73.6
91	9.1	18.2	27.3	36.4	45.5	54.6	63.7	72.8
90	9.0	18.0	27.0	36.0	45.0	54.0	63.0	72.0
			26.7	35.6	44.5	53.4	62.3	71.2
			26.4	35.2	44.0	52.8	61.6	70.4
			.1	34.8	43.5	52.2	60.9	69.6
			8	34.4	43.0	51.6	60.2	68.8

[No. 544 L. 736.]

2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Diff.
144	9231	9317	9404	9491	9578	9664	9751	
011	0098	0184	0271	0358	0444	0531	0617	
577	0963	1050	1136	1222	1309	1395	1482	
741	1827	1913	1999	2086	2172	2258	2344	
803	2689	2775	2861	2947	3033	3119	3205	
603	3549	3635	3721	3807	3893	3979	4065	86
222	4408	4494	4579	4665	4751	4837	4922	
79	5265	5350	5436	5522	5607	5693	5778	
85	6120	6206	6291	6376	6462	6547	6632	
88	6974	7059	7144	7229	7315	7400	7485	
40	7826	7911	7996	8081	8166	8251	8336	85
01	8676	8761	8846	8931	9015	9100	9185	
40	9524	9609	9694	9779	9863	9948		
							0033	
87	0371	0456	0540	0625	0710	0794	0879	
32	1217	1301	1385	1470	1554	1639	1723	
76	2060	2144	2229	2313	2397	2481	2566	
18	2902	2986	3070	3154	3238	3322	3407	84
59	3742	3826	3910	3994	4078	4162	4246	
97	4581	4665	4749	4833	4916	5000	5084	
35	5418	5502	5586	5669	5753	5836	5920	
70	6254	6337	6421	6504	6588	6671	6754	
04	7088	7171	7254	7338	7421	7504	7587	
37	7920	8003	8086	8169	8252	8335	8419	83
68	8751	8834	8917	9000	9083	9165	9248	
107	9580	9663	9745	9828	9911	9994		
							0077	
325	0407	0490	0573	0655	0738	0821	0903	
151	1233	1316	1398	1481	1563	1646	1728	
975	2058	2140	2222	2305	2387	2469	2552	
798	2881	2963	3045	3127	3209	3291	3374	
620	3702	3784	3866	3948	4030	4112	4194	82
440	4522	4604	4685	4767	4849	4931	5013	
258	5340	5422	5503	5585	5667	5748	5830	
9075	6156	6238	6320	6401	6483	6564	6646	
3890	6972	7053	7134	7216	7297	7379	7460	
7704	7785	7866	7948	8029	8110	8191	8273	
8516	8597	8678	8759	8841	8922	9003	9084	
9327	9408	9489	9570	9651	9732	9813	9895	81
0136	0217	0298	0378	0459	0540	0621	0702	
0944	1024	1105	1186	1266	1347	1428	1508	
1750	1830	1911	1991	2072	2152	2233	2313	
2555	2635	2715	2796	2876	2956	3037	3117	
3358	3438	3518	3598	3679	3759	3839	3919	
4160	4240	4320	4400	4480	4560	4640	4720	80
4960	5040	5120	5200	5279	5359	5439	5519	
5759	5838	5918	5998	6078	6157	6237	6317	

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
4	20.1	34.8	43.5	52.2	60.9	69.6	78.3
2	25.8	34.4	43.0	51.6	60.2	68.8	77.4
0	25.5	34.0	42.5	51.0	59.5	68.0	76.5
7	25.2	33.6	42.0	50.4	58.8	67.2	75.6

LOGARITHMS OF NUMBERS.

545 L. 736.]

[No. 584 L. 767.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Diff.
736397	6476	6556	6635	6715	6795	6874	6954	7034	7113	
7193	7272	7352	7431	7511	7590	7670	7749	7829	7908	
7987	8067	8146	8225	8305	8384	8463	8543	8622	8701	
8781	8860	8939	9018	9097	9177	9256	9335	9414	9493	
9572	9651	9731	9810	9889	9968	0047	0126	0205	0284	70
740363	0442	0521	0600	0678	0757	0836	0915	0994	1073	
1152	1230	1309	1388	1467	1546	1624	1703	1782	1860	
1939	2018	2096	2175	2254	2332	2411	2489	2568	2647	
2725	2804	2882	2961	3039	3118	3196	3275	3353	3431	
3510	3588	3667	3745	3823	3902	3980	4058	4136	4215	
4293	4371	4449	4528	4606	4684	4762	4840	4919	4997	
5075	5153	5231	5309	5387	5465	5543	5621	5699	5777	78
5855	5933	6011	6089	6167	6245	6323	6401	6479	6556	
6634	6712	6790	6868	6945	7023	7101	7179	7256	7334	
7412	7489	7567	7645	7722	7800	7878	7955	8033	8110	
8188	8266	8343	8421	8498	8576	8653	8731	8808	8885	
8963	9040	9118	9195	9272	9350	9427	9504	9582	9659	
9736	9814	9891	9968	0045	0123	0200	0277	0354	0431	
750508	0586	0663	0740	0817	0894	0971	1048	1125	1202	
1279	1356	1433	1510	1587	1664	1741	1818	1895	1972	
2048	2125	2202	2279	2356	2433	2509	2586	2663	2740	77
2816	2893	2970	3047	3123	3200	3277	3353	3430	3506	
3583	3660	3736	3813	3889	3966	4042	4119	4195	4272	
4348	4425	4501	4578	4654	4730	4807	4883	4960	5036	
5112	5189	5265	5341	5417	5494	5570	5646	5722	5799	
5875	5951	6027	6103	6180	6256	6332	6408	6484	6560	76
6636	6712	6788	6864	6940	7016	7092	7168	7244	7320	
7396	7472	7548	7624	7700	7775	7851	7927	8003	8079	
8155	8230	8306	8382	8458	8533	8609	8685	8761	8836	
8912	8988	9063	9139	9214	9290	9366	9441	9517	9592	
9668	9743	9819	9894	9970	0045	0121	0196	0272	0347	
760422	0498	0573	0649	0724	0799	0875	0950	1025	1101	
1176	1251	1326	1402	1477	1552	1627	1702	1778	1853	
1928	2003	2078	2153	2228	2303	2378	2453	2529	2604	3
2679	2754	2829	2904	2978	3053	3128	3203	3278	3353	
3428	3503	3578	3653	3727	3802	3877	3952	4027	4101	
4176	4251	4326	4400	4475	4550	4624	4699	4774	4848	
4923	4998	5072	5147	5221	5296	5370	5445	5520	5594	
5660	5734	5818	5892	5966	6041	6115	6190	6264	6338	
6413	6487	6562	6636	6710	6785	6859	6933	7007	7082	

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

ff.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
3	8.3	16.6	24.9	33.2	41.5	49.8	58.1	66.4	74.7
2	8.2	16.4	24.6	32.8	41.0	49.2	57.4	65.6	73.8
1	8.1	16.2	24.3	32.4	40.5	48.6	56.7	64.8	72.9
0	8.0	16.0	24.0	32.0	40.0	48.0	56.0	64.0	72.0
9	7.9	15.8	23.7	31.6	39.5	47.4	55.3	63.2	71.1
8	7.8	15.6	23.4	31.2	39.0	46.8	54.6	62.4	70.2
7	7.7	15.4	23.1	30.8	38.5	46.2	53.9	61.6	69.3
6			22.8	30.4	38.0	45.6	53.2	60.8	68.3
5			22.5	30.0	37.5	45.0	52.5	60.0	67.5
4			22.2	29.6	37.0	44.4	51.8	59.2	66.6

[No. 629 L. 799.]

2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Diff.
7304	7379	7453	7527	7601	7675	7749	7823	74
8046	8120	8194	8268	8342	8416	8490	8564	
8786	8860	8934	9008	9082	9156	9230	9303	
9525	9599	9673	9746	9820	9894	9968		
0263	0336	0410	0484	0557	0631	0705	0778	75
0909	1073	1146	1220	1293	1367	1440	1514	
1794	1868	1841	1915	2028	2102	2175	2248	
2408	2542	2615	2688	2762	2835	2908	2981	
3201	3274	3348	3421	3494	3567	3640	3713	76
3833	4006	4079	4152	4225	4298	4371	4444	
4665	4736	4809	4882	4955	5028	5100	5173	
5392	5465	5538	5610	5683	5756	5829	5902	
6190	6193	6265	6338	6411	6483	6556	6629	77
6846	6919	6992	7064	7137	7209	7282	7354	
7572	7644	7717	7789	7862	7934	8006	8079	
8296	8368	8441	8513	8585	8658	8730	8802	
9019	9091	9163	9236	9308	9380	9452	9524	78
9741	9813	9885	9957	0029	0101	0173	0245	
0461	0533	0605	0677	0749	0821	0893	0965	
1181	1253	1324	1396	1468	1540	1612	1684	
1899	1971	2042	2114	2186	2258	2329	2401	79
2616	2688	2759	2831	2902	2974	3046	3117	
3332	3403	3475	3546	3618	3689	3761	3832	
4046	4118	4189	4261	4332	4403	4475	4546	
4760	4831	4902	4974	5045	5116	5187	5259	80
5472	5543	5615	5686	5757	5828	5899	5970	
6183	6254	6325	6396	6467	6538	6609	6680	
6893	6964	7035	7106	7177	7248	7319	7390	
7602	7673	7744	7815	7885	7956	8027	8098	81
8310	8381	8451	8522	8593	8663	8734	8804	
9016	9087	9157	9228	9299	9369	9440	9510	
9722	9792	9863	9933	0004	0074	0144	0215	
0426	0496	0567	0637	0707	0777	0848	0918	82
1129	1199	1269	1340	1410	1480	1550	1620	
1831	1901	1971	2041	2111	2181	2252	2322	
2532	2602	2672	2742	2812	2882	2952	3022	
3231	3301	3371	3441	3511	3581	3651	3721	83
3930	4000	4070	4139	4209	4279	4349	4418	
4627	4697	4767	4836	4906	4976	5045	5115	
5324	5393	5463	5532	5602	5672	5741	5811	
6019	6088	6158	6227	6297	6366	6436	6505	84
6713	6782	6852	6921	6990	7060	7129	7198	
7406	7475	7545	7614	7683	7752	7821	7890	
8098	8167	8236	8305	8374	8443	8513	8582	
8789	8858	8927	8996	9065	9134	9203	9272	85

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0	22.5	30.0	37.5	45.0	52.5	60.0	67.5
1	22.2	29.6	37.0	44.4	51.8	59.2	66.6
2	21.9	29.2	36.5	43.8	51.1	58.4	65.7
3	21.6	28.8	36.0	43.2	50.4	57.6	64.8
4	21.3	28.4	35.5	42.6	49.7	56.8	63.9
5	21.0	28.0	35.0	42.0	49.0	56.0	63.0
6	20.7	27.6	34.5	41.4	48.3	55.2	62.1

[No. 630 L. 799.]

[No. 674 L.]

N.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
630	793841	9409	9478	9547	9616	9685	9754	9823	9892	9961
1	800029	0098	0167	0236	0305	0373	0442	0511	0580	0648
2	0717	0786	0854	0923	0992	1061	1129	1198	1266	1335
3	1404	1472	1541	1609	1678	1747	1815	1884	1952	2021
4	2089	2158	2226	2295	2363	2432	2500	2568	2637	2705
5	2774	2842	2910	2979	3047	3116	3184	3252	3321	3389
6	3457	3525	3594	3662	3730	3798	3867	3935	4003	4071
7	4139	4208	4276	4344	4412	4480	4548	4616	4685	4753
8	4821	4889	4957	5025	5093	5161	5229	5297	5365	5433
9	5501	5569	5637	5705	5773	5841	5908	5976	6044	6112
640	806180	6248	6316	6384	6451	6519	6587	6655	6723	6790
1	6858	6926	6994	7061	7129	7197	7264	7332	7400	7467
2	7535	7603	7670	7738	7806	7873	7941	8008	8076	8143
3	8211	8279	8346	8414	8481	8549	8616	8684	8751	8818
4	8886	8953	9021	9088	9156	9223	9290	9358	9425	9492
5	9560	9627	9694	9762	9829	9896	9964			
6	810233	0300	0367	0434	0501	0569	0636	0703	0770	0837
7	0904	0971	1039	1106	1173	1240	1307	1374	1441	1508
8	1575	1642	1709	1776	1843	1910	1977	2044	2111	2178
9	2245	2312	2379	2445	2512	2579	2646	2713	2780	2847
650	2913	2980	3047	3114	3181	3247	3314	3381	3448	3514
1	3581	3648	3714	3781	3848	3914	3981	4048	4114	4181
2	4248	4314	4381	4447	4514	4581	4647	4714	4780	4847
3	4913	4980	5046	5113	5179	5246	5312	5378	5445	5511
4	5578	5644	5711	5777	5843	5910	5976	6042	6109	6175
5	6241	6308	6374	6440	6506	6573	6639	6705	6771	6838
6	6904	6970	7036	7102	7169	7235	7301	7367	7433	7499
7	7565	7631	7698	7764	7830	7896	7962	8028	8094	8160
8	8226	8292	8358	8424	8490	8556	8622	8688	8754	8820
9	8885	8951	9017	9083	9149	9215	9281	9346	9412	9478
660	9544	9610	9676	9741	9807	9873	9939			
								0004	0070	0136
1	830201	0267	0333	0399	0464	0530	0595	0661	0727	0792
2	0858	0924	0989	1055	1120	1186	1251	1317	1382	1448
3	1514	1579	1645	1710	1775	1841	1906	1972	2037	2103
4	2168	2233	2299	2364	2430	2495	2560	2626	2691	2756
5	2822	2887	2952	3018	3083	3148	3213	3279	3344	3409
6	3474	3539	3605	3670	3735	3800	3865	3930	3996	4061
7	4126	4191	4256	4321	4386	4451	4516	4581	4646	4711
8	4776	4841	4906	4971	5036	5101	5166	5231	5296	5361
9	5426	5491	5556	5621	5686	5751	5816	5880	5945	6010
670	6073	6140	6204	6269	6334	6399	6464	6528	6593	6658
1	6723	6787	6852	6917	6981	7046	7111	7175	7240	7305
2	7369	7434	7499	7563	7628	7692	7757	7821	7886	7951
3	8015	8080	8144	8209	8273	8338	8402	8467	8531	8596
4	8660	8724	8789	8853	8918	8982	9046	9111	9175	9239

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

Diff.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
68	6.8	13.6	20.4	27.2	34.0	40.8	47.6	54.4
207		10.4	20.1	29.8	39.5	49.2	58.9	68.6
			19.8	29.4	39.0	48.6	58.2	67.8
			19.5	29.0	38.5	48.0	57.5	67.0
			19.2	28.6	38.0	47.4	56.8	66.2

[No. 719 L. 857.]

	4	5	6	7	8	9	Diff.
7	9561	9625	9690	9754	9818	9882	
9	0204	0268	0332	0396	0460	0525	64
1	0845	0909	0973	1037	1102	1166	
2	1486	1550	1614	1678	1743	1808	
2	2126	2189	2253	2317	2381	2445	
0	2764	2828	2892	2956	3020	3083	
8	3402	3466	3530	3593	3657	3721	
5	4039	4103	4166	4230	4294	4357	
1	4675	4739	4802	4866	4929	4993	
7	5310	5373	5437	5500	5564	5627	
1	5944	6007	6071	6134	6197	6261	
4	6577	6641	6704	6767	6830	6894	
46	7210	7273	7336	7399	7462	7525	
78	7841	7904	7967	8030	8093	8156	63
08	8471	8534	8597	8660	8723	8786	
38	9101	9164	9227	9289	9352	9415	
67	9729	9792	9855	9918	9981	0043	
294	0357	0420	0482	0545	0608	0671	
921	0984	1046	1109	1172	1234	1297	
1547	1610	1672	1735	1797	1860	1922	
2172	2235	2297	2360	2422	2484	2547	
2796	2859	2921	2983	3046	3108	3170	
3420	3482	3544	3606	3669	3731	3793	
4042	4104	4166	4229	4291	4353	4415	
4664	4726	4788	4850	4912	4974	5036	
5284	5346	5408	5470	5532	5594	5656	62
5904	5966	6028	6090	6151	6213	6275	
6523	6585	6646	6708	6770	6832	6894	
7141	7202	7264	7326	7388	7449	7511	
7758	7819	7881	7943	8004	8066	8128	
8374	8435	8497	8559	8620	8682	8743	
8989	9051	9112	9174	9235	9297	9358	
9604	9665	9726	9788	9849	9911	9972	
36	0217	0279	0340	0401	0462	0524	0585
69	0830	0891	0952	1014	1075	1136	1197
81	1442	1503	1564	1625	1686	1747	1808
92	2053	2114	2175	2236	2297	2358	2419
302	2663	2724	2785	2846	2907	2968	3029
211	3272	3333	3394	3455	3516	3577	3637
820	3881	3941	4002	4063	4124	4185	4245
428	4488	4549	4610	4670	4731	4792	4852
1034	5095	5156	5216	5277	5337	5398	5459
3640	5701	5761	5822	5882	5943	6003	6064
6245	6306	6366	6427	6487	6548	6608	6668
8850	6910	6970	7031	7091	7152	7212	7272

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

3	4	5	6	7	8	9
19.5	20.0	22.5	29.0	45.5	62.0	58.5
19.2	25.6	32.0	38.4	44.8	51.2	57.6
18.9	25.2	31.5	37.8	44.1	50.4	56.7
18.6	24.8	31.0	37.2	43.4	49.6	55.8
18.3	24.4	30.5	36.6	42.7	48.8	54.9
18.0	24.0	30.0	36.0	42.0	48.0	54.0

No. 720 L. 857.]

[No. 764 L.

N.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
720	857332	7393	7453	7513	7574	7634	7694	7755	7815	7875
1	7385	7995	8056	8116	8176	8236	8297	8357	8417	8477
2	8537	8597	8657	8718	8778	8838	8898	8958	9018	9078
3	9138	9198	9258	9318	9379	9439	9499	9559	9619	9679
4	9739	9799	9859	9918	9978					
5	860938	8398	8458	8518	8578	8638	8698	8758	8818	8878
6	0937	0996	1056	1116	1176	1235	1295	1355	1415	1475
7	1534	1594	1654	1714	1773	1833	1893	1952	2012	2072
8	2131	2191	2251	2310	2370	2430	2489	2549	2608	2668
9	2728	2787	2847	2906	2966	3025	3085	3144	3204	3263
730	3323	3382	3442	3501	3561	3620	3680	3739	3799	3858
1	3917	3977	4036	4096	4155	4214	4274	4333	4392	4452
2	4511	4570	4630	4689	4748	4808	4867	4926	4985	5045
3	5104	5163	5222	5282	5341	5400	5459	5519	5578	5637
4	5696	5755	5814	5874	5933	5992	6051	6110	6169	6228
5	6287	6346	6405	6465	6524	6583	6642	6701	6760	6819
6	6878	6937	6996	7055	7114	7173	7232	7291	7350	7409
7	7467	7526	7585	7644	7703	7762	7821	7880	7939	7998
8	8056	8115	8174	8233	8292	8350	8409	8468	8527	8586
9	8644	8703	8762	8821	8879	8938	8997	9056	9114	9173
740	9232	9290	9349	9408	9466	9525	9584	9642	9701	9760
1	9818	9877	9935	9994						
2	870404	0462	0521	0579	0638	0696	0755	0813	0872	0930
3	0989	1047	1106	1164	1223	1281	1339	1398	1456	1515
4	1573	1631	1690	1748	1806	1865	1923	1981	2040	2098
5	2156	2215	2273	2331	2389	2448	2506	2564	2622	2681
6	2739	2797	2855	2913	2972	3030	3088	3146	3204	3262
7	3321	3379	3437	3495	3553	3611	3669	3727	3785	3844
8	3902	3960	4018	4076	4134	4192	4250	4308	4366	4424
9	4482	4540	4598	4656	4714	4772	4830	4888	4946	5003
750	5061	5119	5177	5235	5293	5351	5409	5466	5524	5582
1	5640	5698	5756	5813	5871	5929	5987	6045	6102	6160
2	6218	6276	6333	6391	6449	6507	6564	6622	6680	6737
3	6795	6853	6910	6968	7026	7083	7141	7199	7256	7314
4	7371	7429	7487	7544	7602	7659	7717	7774	7832	7889
5	7947	8004	8062	8119	8177	8234	8292	8349	8407	8464
6	8522	8579	8637	8694	8752	8809	8866	8924	8981	9039
7	9096	9153	9211	9268	9325	9383	9440	9497	9555	9612
8	9669	9726	9784	9841	9898	9956				
9	880242	0299	0356	0413	0471	0528	0585	0642	0699	0756
760	0814	0871	0928	0985	1042	1099	1156	1213	1271	1328
1	1385	1442	1499	1556	1613	1670	1727	1784	1841	1898
2	1955	2012	2069	2126	2183	2240	2297	2354	2411	2468
3	2525	2581	2638	2695	2752	2809	2866	2923	2980	3037
4	3093	3150	3207	3264	3321	3377	3434	3491	3548	3605

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

Diff.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
N°			17.7	23.6	29.5	35.4	41.3	47.2
			7.4	23.2	29.0	34.8	40.6	46.4
		1	22.8	28.5	34.2	39.9	45.6	
		8	22.4	28.0	33.6	39.2	44.8	

o. 765 L. 883.]

[No. 809 L. 908.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Diff.
5	889061	3718	3775	3832	3888	3945	4002	4059	4115	4172	
6	4329	4285	4342	4399	4455	4512	4569	4625	4682	4739	
7	4795	4852	4909	4965	5022	5078	5135	5192	5248	5305	
8	5361	5418	5474	5531	5587	5644	5700	5757	5813	5870	
9	5926	5983	6039	6096	6152	6209	6265	6321	6378	6434	
0	6491	6547	6604	6660	6716	6773	6829	6885	6942	6998	
1	7054	7111	7167	7223	7280	7336	7392	7449	7505	7561	
2	7617	7674	7730	7786	7842	7898	7955	8011	8067	8123	
3	8179	8236	8292	8348	8404	8460	8516	8573	8629	8685	
4	8741	8797	8853	8909	8965	9021	9077	9134	9190	9246	
5	9302	9358	9414	9470	9526	9582	9638	9694	9750	9806	50
6	9862	9918	9974								
7	890421	0477	0533	0589	0645	0700	0756	0812	0868	0924	
8	0980	1035	1091	1147	1203	1259	1314	1370	1426	1482	
9	1537	1593	1649	1705	1760	1816	1872	1928	1983	2039	
0	2095	2150	2206	2262	2317	2373	2429	2484	2540	2595	
1	2651	2707	2763	2818	2873	2929	2985	3040	3096	3151	
2	3207	3262	3318	3373	3429	3484	3540	3595	3651	3706	
3	3762	3817	3873	3928	3984	4039	4094	4150	4205	4261	
4	4316	4371	4427	4482	4538	4593	4648	4704	4759	4814	
5	4870	4925	4980	5036	5091	5146	5201	5257	5312	5367	
6	5423	5478	5533	5588	5644	5699	5754	5809	5864	5920	
7	5975	6030	6085	6140	6195	6251	6306	6361	6416	6471	
8	6526	6581	6636	6691	6747	6802	6857	6912	6967	7022	
9	7077	7132	7187	7242	7297	7352	7407	7462	7517	7572	55
0	7627	7682	7737	7792	7847	7902	7957	8012	8067	8122	
1	8176	8231	8286	8341	8396	8451	8506	8561	8616	8671	
2	8725	8780	8835	8890	8944	8999	9054	9109	9164	9218	
3	9273	9328	9383	9437	9492						
4	9541	9595	9650	9705							
5					0039	0094	0149	0203	0258	0312	
6	90007	0432	0476	0531	0586	0640	0695	0749	0804	0859	
7	0913	0968	1022	1077	1131	1186	1240	1295	1349	1404	
8	1458	1513	1567	1622	1676	1731	1785	1840	1894	1948	
9	2003	2057	2112	2166	2221	2275	2329	2384	2438	2492	
0	2547	2601	2655	2710	2764	2818	2873	2927	2981	3036	
1	3090	3144	3199	3253	3307	3361	3416	3470	3524	3578	
2	3632	3687	3741	3795	3849	3904	3958	4012	4066	4120	
3	4174	4229	4283	4337	4391	4445	4499	4553	4607	4661	
4	4716	4770	4824	4878	4932	4986	5040	5094	5148	5202	54
5	5256	5310	5364	5418	5472	5526	5580	5634	5688	5742	
6	5796	5850	5904	5958	6012	6066	6119	6173	6227	6281	
7	6325	6380	6434	6497	6551	6604	6658	6712	6766	6820	
8	6874	6927	6981	7035	7089	7143	7196	7250	7304	7358	
9	7411	7465	7519	7573	7626	7680	7734	7787	7841	7895	
0	7949	8002	8056	8110	8163	8217	8270	8324	8378	8431	

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

Diff.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
57	5.7	11.4	17.1	22.8	28.5	34.2	39.9	45.6	51.3
58	5.8	11.3	16.8	22.4	28.0	33.6	39.2	44.8	50.4
59	5.9	11.0	16.5	22.0	27.5	33.0	38.5	44.0	49.5
60	6.0	10.8	16.2	21.6	27.0	32.4	37.8	43.2	48.6

No. 810 L. 908.]

[No. 854 L.]

N.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	D
810	908455	8589	8592	8646	8699	8753	8807	8860	8914	8967	
1	9021	9074	9128	9181	9235	9289	9342	9396	9449	9503	
2	9556	9610	9663	9716	9770	9823	9877	9930	9984		0037
3	910061	0144	0197	0251	0304	0358	0411	0464	0518	0571	
4	0624	0678	0731	0784	0838	0891	0944	0998	1051	1104	
5	1158	1211	1264	1317	1371	1424	1477	1530	1584	1637	
6	1690	1743	1797	1850	1903	1956	2009	2063	2116	2169	
7	2222	2275	2328	2381	2435	2488	2541	2594	2647	2700	
8	2753	2806	2859	2912	2966	3019	3072	3125	3178	3231	
9	3284	3337	3390	3443	3496	3549	3602	3655	3708	3761	
890	3814	3867	3920	3973	4026	4079	4132	4184	4237	4290	
1	4343	4396	4449	4502	4555	4608	4660	4713	4766	4819	
2	4872	4925	4977	5030	5083	5136	5189	5241	5294	5347	
3	5400	5453	5505	5558	5611	5664	5716	5769	5822	5875	
4	5927	5980	6033	6085	6138	6191	6243	6296	6349	6401	
5	6454	6507	6559	6612	6664	6717	6770	6822	6875	6927	
6	6980	7033	7085	7138	7190	7243	7295	7348	7400	7453	
7	7506	7558	7611	7663	7716	7768	7820	7873	7925	7978	
8	8090	8093	8135	8188	8240	8293	8345	8397	8450	8502	
9	8555	8607	8659	8712	8764	8816	8869	8921	8973	9026	
890	9078	9130	9183	9235	9287	9340	9392	9444	9496	9549	
1	9601	9653	9706	9758	9810	9862	9914	9967		0019	0071
2	920123	0176	0228	0280	0332	0384	0436	0489	0541	0593	
3	0645	0697	0749	0801	0853	0906	0958	1010	1062	1114	
4	1166	1218	1270	1322	1374	1426	1478	1530	1582	1634	
5	1686	1738	1790	1842	1894	1946	1998	2050	2102	2154	
6	2206	2258	2310	2362	2414	2466	2518	2570	2622	2674	
7	2725	2777	2829	2881	2933	2985	3037	3089	3140	3192	
8	3244	3296	3348	3399	3451	3503	3555	3607	3658	3710	
9	3762	3814	3865	3917	3969	4021	4072	4124	4176	4228	
840	4279	4331	4383	4434	4486	4538	4589	4641	4693	4744	
1	4796	4848	4899	4951	5003	5054	5106	5157	5209	5261	
2	5312	5364	5415	5467	5518	5570	5621	5673	5725	5776	
3	5828	5879	5931	5982	6034	6085	6137	6188	6240	6291	
4	6342	6394	6445	6497	6548	6600	6651	6702	6754	6805	
5	6857	6908	6959	7011	7062	7114	7165	7216	7268	7319	
6	7370	7422	7473	7524	7575	7627	7678	7729	7781	7832	
7	7883	7935	7986	8037	8088	8140	8191	8242	8293	8345	
8	8396	8447	8498	8549	8601	8652	8703	8754	8805	8857	
9	8908	8959	9010	9061	9112	9163	9215	9266	9317	9368	
850	9419	9470	9521	9572	9623	9674	9725	9776	9827	9879	
1	9930	9981									
2	990440	0491	0532	0583	0634	0685	0736	0787	0838	0889	
3	0949	1000	1051	1102	1153	1204	1254	1305	1356	1407	
4	1458	1509	1560	1610	1661	1712	1763	1814	1865	1915	

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

Diff.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
53	5.8	10.6	15.9	21.2	26.5	31.8	37.1	42.4
32	5.9	10.4	15.6	20.8	26.0	31.2	36.4	41.6
			15.3	20.4	25.5	30.6	35.7	40.8
			5.0	20.0	25.0	30.0	35.0	40.0

OF NUMBERS.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
917	2068	2118	2169	2220	2271	2322	2372	2423
924	2075	2626	2677	2727	2778	2829	2879	2930
931	2082	3133	3183	3234	3285	3335	3386	3437
938	2089	3639	3690	3740	3791	3841	3892	3943
944	4094	4145	4195	4246	4296	4347	4397	4448
4549	4599	4650	4700	4751	4801	4852	4902	4953
5054	5104	5154	5205	5255	5306	5356	5406	5457
5558	5608	5658	5709	5759	5809	5859	5909	5960
6061	6111	6162	6212	6262	6313	6363	6413	6463
6564	6614	6665	6715	6765	6815	6865	6916	6966
7066	7116	7167	7217	7267	7317	7367	7418	7468
7568	7618	7668	7718	7769	7819	7869	7919	7969
8069	8119	8169	8219	8269	8319	8370	8420	8470
8570	8620	8670	8720	8770	8820	8870	8920	8970
9070	9120	9170	9220	9270	9320	9370	9419	9469
9519	9619	9669	9719	9769	9819	9869	9918	9968
0018	0068	0118	0168	0217	0267	0317	0367	0417
0516	0566	0616	0666	0716	0765	0815	0865	0915
1014	1064	1114	1163	1213	1263	1313	1362	1412
1511	1561	1611	1660	1710	1760	1809	1859	1909
2008	2058	2107	2157	2207	2256	2306	2355	2405
2504	2554	2603	2653	2702	2752	2801	2851	2901
3000	3049	3099	3148	3198	3247	3297	3346	3395
3495	3544	3593	3643	3692	3742	3791	3841	3890
3989	4038	4088	4137	4186	4236	4285	4334	4383
4481	4531	4581	4631	4680	4729	4779	4828	4877
4925	5025	5074	5124	5173	5222	5272	5321	5370
5418	5518	5567	5616	5665	5715	5764	5813	5862
5910	6009	6059	6108	6157	6207	6256	6305	6354
6401	6501	6551	6600	6649	6698	6747	6796	6845
6892	6992	7041	7090	7139	7188	7238	7287	7336
7433	7532	7581	7630	7679	7728	7777	7826	7875
7973	8022	8070	8119	8168	8217	8266	8315	8364
8462	8511	8560	8608	8657	8706	8755	8804	8853
8951	8999	9048	9097	9146	9195	9244	9292	9341
9439	9488	9536	9585	9634	9683	9731	9780	9829
9926	9975	0024	0073	0121	0170	0219	0267	0316
0400	0449	0511	0560	0608	0657	0706	0754	0803
0900	0949	0997	1046	1095	1143	1192	1240	1289
1380	1435	1483	1532	1580	1629	1677	1726	1775
1870	1920	1969	2017	2066	2114	2163	2211	2260
2350	2405	2453	2502	2550	2599	2647	2696	2744
2830	2889	2938	2986	3034	3083	3131	3180	3228
3370	3373	3421	3470	3518	3566	3615	3663	3711
3850	3856	3905	3953	4001	4049	4098	4146	4194

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

3	4	5	6	7	8	9
15.3	20.4	25.5	30.6	35.7	40.8	45.9
15.0	20.0	25.0	30.0	35.0	40.0	45.0
14.7	19.6	24.5	29.4	34.3	39.2	44.1
14.4	19.2	24.0	28.8	33.6	38.4	43.2

No 900 L. 954.]										[No. 944 L.										
N.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
900	954243	4291	4339	4387	4435	4484	4532	4580	4628	4677										
1	4725	4773	4821	4869	4918	4966	5014	5062	5110	5158										
2	5207	5255	5303	5351	5399	5447	5495	5543	5592	5640										
3	5688	5736	5784	5832	5880	5928	5976	6024	6072	6120										
4	6168	6216	6265	6313	6361	6409	6457	6505	6553	6601										
5	6649	6697	6745	6793	6840	6888	6936	6984	7032	7080										
6	7128	7176	7224	7272	7320	7368	7416	7464	7512	7560										
7	7607	7655	7703	7751	7799	7847	7894	7942	7990	8038										
8	8086	8134	8181	8229	8277	8325	8373	8421	8468	8516										
9	8564	8612	8659	8707	8755	8803	8850	8898	8946	8994										
910	9041	9089	9137	9185	9232	9280	9328	9375	9423	9471										
1	9518	9566	9614	9661	9709	9757	9804	9852	9900	9947										
2	9995																			
		0042	0090	0138	0185	0233	0280	0328	0376	0423										
3	960471	0518	0566	0613	0661	0709	0756	0804	0851	0899										
4	0646	0694	0741	0789	0836	0884	0931	0979	1026	1074										
5	1421	1469	1516	1563	1611	1658	1706	1753	1801	1848										
6	1895	1943	1990	2038	2085	2132	2180	2227	2275	2322										
7	2369	2417	2464	2511	2559	2606	2653	2701	2748	2795										
8	2845	2893	2937	2985	3032	3079	3126	3174	3221	3268										
9	3316	3363	3410	3457	3504	3552	3599	3646	3693	3741										
920	3788	3835	3882	3929	3977	4024	4071	4118	4165	4212										
1	4260	4307	4354	4401	4448	4495	4542	4590	4637	4684										
2	4731	4778	4825	4872	4919	4966	5013	5061	5108	5155										
3	5202	5249	5296	5343	5390	5437	5484	5531	5578	5625										
4	5672	5719	5766	5813	5860	5907	5954	6001	6048	6095										
5	6142	6189	6236	6283	6329	6376	6423	6470	6517	6564										
6	6611	6658	6705	6752	6799	6845	6892	6939	6986	7033										
7	7080	7127	7173	7220	7267	7314	7361	7408	7454	7501										
8	7548	7595	7642	7688	7735	7782	7829	7875	7922	7969										
9	8016	8062	8109	8156	8203	8249	8296	8343	8390	8436										
930	8483	8530	8576	8623	8670	8716	8763	8810	8856	8903										
1	8950	8996	9043	9090	9136	9183	9229	9276	9323	9369										
2	9416	9463	9509	9556	9602	9649	9695	9742	9789	9835										
3	9882	9928	9975																	
				0021	0068	0114	0161	0207	0254	0300										
4	970847	0393	0440	0486	0532	0579	0626	0672	0719	0765										
5	0812	0858	0904	0951	0997	1044	1090	1137	1183	1229										
6	1276	1322	1369	1415	1461	1508	1554	1601	1647	1693										
7	1740	1786	1832	1879	1925	1971	2018	2064	2110	2157										
8	2203	2249	2295	2342	2388	2434	2481	2527	2573	2619										
9	2666	2712	2758	2804	2851	2897	2943	2989	3035	3082										
940	3128	3174	3220	3266	3313	3359	3405	3451	3497	3543										
1	3590	3636	3682	3728	3774	3820	3866	3913	3959	4005										
2	4051	4097	4143	4189	4235	4281	4327	4374	4420	4466										
3	4512	4558	4604	4650	4696	4742	4788	4834	4880	4926										
4	4972	5018	5064	5110	5156	5202	5248	5294	5340	5386										

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

Diff.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
47	4.7	9.4	14.1	18.8	23.5	28.2	32.9	37.6
48	4.6	9.2	13.9	18.6	23.3	28.0	32.7	37.4

5.]

[No. 989 L. 995.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Diff.
5478	5524	5570	5616	5662	5707	5753	5799	5845	
5937	5983	6029	6075	6121	6167	6212	6258	6304	
6396	6442	6488	6533	6579	6625	6671	6717	6763	
6854	6900	6946	6992	7037	7083	7129	7175	7220	
7312	7358	7403	7449	7495	7541	7586	7632	7678	
7769	7815	7861	7906	7952	7998	8043	8089	8135	
8226	8272	8317	8363	8409	8454	8500	8546	8591	
8683	8728	8774	8819	8865	8911	8956	9002	9047	
9138	9184	9230	9275	9321	9366	9412	9457	9503	
9594	9639	9685	9730	9776	9821	9867	9912	9958	
0049	0094	0140	0185	0231	0276	0322	0367	0412	
0503	0549	0594	0640	0685	0730	0776	0821	0867	
0957	1003	1048	1093	1139	1184	1229	1275	1320	
1411	1456	1501	1547	1592	1637	1683	1728	1773	
1864	1909	1954	2000	2045	2090	2135	2181	2226	
2316	2362	2407	2452	2497	2543	2588	2633	2678	
2769	2814	2859	2904	2949	2994	3040	3085	3130	
3220	3265	3310	3356	3401	3446	3491	3536	3581	
3671	3716	3762	3807	3852	3897	3942	3987	4032	
4122	4167	4212	4257	4302	4347	4392	4437	4482	
4572	4617	4662	4707	4752	4797	4842	4887	4932	45
5022	5067	5112	5157	5202	5247	5292	5337	5382	
5471	5516	5561	5606	5651	5696	5741	5786	5830	
5920	5965	6010	6055	6100	6144	6189	6234	6279	
6369	6413	6458	6503	6548	6593	6637	6682	6727	
6817	6861	6906	6951	6996	7040	7085	7130	7175	
7264	7309	7353	7398	7443	7488	7532	7577	7622	
7711	7756	7800	7845	7890	7934	7979	8024	8068	
8157	8202	8247	8291	8336	8381	8425	8470	8514	
8604	8648	8693	8737	8782	8826	8871	8916	8960	
9049	9094	9138	9183	9227	9272	9316	9361	9405	
9494	9539	9583	9628	9672	9717	9761	9806	9850	
9939	9983	0028	0072	0117	0161	0206	0250	0294	
0383	0428	0472	0516	0561	0605	0650	0694	0738	
0827	0871	0916	0960	1004	1049	1093	1137	1182	
1270	1315	1359	1403	1448	1492	1536	1580	1625	
1713	1758	1802	1846	1890	1935	1979	2023	2067	
2156	2200	2244	2288	2333	2377	2421	2465	2509	
2598	2642	2686	2730	2774	2819	2863	2907	2951	
3039	3083	3127	3171	3216	3260	3304	3348	3392	
3480	3524	3568	3613	3657	3701	3745	3789	3833	
3921	3965	4009	4053	4097	4141	4185	4229	4273	
4361	4405	4449	4493	4537	4581	4625	4669	4713	44
4801	4845	4889	4933	4977	5021	5065	5108	5152	
5240	5284	5328	5372	5416	5460	5504	5547	5591	

PROPORTIONAL PARTS.

2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
9.2	13.8	18.4	23.0	27.6	32.2	36.8	41.4
8.0	13.5	18.0	22.5	27.0	31.5	36.0	40.5
8.8	13.2	17.6	22.0	26.4	30.8	35.2	39.6
8.6	12.9	17.2	21.5	25.8	30.1	34.4	38.8

No. 990 L. 996.]

[No. 991

N.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
990	996635	5679	5723	5767	5811	5854	5898	5942	5986	6030
1	6074	6117	6161	6205	6249	6293	6337	6380	6424	6468
2	6512	6555	6599	6643	6687	6731	6774	6818	6862	6906
3	6949	6993	7037	7080	7124	7168	7212	7255	7299	7343
4	7386	7430	7474	7517	7561	7605	7648	7692	7736	7779
5	7823	7867	7910	7954	7998	8041	8085	8129	8173	8216
6	8259	8303	8347	8390	8434	8477	8521	8564	8608	8652
7	8695	8739	8782	8826	8869	8913	8956	9000	9043	9087
8	9131	9174	9218	9261	9305	9348	9392	9435	9479	9522
9	9565	9609	9652	9696	9739	9783	9826	9870	9913	9957

HYPERBOLIC LOGARITHMS.

No.	Log.	No.	Log.	No.	Log.	No.	Log.	No.	L
1.01	.0099	1.45	.3716	1.89	.6966	2.33	.8458	2.77	1.0
1.02	.0198	1.46	.3784	1.90	.6919	2.34	.8502	2.78	1.1
1.03	.0296	1.47	.3853	1.91	.6871	2.35	.8544	2.79	1.2
1.04	.0392	1.48	.3920	1.92	.6823	2.36	.8587	2.80	1.3
1.05	.0488	1.49	.3988	1.93	.6775	2.37	.8629	2.81	1.4
1.06	.0583	1.50	.4055	1.94	.6727	2.38	.8671	2.82	1.5
1.07	.0677	1.51	.4121	1.95	.6678	2.39	.8713	2.83	1.6
1.08	.0770	1.52	.4187	1.96	.6629	2.40	.8755	2.84	1.7
1.09	.0862	1.53	.4253	1.97	.6580	2.41	.8796	2.85	1.8
1.10	.0953	1.54	.4318	1.98	.6531	2.42	.8838	2.86	1.9
1.11	.1044	1.55	.4383	1.99	.6481	2.43	.8879	2.87	2.0
1.12	.1133	1.56	.4447	2.00	.6431	2.44	.8920	2.88	2.1
1.13	.1222	1.57	.4511	2.01	.6381	2.45	.8961	2.89	2.2
1.14	.1310	1.58	.4574	2.02	.6331	2.46	.9002	2.90	2.3
1.15	.1398	1.59	.4637	2.03	.6280	2.47	.9043	2.91	2.4
1.16	.1484	1.60	.4700	2.04	.6229	2.48	.9083	2.92	2.5
1.17	.1570	1.61	.4762	2.05	.6178	2.49	.9123	2.93	2.6
1.18	.1655	1.62	.4824	2.06	.6127	2.50	.9163	2.94	2.7
1.19	.1740	1.63	.4886	2.07	.6075	2.51	.9203	2.95	2.8
1.20	.1823	1.64	.4947	2.08	.6024	2.52	.9243	2.96	2.9
1.21	.1906	1.65	.5008	2.09	.5972	2.53	.9282	2.97	3.0
1.22	.1988	1.66	.5068	2.10	.5920	2.54	.9322	2.98	3.1
1.23	.2070	1.67	.5128	2.11	.5868	2.55	.9361	2.99	3.2
1.24	.2151	1.68	.5188	2.12	.5816	2.56	.9400	3.00	3.3
1.25	.2231	1.69	.5247	2.13	.5764	2.57	.9439	3.01	3.4
1.26	.2311	1.70	.5306	2.14	.5712	2.58	.9478	3.02	3.5
1.27	.2390	1.71	.5365	2.15	.5660	2.59	.9517	3.03	3.6
1.28	.2469	1.72	.5423	2.16	.5608	2.60	.9555	3.04	3.7
1.29	.2546	1.73	.5481	2.17	.5556	2.61	.9594	3.05	3.8
1.30	.2624	1.74	.5539	2.18	.5504	2.62	.9632	3.06	3.9
1.31	.2700	1.75	.5596	2.19	.5452	2.63	.9670	3.07	4.0
1.32	.2776	1.76	.5653	2.20	.5400	2.64	.9708	3.08	4.1
1.33	.2852	1.77	.5710	2.21	.5348	2.65	.9746	3.09	4.2
1.34	.2927	1.78	.5766	2.22	.5296	2.66	.9783	3.10	4.3
1.35	.3001	1.79	.5822	2.23	.5244	2.67	.9821	3.11	4.4
1.36	.3075	1.80	.5878	2.24	.5192	2.68	.9858	3.12	4.5
1.37	.3148	1.81	.5933	2.25	.5140	2.69	.9895	3.13	4.6
1.38	.3221	1.82	.5988	2.26	.5088	2.70	.9933	3.14	4.7
1.39	.3293	1.83	.6043	2.27	.5036	2.71	.9969	3.15	4.8
1.40	.3365	1.84	.6098	2.28	.4984	2.72	1.0006	3.16	4.9
1.41	.3436	1.85	.6152	2.29	.4932	2.73	1.0043	3.17	5.0
1.42	.3507	1.86	.6206	2.30	.4880	2.74	1.0080	3.18	5.1
1.43	.3577	1.87	.6259	2.31	.4828	2.75	1.0116	3.19	5.2
* 44	.36		.6313	2.32	.4776	2.76	1.0152	3.20	5.3

RITHMS.

Log.	No.	Log.	No.	Log.	No.	Log.	No.
4.53	1.5107	5.19	1.6467	5.85	1.770		
4.54	1.5129	5.20	1.6487	5.86	1.768		
4.55	1.5151	5.21	1.6506	5.87	1.766		
4.56	1.5173	5.22	1.6525	5.88	1.771		
4.57	1.5195	5.23	1.6544	5.89	1.773		
4.58	1.5217	5.24	1.6563	5.90	1.775		
4.59	1.5239	5.25	1.6582	5.91	1.776		
4.60	1.5261	5.26	1.6601	5.92	1.778		
4.61	1.5282	5.27	1.6620	5.93	1.780		
4.62	1.5304	5.28	1.6639	5.94	1.781		
4.63	1.5326	5.29	1.6658	5.95	1.782		
4.64	1.5347	5.30	1.6677	5.96	1.783		
4.65	1.5369	5.31	1.6696	5.97	1.784		
4.66	1.5390	5.32	1.6715	5.98	1.785		
4.67	1.5412	5.33	1.6734	5.99	1.786		
4.68	1.5433	5.34	1.6752	6.00	1.787		
4.69	1.5454	5.35	1.6771	6.01	1.788		
4.70	1.5476	5.36	1.6790	6.02	1.789		
4.71	1.5497	5.37	1.6808	6.03	1.790		
4.72	1.5518	5.38	1.6827	6.04	1.791		
4.73	1.5539	5.39	1.6845	6.05	1.792		
4.74	1.5560	5.40	1.6864	6.06	1.793		
4.75	1.5581	5.41	1.6882	6.07	1.794		
4.76	1.5602	5.42	1.6901	6.08	1.795		
4.77	1.5623	5.43	1.6919	6.09	1.796		
4.78	1.5644	5.44	1.6938	6.10	1.797		
4.79	1.5665	5.45	1.6956	6.11	1.798		
4.80	1.5686	5.46	1.6974	6.12	1.799		
4.81	1.5707	5.47	1.6993	6.13	1.800		
4.82	1.5728	5.48	1.7011	6.14	1.801		
4.83	1.5748	5.49	1.7029	6.15	1.802		
4.84	1.5769	5.50	1.7047	6.16	1.803		
4.85	1.5790	5.51	1.7066	6.17	1.804		
4.86	1.5810	5.52	1.7084	6.18	1.805		
4.87	1.5831	5.53	1.7102	6.19	1.806		
4.88	1.5851	5.54	1.7120	6.20	1.807		
4.89	1.5872	5.55	1.7138	6.21	1.808		
4.90	1.5892	5.56	1.7156	6.22	1.809		
4.91	1.5913	5.57	1.7174	6.23	1.810		
4.92	1.5933	5.58	1.7192	6.24	1.811		
4.93	1.5953	5.59	1.7209	6.25	1.812		
4.94	1.5974	5.60	1.7228	6.26	1.813		
4.95	1.6014	5.61	1.7246	6.27	1.814		
4.96	1.6034	5.62	1.7263	6.28	1.815		
4.97	1.6054	5.63	1.7281	6.29	1.816		
4.98	1.6074	5.64	1.7299	6.30	1.817		
4.99	1.6094	5.65	1.7317	6.31	1.818		
5.00	1.6114	5.66	1.7334	6.32	1.819		
5.01	1.6134	5.67	1.7352	6.33	1.820		
5.02	1.6154	5.68	1.7370	6.34	1.821		
5.03	1.6174	5.69	1.7387	6.35	1.822		
5.04	1.6194	5.70	1.7405	6.36	1.823		
5.05	1.6214	5.71	1.7422	6.37	1.824		
5.06	1.6233	5.72	1.7440	6.38	1.825		
5.07	1.6253	5.73	1.7457	6.39	1.826		
5.08	1.6273	5.74	1.7475	6.40	1.827		
5.09	1.6292	5.75	1.7492	6.41	1.828		
5.10	1.6312	5.76	1.7509	6.42	1.829		
5.11	1.6332	5.77	1.7527	6.43	1.830		
5.12	1.6351	5.78	1.7544	6.44	1.831		
5.13	1.6371	5.79	1.7561	6.45	1.832		
5.14	1.6390	5.80	1.7579	6.46	1.833		
5.15	1.6409	5.81	1.7596	6.47	1.834		
5.16	1.6429	5.82	1.7613	6.48	1.835		
5.17	1.6448	5.83	1.7630	6.49	1.836		
5.18	1.6467	5.84	1.7647	6.50	1.837		

No.	Log.	No.	Log.	No.	Log.	No.	Log.	No.	Log.
6.51	1.8733	7.15	1.9671	7.79	2.0528	8.66	2.1587	9.94	2.9902
6.52	1.8749	7.16	1.9685	7.80	2.0541	8.68	2.1610	9.96	2.9928
6.53	1.8764	7.17	1.9699	7.81	2.0554	8.70	2.1633	9.98	2.9954
6.54	1.8779	7.18	1.9713	7.82	2.0567	8.72	2.1656	10.00	2.9980
6.55	1.8795	7.19	1.9727	7.83	2.0580	8.74	2.1679	10.05	3.0030
6.56	1.8810	7.20	1.9741	7.84	2.0592	8.76	2.1702	10.50	3.0100
6.57	1.8825	7.21	1.9754	7.85	2.0605	8.78	2.1725	10.75	3.0170
6.58	1.8840	7.22	1.9769	7.86	2.0618	8.80	2.1748	11.00	3.0240
6.59	1.8856	7.23	1.9782	7.87	2.0631	8.82	2.1770	11.25	3.0310
6.60	1.8871	7.24	1.9796	7.88	2.0643	8.84	2.1793	11.50	3.0380
6.61	1.8886	7.25	1.9810	7.89	2.0656	8.86	2.1815	11.75	3.0450
6.62	1.8901	7.26	1.9824	7.90	2.0669	8.88	2.1838	12.00	3.0520
6.63	1.8916	7.27	1.9838	7.91	2.0681	8.90	2.1861	12.25	3.0590
6.64	1.8931	7.28	1.9851	7.92	2.0694	8.92	2.1883	12.50	3.0660
6.65	1.8946	7.29	1.9865	7.93	2.0707	8.94	2.1905	12.75	3.0730
6.66	1.8961	7.30	1.9879	7.94	2.0719	8.96	2.1928	13.00	3.0800
6.67	1.8976	7.31	1.9892	7.95	2.0732	8.98	2.1950	13.25	3.0870
6.68	1.8991	7.32	1.9906	7.96	2.0744	9.00	2.1972	13.50	3.0940
6.69	1.9006	7.33	1.9920	7.97	2.0757	9.02	2.1994	13.75	3.1010
6.70	1.9021	7.34	1.9933	7.98	2.0769	9.04	2.2017	14.00	3.1080
6.71	1.9036	7.35	1.9947	7.99	2.0782	9.06	2.2039	14.25	3.1150
6.72	1.9051	7.36	1.9961	8.00	2.0794	9.08	2.2061	14.50	3.1220
6.73	1.9066	7.37	1.9974	8.01	2.0807	9.10	2.2083	14.75	3.1290
6.74	1.9081	7.38	1.9988	8.02	2.0819	9.12	2.2105	15.00	3.1360
6.75	1.9095	7.39	2.0001	8.03	2.0832	9.14	2.2127	15.50	3.1430
6.76	1.9110	7.40	2.0015	8.04	2.0844	9.16	2.2148	16.00	3.1500
6.77	1.9125	7.41	2.0028	8.05	2.0857	9.18	2.2170	16.50	3.1570
6.78	1.9140	7.42	2.0041	8.06	2.0869	9.20	2.2192	17.00	3.1640
6.79	1.9155	7.43	2.0055	8.07	2.0882	9.22	2.2214	17.50	3.1710
6.80	1.9169	7.44	2.0069	8.08	2.0894	9.24	2.2235	18.00	3.1780
6.81	1.9184	7.45	2.0082	8.09	2.0906	9.26	2.2257	18.50	3.1850
6.82	1.9199	7.46	2.0096	8.10	2.0919	9.28	2.2279	19.00	3.1920
6.83	1.9213	7.47	2.0108	8.11	2.0931	9.30	2.2300	19.50	3.1990
6.84	1.9228	7.48	2.0122	8.12	2.0943	9.32	2.2322	20.00	3.2060
6.85	1.9242	7.49	2.0136	8.13	2.0956	9.34	2.2343	21	3.2130
6.86	1.9257	7.50	2.0149	8.14	2.0968	9.36	2.2364	22	3.2200
6.87	1.9272	7.51	2.0162	8.15	2.0980	9.38	2.2386	23	3.2270
6.88	1.9286	7.52	2.0176	8.16	2.0992	9.40	2.2407	24	3.2340
6.89	1.9301	7.53	2.0189	8.17	2.1005	9.42	2.2428	25	3.2410
6.90	1.9315	7.54	2.0202	8.18	2.1017	9.44	2.2450	26	3.2480
6.91	1.9330	7.55	2.0215	8.19	2.1029	9.46	2.2471	27	3.2550
6.92	1.9344	7.56	2.0229	8.20	2.1041	9.48	2.2492	28	3.2620
6.93	1.9359	7.57	2.0242	8.22	2.1066	9.50	2.2513	29	3.2690
6.94	1.9373	7.58	2.0255	8.24	2.1090	9.52	2.2534	30	3.2760
6.95	1.9387	7.59	2.0268	8.26	2.1114	9.54	2.2555	31	3.2830
6.96	1.9402	7.60	2.0281	8.28	2.1138	9.56	2.2576	32	3.2900
6.97	1.9416	7.61	2.0295	8.30	2.1163	9.58	2.2597	33	3.2970
6.98	1.9430	7.62	2.0308	8.32	2.1187	9.60	2.2618	34	3.3040
6.99	1.9445	7.63	2.0321	8.34	2.1211	9.62	2.2638	35	3.3110
7.00	1.9459	7.64	2.0334	8.36	2.1235	9.64	2.2659	36	3.3180
7.01	1.9473	7.65	2.0347	8.38	2.1258	9.66	2.2680	37	3.3250
7.02	1.9488	7.66	2.0360	8.40	2.1282	9.68	2.2701	38	3.3320
7.03	1.9502	7.67	2.0373	8.42	2.1306	9.70	2.2721	39	3.3390
7.04	1.9516	7.68	2.0386	8.44	2.1330	9.72	2.2742	40	3.3460
7.05	1.9530	7.69	2.0399	8.46	2.1353	9.74	2.2762	41	3.3530
7.06	1.9544	7.70	2.0412	8.48	2.1377	9.76	2.2783	42	3.3600
7.07	1.9559	7.71	2.0425	8.50	2.1401	9.78	2.2803	43	3.3670
7.08	1.9573	7.72	2.0438	8.52	2.1424	9.80	2.2824	44	3.3740
7.09	1.9587	7.73	2.0451	8.54	2.1448	9.82	2.2844	45	3.3810
7.10	1.9601	7.74	2.0464	8.56	2.1471	9.84	2.2865	46	3.3880
7.11	1.9615	7.75	2.0477	8.58	2.1494	9.86	2.2885	47	3.3950
7.12	1.9629	7.76	2.0490	8.60	2.1518	9.88	2.2905	48	3.4020
7.13	1.9643	7.77	2.0503	8.62	2.1541	9.90	2.2925	49	3.4090
7.14	1.9657	7.78	2.0516	8.64	2.1564	9.92	2.2946	50	3.4160

ONOMETRICAL FUNCTIONS.

Tang.	Cotan.	Secant.	Ver. Sin.	Cosine.				
.00000	Infinite	1.0000	.00000	1.0000	90	0		
.00436	229.18	1.0000	.00001	.99999		45		
.00873	114.59	1.0000	.00004	.99996		30		
.01309	76.390	1.0001	.00009	.99991		15		
.01745	57.290	1.0001	.00015	.99985	89	0		
.02182	45.829	1.0002	.00024	.99976		45		
.02618	38.188	1.0003	.00034	.99966		30		
.03055	32.730	1.0005	.00047	.99953		15		
.03492	28.636	1.0006	.00061	.99939	88	0		
.03929	25.452	1.0008	.00077	.99923		45		
.04366	22.904	1.0009	.00095	.99905		30		
.04803	20.819	1.0011	.00115	.99885		15		
.05241	19.081	1.0014	.00137	.99863	87	0		
.05678	17.611	1.0016	.00161	.99839		45		
.06116	16.350	1.0019	.00187	.99813		30		
.06554	15.257	1.0021	.00214	.99786		15		
.06993	14.301	1.0024	.00244	.99756	86	0		
.07431	13.457	1.0028	.00275	.99725		45		
.07870	12.706	1.0031	.00308	.99692		30		
.08309	12.035	1.0034	.00343	.99656		15		
.08749	11.430	1.0038	.00381	.99619	85	0		
.09189	10.883	1.0042	.00420	.99580		45		
.09629	10.385	1.0046	.00460	.99540		30		
.10069	9.9310	1.0051	.00503	.99497		15		
.10510	9.5144	1.0055	.00548	.99452	84	0		
.10952	9.1309	1.0060	.00594	.99406		45		
.11393	8.7769	1.0065	.00643	.99357		30		
.11836	8.4490	1.0070	.00693	.99307		15		
.12278	8.1443	1.0075	.00745	.99255	83	0		
.12722	7.8606	1.0081	.00800	.99200		45		
.13165	7.5958	1.0086	.00856	.99144		30		
.13609	7.3479	1.0092	.00913	.99086		15		
.14054	7.1154	1.0098	.00973	.99027	82	0		
.14499	6.8969	1.0105	.01035	.98965		45		
.14945	6.6913	1.0111	.01098	.98902		30		
.15391	6.4971	1.0118	.01164	.98836		15		
.15838	6.3138	1.0125	.01231	.98769	81	0		
.16286	6.1402	1.0132	.01300	.98700		45		
.16734	5.9758	1.0139	.01371	.98629		30		
.17183	5.8197	1.0147	.01444	.98556		15		
.17633	5.6713	1.0154	.01519	.98481	80	0		
.18083	5.5301	1.0162	.01596	.98404		45		
.18534	5.3955	1.0170	.01675	.98325		30		
.18986	5.2673	1.0179	.01755	.98245		15		
.19438	5.1446	1.0187	.01837	.98163	79	0		
.19891	5.0273	1.0196	.01921	.98079		45		
.20345	4.9152	1.0205	.02008	.97992		30		
.20800	4.8077	1.0214	.02095	.97905		15		
.21256	4.7046	1.0223	.02185	.97815	78	0		
.21712	4.6057	1.0233	.02277	.97723		45		
.22169	4.5107	1.0243	.02370	.97630		30		
.22628	4.4194	1.0253	.02466	.97534		15		
.23087	4.3315	1.0263	.02563	.97437	77	0		
.23547	4.2468	1.0273	.02662	.97338		45		
.24008	4.1653	1.0284	.02763	.97237		30		
.24470	4.0867	1.0295	.02866	.97134		15		
.24933	4.0108	1.0306	.02970	.97030	76	0		
.25397	3.9375	1.0317	.03077	.96923		45		
.25862	3.8667	1.0329	.03185	.96815		30		
.26328	3.7983	1.0341	.03296	.96705		15		
.26795	3.7320	1.0353	.03407	.96593	75	0		
An.	Secant.	Cotan.	Tang.	Cosec.	Co-Vers.	Sine.	°	M.

90° read from bottom of table upwards.

°	M.	Sine.	Co-Vers.	Cosec.	Tang.	Cotan.	Secant.	Ver. Sin.	Co-sin.	
15	0	.25882	.74118	3.8637	.26795	3.7320	1.0353	.09407	.96593	75
15	15	.26303	.73697	3.8018	.27262	3.6680	1.0365	.09521	.96479	
15	30	.26724	.73276	3.7420	.27732	3.6059	1.0377	.09637	.96363	
15	45	.27144	.72856	3.6840	.28203	3.5457	1.0390	.09754	.96246	
16	0	.27564	.72436	3.6280	.28674	3.4874	1.0403	.09874	.96128	74
16	15	.27983	.72017	3.5736	.29147	3.4308	1.0416	.09995	.96003	
16	30	.28402	.71598	3.5209	.29621	3.3759	1.0429	.10118	.95882	
16	45	.28820	.71180	3.4699	.30096	3.3226	1.0442	.10243	.95757	
17	0	.29237	.70763	3.4203	.30573	3.2709	1.0457	.10370	.95630	73
17	15	.29654	.70346	3.3722	.31051	3.2205	1.0471	.10498	.95502	
17	30	.30070	.69929	3.3255	.31530	3.1716	1.0485	.10628	.95372	
17	45	.30486	.69514	3.2801	.32010	3.1240	1.0500	.10760	.95240	
18	0	.30902	.69098	3.2361	.32492	3.0777	1.0515	.10894	.95106	72
18	15	.31316	.68684	3.1932	.32975	3.0326	1.0530	.11030	.94970	
18	30	.31730	.68270	3.1515	.33459	2.9887	1.0545	.11168	.94832	
18	45	.32144	.67856	3.1110	.33945	2.9459	1.0560	.11307	.94693	
19	0	.32557	.67443	3.0715	.34433	2.9042	1.0576	.11448	.94552	71
19	15	.32969	.67031	3.0331	.34921	2.8636	1.0592	.11591	.94409	
19	30	.33381	.66619	2.9957	.35412	2.8239	1.0608	.11736	.94264	
19	45	.33792	.66208	2.9593	.35904	2.7852	1.0625	.11882	.94118	
20	0	.34202	.65798	2.9238	.36397	2.7475	1.0642	.12030	.93970	70
20	15	.34612	.65388	2.8892	.36892	2.7106	1.0659	.12179	.93821	
20	30	.35021	.64979	2.8554	.37388	2.6746	1.0676	.12330	.93670	
20	45	.35429	.64571	2.8225	.37887	2.6395	1.0694	.12482	.93514	
21	0	.35837	.64163	2.7904	.38388	2.6051	1.0711	.12634	.93358	69
21	15	.36244	.63756	2.7591	.38888	2.5715	1.0729	.12789	.93201	
21	30	.36650	.63350	2.7285	.39391	2.5386	1.0748	.12945	.93042	
21	45	.37056	.62944	2.6986	.39896	2.5065	1.0767	.13102	.92881	
22	0	.37461	.62539	2.6695	.40403	2.4751	1.0785	.13260	.92718	68
22	15	.37865	.62135	2.6410	.40911	2.4443	1.0804	.13418	.92554	
22	30	.38268	.61732	2.6131	.41421	2.4142	1.0824	.13577	.92388	
22	45	.38671	.61329	2.5859	.41933	2.3847	1.0844	.13737	.92220	
23	0	.39073	.60927	2.5593	.42447	2.3559	1.0864	.13898	.92050	67
23	15	.39474	.60526	2.5333	.42963	2.3276	1.0884	.14061	.91879	
23	30	.39875	.60125	2.5078	.43481	2.2998	1.0904	.14225	.91706	
23	45	.40275	.59725	2.4829	.44001	2.2727	1.0925	.14390	.91531	
24	0	.40674	.59326	2.4586	.44523	2.2460	1.0946	.14556	.91355	66
24	15	.41072	.58928	2.4348	.45047	2.2199	1.0968	.14723	.91176	
24	30	.41469	.58531	2.4114	.45573	2.1943	1.0990	.14891	.90996	
24	45	.41866	.58134	2.3886	.46101	2.1692	1.1011	.15060	.90814	
25	0	.42262	.57738	2.3662	.46631	2.1445	1.1034	.15230	.90631	65
25	15	.42657	.57343	2.3443	.47163	2.1203	1.1056	.15401	.90446	
25	30	.43051	.56949	2.3228	.47697	2.0965	1.1079	.15573	.90259	
25	45	.43444	.56555	2.3018	.48234	2.0732	1.1102	.15746	.90070	
26	0	.43837	.56163	2.2812	.48773	2.0503	1.1126	.15920	.89878	64
26	15	.44229	.55771	2.2610	.49314	2.0278	1.1150	.16095	.89685	
26	30	.44620	.55380	2.2412	.49858	2.0057	1.1174	.16271	.89493	
26	45	.45010	.54990	2.2217	.50404	1.9840	1.1198	.16448	.89298	
27	0	.45399	.54601	2.2027	.50952	1.9626	1.1222	.16626	.89101	63
27	15	.45787	.54213	2.1840	.51503	1.9416	1.1248	.16805	.88902	
27	30	.46175	.53825	2.1657	.52057	1.9210	1.1274	.16985	.88701	
27	45	.46561	.53439	2.1477	.52612	1.9007	1.1300	.17166	.88500	
28	0	.46947	.53053	2.1300	.53171	1.8807	1.1326	.17348	.88298	62
28	15	.47332	.52668	2.1127	.53732	1.8611	1.1352	.17531	.88095	
28	30	.47716	.52284	2.0957	.54295	1.8418	1.1379	.17715	.87882	
28	45	.48099	.51901	2.0790	.54862	1.8228	1.1406	.17900	.87673	
29	0	.48481	.51519	2.0627	.55431	1.8040	1.1433	.18086	.87462	61
29	15	.48862	.51138	2.0466	.56003	1.7856	1.1461	.18273	.87250	
29	30	.49242	.50758	2.0308	.56577	1.7675	1.1490	.18461	.87036	
29	45	.49622	.50378	2.0152	.57155	1.7496	1.1518	.18650	.86823	
30	0	.50000	.50000	2.0000	.57735	1.7320	1.1547	.18840	.86603	60

75° read from bottom of table upward

TRIGONOMETRICAL FUNCTIONS. 161

Co-Vers.	Cosec.	Tang.	Cotan.	Secant.	Ver. Sin.	Cosine.		
5000	2.0000	.57735	1.7320	1.1547	.13397	.86603	60	0
4923	1.9850	.58318	1.7147	1.1376	.13616	.86384		45
4846	1.9703	.58904	1.6977	1.1206	.13837	.86163		30
4871	1.9558	.59494	1.6808	1.1036	.14059	.85941		15
4896	1.9416	.60080	1.6643	1.0866	.14283	.85717	59	0
5123	1.9276	.60681	1.6479	1.0697	.14509	.85491		45
7750	1.9139	.61280	1.6319	1.0528	.14736	.85264		30
7379	1.9004	.61882	1.6160	1.0360	.14965	.85035		15
7008	1.8871	.62487	1.6003	1.0192	.15195	.84805	58	0
639	1.8740	.63093	1.5849	1.0024	.15427	.84573		45
270	1.8612	.63707	1.5697	1.0857	.15661	.84339		30
903	1.8485	.64322	1.5547	1.0690	.15896	.84104		15
536	1.8361	.64941	1.5399	1.0524	.16133	.83867	57	0
171	1.8238	.65563	1.5253	1.0358	.16371	.83629		45
306	1.8118	.66188	1.5108	1.0192	.16611	.83389		30
443	1.7999	.66818	1.4966	1.0027	.16853	.83147		15
81	1.7883	.67451	1.4826	1.0062	.17096	.82904	56	0
20	1.7768	.68087	1.4687	1.0098	.17341	.82659		45
59	1.7655	.68728	1.4550	1.0134	.17587	.82413		30
90	1.7544	.69372	1.4415	1.0171	.17835	.82165		15
42	1.7434	.70021	1.4281	1.0208	.18085	.81915	55	0
85	1.7327	.70673	1.4150	1.0245	.18336	.81664		45
20	1.7220	.71329	1.4019	1.0282	.18588	.81412		30
75	1.7116	.71990	1.3891	1.0322	.18843	.81157		15
21	1.7013	.72654	1.3764	1.0361	.19098	.80902	54	0
19	1.6912	.73323	1.3638	1.0400	.19356	.80644		45
8	1.6812	.73996	1.3514	1.0440	.19614	.80386		30
8	1.6713	.74673	1.3392	1.0480	.19875	.80125		15
9	1.6616	.75355	1.3270	1.0521	.20136	.79864	53	0
1	1.6521	.76042	1.3151	1.0563	.20400	.79600		45
4	1.6427	.76733	1.3032	1.0605	.20665	.79335		30
8	1.6334	.77428	1.2915	1.0647	.20931	.79069		15
4	1.6243	.78129	1.2799	1.0690	.21199	.78801	52	0
1	1.6153	.78834	1.2685	1.0734	.21468	.78532		45
9	1.6064	.79543	1.2572	1.0778	.21739	.78261		30
3	1.5976	.80258	1.2460	1.0822	.22012	.77988		15
3	1.5889	.80978	1.2349	1.0866	.22285	.77715	51	0
9	1.5805	.81703	1.2239	1.0913	.22561	.77439		45
2	1.5721	.82431	1.2131	1.0960	.22838	.77162		30
5	1.5639	.83169	1.2024	1.1007	.23116	.76884		15
1	1.5557	.83910	1.1918	1.1054	.23396	.76604	50	0
3	1.5477	.84656	1.1812	1.1102	.23677	.76323		45
5	1.5398	.85408	1.1708	1.1151	.23959	.76041		30
1	1.5320	.86165	1.1606	1.1200	.24244	.75756		15
1	1.5242	.86929	1.1504	1.1250	.24529	.75471	49	0
1	1.5166	.87698	1.1403	1.1301	.24816	.75184		45
1	1.5092	.88472	1.1303	1.1352	.25104	.74896		30
1	1.5018	.89253	1.1204	1.1404	.25394	.74606		15
1	1.4945	.90040	1.1106	1.1456	.25686	.74314	48	0
1	1.4873	.90834	1.1009	1.1509	.25978	.74022		45
1	1.4802	.91632	1.0913	1.1563	.26272	.73728		30
1	1.4732	.92439	1.0818	1.1618	.26568	.73432		15
1	1.4663	.93251	1.0724	1.1673	.26865	.73135	47	0
1	1.4595	.94071	1.0630	1.1729	.27163	.72837		45
1	1.4527	.94896	1.0538	1.1786	.27463	.72537		30
1	1.4461	.95729	1.0446	1.1843	.27764	.72236		15
1	1.4396	.96569	1.0355	1.1902	.28066	.71934	46	0
1	1.4331	.97416	1.0265	1.1961	.28370	.71630		45
1	1.4267	.98270	1.0176	1.2020	.28675	.71325		30
1	1.4204	.99131	1.0088	1.2081	.28981	.71019		15
1	1.4143	1.0000	1.0000	1.2142	.29289	.70711	45	0
n.	Secant.	Cotan.	Tang.	Cosec.	Co-Vers.	Sine.	°	M.

0° read from bottom of table upwards.

LOGARITHMIC SINES, ETC.

Deg.	Sine.	Cosec.	Versin.	Tangent.	Cotan.	Covers.	Secant.	C
0	In. Neg.	Infinite.	In. Neg.	In. Neg.	Infinite.	10.00000	10.00000	10
1	8.24186	11.75814	6.18271	8.24192	11.75808	9.99235	10.00007	9
2	8.54282	11.45718	6.78474	8.54308	11.45692	9.98457	10.00026	9
3	8.71880	11.28120	7.13687	8.71940	11.28060	9.97665	10.00060	9
4	8.84358	11.15642	7.38667	8.84464	11.15536	9.96860	10.00106	9
5	8.94030	11.05970	7.58039	8.94195	11.05805	9.96040	10.00166	9
6	9.01923	10.98077	7.73863	9.02162	10.97338	9.95205	10.00239	9
7	9.08589	10.91411	7.87238	9.08914	10.91086	9.94356	10.00325	9
8	9.14356	10.85644	7.98820	9.14780	10.85220	9.93492	10.00425	9
9	9.19433	10.80567	8.09032	9.19971	10.80029	9.92612	10.00538	9
10	9.23967	10.76023	8.18162	9.24632	10.75368	9.91717	10.00665	9
11	9.28060	10.71940	8.26418	9.28865	10.71135	9.90805	10.00805	9
12	9.31788	10.68212	8.33950	9.32747	10.67253	9.89877	10.00960	9
13	9.35209	10.64791	8.40875	9.36836	10.63604	9.88933	10.01128	9
14	9.38368	10.61632	8.47282	9.39677	10.60223	9.87971	10.01310	9
15	9.41300	10.58700	8.53243	9.42805	10.57195	9.86992	10.01506	9
16	9.44034	10.55966	8.58814	9.45750	10.54250	9.85996	10.01716	9
17	9.46594	10.53406	8.64043	9.48554	10.51466	9.84981	10.01940	9
18	9.48998	10.51022	8.68969	9.51178	10.48822	9.83947	10.02170	9
19	9.51264	10.48736	8.73625	9.53697	10.46303	9.82894	10.02433	9
20	9.53405	10.46595	8.78037	9.56107	10.43893	9.81821	10.02701	9
21	9.55433	10.44567	8.82230	9.58418	10.41582	9.80729	10.02985	9
22	9.57358	10.42642	8.86223	9.60641	10.39359	9.79615	10.03283	9
23	9.59188	10.40812	8.90034	9.62785	10.37315	9.78481	10.03597	9
24	9.60931	10.39069	8.93679	9.64858	10.35442	9.77325	10.03927	9
25	9.62595	10.37405	8.97170	9.66867	10.33135	9.76144	10.04272	9
26	9.64184	10.35816	9.00321	9.68818	10.31182	9.74945	10.04634	9
27	9.65705	10.34295	9.03740	9.70717	10.29383	9.73720	10.05012	9
28	9.67161	10.32839	9.06838	9.72567	10.27433	9.72471	10.05407	9
29	9.68557	10.31443	9.09823	9.74375	10.25625	9.71197	10.05818	9
30	9.69897	10.30103	9.12702	9.76144	10.23856	9.69897	10.06247	9
31	9.71184	10.28816	9.15483	9.77877	10.22123	9.68571	10.06693	9
32	9.72421	10.27579	9.18171	9.79579	10.20421	9.67217	10.07158	9
33	9.73611	10.26389	9.20771	9.81252	10.18748	9.65836	10.07641	9
34	9.74756	10.25244	9.23290	9.82899	10.17101	9.64425	10.08143	9
35	9.75859	10.24141	9.25731	9.84593	10.15477	9.62984	10.08664	9
36	9.76922	10.23078	9.28099	9.86136	10.13874	9.61512	10.09204	9
37	9.77946	10.22054	9.30398	9.87711	10.12289	9.60008	10.09765	9
38	9.78934	10.21066	9.32631	9.89251	10.10719	9.58471	10.10347	9
39	9.79887	10.20113	9.34802	9.90837	10.09163	9.56900	10.10950	9
40	9.80807	10.19193	9.36913	9.92381	10.07619	9.55293	10.11575	9
41	9.81694	10.18306	9.38968	9.93916	10.06084	9.53648	10.12222	9
42	9.82551	10.17449	9.40969	9.95444	10.04556	9.51966	10.12893	9
43	9.83378	10.16622	9.42918	9.96966	10.03034	9.50243	10.13587	9
44	9.84177	10.15823	9.44818	9.98484	10.01516	9.48479	10.14307	9
45	9.84949	10.15052	9.46671	10.00000	10.00000	9.46671	10.15052	9
	Cosine.	Secant.	Covers.	Cotan.	Tangent.	Versin.	Cosec.	

From 45° to 90° read from bottom of table upw

MATERIALS.

THE CHEMICAL ELEMENTS.

The Common Elements (42).

Name.	Atomic Weight.	Chemical Symbol.	Name.	Atomic Weight.	Chemical Symbol.	Name.	Atomic Weight.
Aluminum	27.1	F	Fluorine	19.	Pd	Palladium	106.
Antimony	120.4	Au	Gold	197.2	P	Phosphorus	31.
Arsenic	75.1	H	Hydrogen	1.01	Pt	Platinum	191.9
Barium	137.4	I	Iodine	126.8	K	Potassium	39.1
Bismuth	203.1	Ir	Iridium	193.1	Si	Silicon	28.4
Boron	10.9	Fe	Iron	56.	Ag	Silver	107.9
Bromine	79.9	Pb	Lead	206.9	Na	Sodium	23.
Calcium	40.1	Li	Lithium	7.00	Sr	Strontium	87.6
Carbon	12.	Mg	Magnesium	24.3	S	Sulphur	32.1
Chlorine	35.4	Mn	Manganese	55.	Sn	Tin	119.
Chromium	52.1	Hg	Mercury	200.	Ti	Titanium	48.1
Cobalt	59.	Ni	Nickel	58.7	W	Tungsten	184.8
Copper	63.6	N	Nitrogen	14.	Va	Vanadium	51.4
		O	Oxygen	16.	Zn	Zinc	65.4

Atomic weights of many of the elements vary in the decimal place as by different authorities. The above are the most recent values re-
 lative to O = 16 and H = 1.008. When H is taken as 1, O = 15.879, and the
 figures are diminished proportionately. (See *Jour. Am. Chem. Soc.*,
 1896.)

The Rare Elements (27).

ium, Be.	Glucinum, G.	Rubidium, Rb.	Thallium, Tl.
ium, Cs.	Indium, In.	Ruthenium, Ru.	Thorium, Th.
ium, Ce.	Lanthanum, La.	Samarium, Sm.	Uranium, U.
ium, D.	Molybdenum, Mo.	Scandium, Sc.	Ytterbium, Yr.
ium, E.	Niobium, Nb.	Selenium, Se.	Yttrium, Y.
ium, Ga.	Osmium, Os.	Tantalum, Ta.	Zirconium, Zr.
ium, Ge.	Rhodium, R.	Tellurium, Te.	

SPECIFIC GRAVITY.

The specific gravity of a substance is its weight as compared with the
 weight of an equal bulk of pure water.

And the specific gravity of a substance.

is the weight of body in air; w = weight of body submerged in water.

$$\text{Specific gravity} = \frac{W}{W - w}$$

If a substance be lighter than the water, sink it by means of a heavier
 substance, and deduct the weight of the heavier substance.

Specific-gravity determinations are usually referred to the standard of the
 weight of water at 62° F., 62.355 lbs. per cubic foot. Some experimenters
 used 60° F. as the standard, and others 32° and 39.1° F. There is no
 agreement.

*sp. gr. referred to water at 39.1° F., to reduce it to the standard of
 62° F., multiply it by 1.00112.*

*sp. gr. referred to water at 62° F., to find weight per cubic foot mul-
 tiple by 62.355. Given weight per cubic foot, to find sp. gr. multiply by
 .038085. To find weight per cubic inch multiply by .038085.*

Weight and Specific Gravity of Metals.

	Specific Gravity. Range accord- ing to several Authorities.	Specific Grav- ity. Approx. Mean Value, used in Calculation of Weight.	Weight per Cubic Foot, lbs.	Wt per Cu In
Aluminum.....	2.56 to 2.71	2.67	166.5	
Antimony.....	6.66 to 6.86	6.76	421.6	
Bismuth.....	9.74 to 9.90	9.82	612.4	
Brass: Copper + Zinc				
50 20	7.8 to 8.6	8.60	536.3	
70 30			523.8	
60 40			521.3	
50 50			511.4	
Bronze { Copper, 95 to 80 } { Tin, 5 to 20 }	8.53 to 8.96	8.853	552.	
Cadmium.....	8.6 to 8.7	8.65	539.	
Calcium.....	1.58			
Chromium.....	5.0			
Cobalt.....	8.5 to 8.6			
Gold, pure.....	19.245 to 19.361	19.258	1200.0	
Copper.....	8.69 to 8.92	8.853	552.	
Iridium.....	22.38 to 23.		1396.	
Iron, Cast.....	6.85 to 7.48	7.218	450.	
" Wrought.....	7.4 to 7.9	7.70	480.	
Lead.....	11.07 to 11.44	11.38	709.7	
Manganese.....	7. to 8.	8.	499.	
Magnesium.....	1.69 to 1.75	1.75	109.	
Mercury.....	32° 13.60 to 13.62	13.62	849.3	
	60° 13.58	13.58	846.8	
	212° 13.37 to 13.38	13.38	834.4	
Nickel.....	8.279 to 8.93	8.8	548.7	
Platinum.....	20.33 to 22.07	21.5	1347.0	
Potassium.....	0.865			
Silver.....	10.474 to 10.511	10.505	655.1	
Sodium.....	0.97			
Steel.....	7.69* to 7.932†	7.854	489.6	
Tin.....	7.291 to 7.409	7.350	458.3	
Titanium.....	4.5 to 5.3			
Tungsten.....	17. to 17.6			
Zinc.....	6.86 to 7.30	7.00	436.5	

* Hard and burned.

† Very pure and soft. The sp. gr. decreases as the carbon is increased. In the first column of figures the lowest are usually those of cast iron which are more or less porous; the highest are of metals finely rolled drawn into wire.

Specific Gravity of Liquids at 60° F.

Acid, Muriatic.....	1.200	Oil, Olive.....	.92
" Nitric.....	1.217	" Palm.....	.97
" Sulphuric.....	1.849	" Petroleum.....	.78 to .92
Alcohol, pure.....	.794	" Rape.....	.92
" 95 per cent.....	.816	" Turpentine.....	.87
" 50 " ".....	.934	" Whale.....	.92
Ammonia, 27.9 per cent.....	.891	Tar.....	1.
Bromine.....	2.97	Vinegar.....	1.08
Carbon disulphide.....	1.36	Water.....	1.
Ether, Sulphuric.....	.72	" sea.....	1.026 to 1.028
Oil, Linseed.....	.94		

Compression of the following Fluids under a Pressure of 15 lbs. per Square Inch.

Water.....	.00004663	Ether.....	.00000376
Alcohol.....	.0000216	Mercury.....	.00000328

PROPERTIES OF THE USEFUL METALS.

Aluminum, Al.—Atomic weight 27.1. Specific gravity 2.6 to 2.7. Best of all the useful metals except magnesium. A soft, ductile, malleable metal, of a white color, approaching silver, but with a bluish cast. Non-corrosive. Tenacity about one third that of wrought-iron. Formerly a rare metal, but since 1890 its production and use have greatly increased on account of the discovery of cheap processes for reducing it from its ores. Melts at about 1160° F. For further description see Aluminum, Strength of Materials.

Antimony (Stibium), Sb.—At. wt. 120.4. Sp. gr. 6.7 to 6.8. A brittle metal of a bluish-white color and highly crystalline or laminated structure. Melts at 842° F. Heated in the open air it burns with a bluish-white flame. Its chief use is for the manufacture of certain alloys, as type-metal (antimony 1, lead 4), britannia (antimony 1, tin 9), and various anti-friction metals (see Alloys). Cubical expansion by heat from 32° to 212° F., 0.0070. Specific heat .050.

Bismuth, Bi.—At. wt. 208.1. Bismuth is of a peculiar light reddish color, highly crystalline, and so brittle that it can readily be pulverized. It melts at 510° F., and boils at about 2300° F. Sp. gr. 9.823 at 54° F., and is just above the melting-point. Specific heat about .0301 at ordinary temperatures. Coefficient of cubical expansion from 32° to 212°, 0.0040. Contrary to heat about 1/56 and for electricity only about 1/80 of that of iron. Its tensile strength is about 6400 lbs. per square inch. Bismuth expands on cooling, and Tribe has shown that this expansion does not take place until after solidification. Bismuth is the most diamagnetic element known, a sphere of it being repelled by a magnet.

Cadmium, Cd.—At. wt. 112. Sp. gr. 8.6 to 8.7. A bluish-white metal, malleable, with a fibrous fracture. Melts below 500° F. and volatilizes at 800° F. It is used as an ingredient in some fusible alloys with lead, and in brass. Cubical expansion from 32° to 212° F., 0.0094.

Copper, Cu.—At. wt. 63.2. Sp. gr. 8.81 to 8.95. Fuses at about 1930° F. Distinguished from all other metals by its reddish color. Very ductile and malleable, and its tenacity is next to iron. Tensile strength 20,000 to 30,000 lbs. per square inch. Heat conductivity 73.6% of that of silver, and superior to that of other metals. Electric conductivity equal to that of gold. Cubical expansion by heat from 32° to 212° F., 0.0051 of its volume. Specific heat .093. (See Copper under Strength of Materials; also Alloys.)

Gold (Aurum), Au.—At. wt. 197.2. Sp. gr., when pure and pressed in a die, 19.3. Melts at about 1915° F. The most malleable and ductile of all metals. One ounce Troy may be beaten so as to cover 160 sq. ft. of surface. Average thickness of gold-leaf is 1/283000 of an inch, or 100 sq. ft. per ounce. One grain may be drawn into a wire 500 ft. in length. The ductility is destroyed by the presence of 1/3000 part of lead, bismuth, or antimony. It is hardened by the addition of silver or of copper. In U. S. gold coin there are 90 parts gold and 10 parts of alloy, which is chiefly copper with a little silver. By jewelers the fineness of gold is expressed in carats, pure gold being 24 carats, three fourths fine 18 carats, etc.

Iridium.—Iridium is one of the rarer metals. It has a white lustre, resembling that of steel; its hardness is about equal to that of the ruby; in the cold it is quite brittle, but at a white heat it is somewhat malleable. It is one of the heaviest of metals, having a specific gravity of 22.38. It is extremely infusible and almost absolutely inoxidizable.

Processes of iridium, methods of manufacturing it, etc., see paper by W. D. Coolidge on the "Iridium Industry," Trans. A. I. M. E. 1884.

Iron (Ferrum), Fe.—At. wt. 56. Sp. gr.: Cast, 6.85 to 7.48; Wrought, 7.2. Pure iron is extremely infusible, its melting point being above 2500° F., but its fusibility increases with the addition of carbon, cast iron fusing at 2500° F. Conductivity for heat 11.9, and for electricity 12 to 14.8, being 100. Expansion in bulk by heat: cast iron .0033, and wrought iron from 32° to 212° F. Specific heat: cast iron .1208, wrought iron .1138, 165. Cast iron exposed to continued heat becomes permanently expanded 1 1/2 to 3 per cent of its length. Gate-bars should therefore be made about 4 per cent play. (For other properties see Iron and Steel Strength of Materials.)

Lead (Plumbum), Pb.—At. wt. 206.9. Sp. gr. 11.07 to 11.44 by different grades. Melts at about 625° F., softens and becomes pasty at about 600° F. If broken by a sudden blow when just below the melting-point it is brittle and the fracture appears crystalline. Lead is very malleable

Weight and Specific Gravity of Stones, Brick, Cement, etc.

	Pounds per Cubic Foot.	Specific Gravity
Asphaltum.....	87	1.39
Brick, Soft.....	100	1.6
" Common.....	112	1.79
" Hard.....	125	2.0
" Pressed.....	135	2.16
" Fire.....	140 to 150	2.34 to 2.5
Brickwork in mortar.....	100	1.6
" " cement.....	112	1.79
Cement, Rosendale, loose.....	60	.96
" Portland, ".....	78	1.25
Clay.....	120 to 150	1.92 to 2.25
Concrete.....	120 to 140	1.92 to 2.25
Earth, loose.....	72 to 80	1.15 to 1.3
" rammed.....	90 to 110	1.44 to 1.76
Emery.....	250	4.
Glass.....	156 to 172	2.5 to 2.8
" flint.....	180 to 196	2.88 to 3.14
Gneiss.....	160 to 170	2.56 to 2.72
Granite.....	160 to 170	2.56 to 2.72
Gravel.....	100 to 120	1.6 to 1.92
Gypsum.....	130 to 150	2.08 to 2.25
Hornblende.....	200 to 220	3.2 to 3.52
Lime, quick, in bulk.....	50 to 55	.8 to .88
Limestone.....	170 to 200	2.72 to 3.2
Magnesia, Carbonate.....	150	2.4
Marble.....	160 to 180	2.56 to 2.88
Masonry, dry rubble.....	140 to 160	2.24 to 2.56
" dressed.....	140 to 180	2.24 to 2.88
Mortar.....	90 to 100	1.44 to 1.6
Pitch.....	72	1.15
Plaster of Paris.....	74 to 80	1.18 to 1.3
Quartz.....	165	2.64
Sand.....	90 to 110	1.44 to 1.76
Sandstone.....	140 to 150	2.24 to 2.4
Slate.....	170 to 180	2.72 to 2.88
Stone, various.....	135 to 200	2.16 to 3.2
Trap.....	170 to 200	2.72 to 3.2
Tile.....	110 to 120	1.76 to 1.92
Soapstone.....	166 to 175	2.65 to 2.8

Specific Gravity and Weight of Gases at Atmosphere Pressure and 32° F.

(For other temperatures and pressures see pp. 459, 479.)

	Density, Air = 1.	Grammes per Litre.	Lbs. per Cu. Ft.	Cu pe
Air.....	1.0000	1.2931	0.080728	11
Oxygen.....	1.1051	1.4290	0.08921	11
Hydrogen.....	0.0695	0.08987	0.00561	175
Nitrogen.....	0.9714	1.2561	0.07842	11
Carbonic oxide, CO.....	0.9674	1.251	0.07810	11
Carbonic acid, CO ₂	1.5200	1.977	0.12343	4
Marsh gas, methane, CH ₄	0.5560	0.719	0.04488	2
Ethylene.....	0.9817	1.273	0.07949	11

ROSS. Specific heat .096. Electric conductivity 29, heat conductivity 36, silver being 100. Its principal uses are for coating iron surfaces, called "galvanizing," and for making brass and other alloys.

Table Showing the Order of

Malleability. Ductility. Tenacity. Infusibility.

Gold	Platinum	Iron	Platinum
Silver	Silver	Copper	Iron
Aluminum	Iron	Aluminum	Copper
Copper	Copper	Platinum	Gold
Tin	Gold	Silver	Silver
Lead	Aluminum	Zinc	Aluminum
Zinc	Zinc	Gold	Zinc
Platinum	Tin	Tin	Lead
Iron	Lead	Lead	Tin

FORMULE AND TABLE FOR CALCULATING THE WEIGHT OF RODS, BARS, PLATES, TUBES, AND SPHERES OF DIFFERENT MATERIALS.

Notation: *b* = breadth, *t* = thickness, *s* = side of square, *d* = external diameter, *d_i* = internal diameter, all in inches.

Sectional areas: of square bars = *s*²; of flat bars = *bt*; of round rods = $\frac{\pi}{4}d^2$; of tubes = $\frac{\pi}{4}(d^2 - d_i^2)$ = $3.1416(dt - t^2)$.

Volume of 1 foot length: of square bars = $12s^2$; of flat bars = $12bt$; of round bars = $9.4248d^2$; of tubes = $9.4248(d^2 - d_i^2)$ = $37.6993(dt - t^2)$, in cubic inches.

Weight per foot length = volume \times weight per cubic inch of the material.
Weight of a sphere = diam.³ \times .5236 \times weight per cubic inch.

Material.	Specific gravity.	Weight per cubic foot, lbs.	Weight of Plates 1 inch thick per sq. ft., lbs.	Weight of Square Bars per foot length, lbs.	Weight of Flat Bars or Foote length, lbs.	Weight per cubic inch, lbs.	Relative Weights. Wt. wrought Iron = 1.	Weight of Round Rod per foot length, lbs.	Weight of Spheres or Balls, lbs.
Cast Iron	7.218	450.	37.5	$3\frac{1}{8}s^2$	$3\frac{1}{8}bt$.2604	15-16	$2.454d^2$	$.1363d^3$
Wrought Iron	7.7	480.	40.	$3\frac{1}{8}s^2$	$3\frac{1}{8}bt$.2779	1	$2.618d^2$	$.1455d^3$
Steel	7.854	489.6	40.8	$3.4s^2$	$3.4bt$.2833	1.03	$2.670d^2$	$.1484d^3$
Copper & Bronze (Copper and tin) ..	8.855	552.	46.	$3.833s^2$	$3.833bt$.3195	1.15	$3.011d^2$	$.1673d^3$
Brass, 1/3 Copper, 2/3 Zinc	8.393	523.2	43.6	$3.633s^2$	$3.633bt$.3029	1.09	$2.854d^2$	$.1586d^3$
Lead	11.38	709.6	59.1	$4.93s^2$	$4.93bt$.4106	1.48	$3.870d^2$	$.2150d^3$
Aluminum	2.67	166.5	13.9	$1.16s^2$	$1.16bt$.0963	0.347	$0.908d^2$	$.0504d^3$
Glass	2.63	163.4	13.6	$1.13s^2$	$1.13bt$.0945	0.34	$0.891d^2$	$.0495d^3$
Pine Wood, dry ...	0.481	30.0	2.5	$0.21s^2$	$0.21bt$.0174	1-16	$0.164d^2$	$.0091d^3$

For tubes use the coefficient of *d*² in ninth column, as for rods, and multiply it into (*d*² - *d_i*²); or take four times this coefficient and multiply it into (*dt* - *t*²).

For hollow spheres use the coefficient of *d*³ in the last column and multiply it into (*d*³ - *d_i*³).

MEASURES AND WEIGHTS OF VARIOUS MATERIALS (APPROXIMATE).

Brickwork.—Brickwork is estimated by the thousand, and for various thicknesses of wall runs as follows:

8 1/4-in. wall, or 1 brick in thickness, 14 bricks per superficial foot.
13 3/4 " " " 1 1/2 " " " 21 " " " "
17 " " " 2 " " " 28 " " " "
21 1/4 " " " 2 1/4 " " " 35 " " " "

An ordinary brick measures about 8 1/4 \times 4 \times 2 inches, which is equal to 66 cubic inches, or 26.2 bricks to a cubic foot. The average weight is 4 1/2 lbs.

Fuel.—A bushel of bituminous coal weighs 76 pounds and contains 988 cubic inches = 1.554 cubic feet. 29.47 bushels = 1 gross ton.

A bushel of coke weighs 40 lbs. (35 to 42 lbs.).

One acre of bituminous coal contains 1000 tons of 2340 lbs. per foot of thickness of coal worked. 15 to 25 per cent must be deducted for waste in mining.

41 to 45 cubic feet bituminous coal when broken down	= 1 ton, 2340 lbs.
34 to 41 " " anthracite, prepared for market	= 1 ton, 2340 lbs.
123 " " of charcoal	= 1 ton, 2340 lbs.
70.9 " " coke	= 1 ton, 2340 lbs.
1 cubic foot of anthracite coal (see also page 635)	= 55 to 66 lbs.
1 " " bituminous "	= 50 to 55 lbs.
1 " " Cumberland coal	= 53 lbs.
1 " " Cannel coal	= 50.3 lbs.
1 " " charcoal (hardwood)	= 18.5 lbs.
1 " " (pine)	= 18 lbs.

A bushel of charcoal.—In 1881 the American Charcoal-Iron Workers' Association adopted for use in its official publications for the standard bushel of charcoal 2748 cubic inches, or 20 pounds. A ton of charcoal is to be taken at 2000 pounds. This figure of 20 pounds to the bushel was taken as a fair average of different bushels used throughout the country, and it has since been established by law in some States.

Ores, Earths, etc.

13 cubic feet of ordinary gold or silver ore, in mine	= 1 ton = 2000 lbs.
20 " " broken quartz	= 1 ton = 2000 lbs.
18 feet of gravel in bank	= 1 ton.
27 cubic feet of gravel when dry	= 1 ton.
25 " " sand	= 1 ton.
18 " " earth in bank	= 1 ton.
27 " " when dry	= 1 ton.
17 " " clay	= 1 ton.

Cement.—English Portland, sp. gr. 1.25 to 1.51, per bbl. . . . 400 to 430 lbs.
Rosendale, U. S., a struck bushel 62 to 70 lbs.

Lime.—A struck bushel 72 to 75 lbs.

Grain.—A struck bushel of wheat = 60 lbs.; of corn = 56 lbs.; of oats = 30 lbs.

Salt.—A struck bushel of salt, coarse, Syracuse, N. Y. = 56 lbs.; Turk's Island = 76 to 80 lbs.

Weight of Earth Filling.

(From Howe's "Retaining Walls.")

	Average weight in lbs. per cubic foot.
Earth, common loam, loose	72 to 80
" " shaken	82 to 92
" " rammed moderately	90 to 100
Gravel	90 to 106
Sand	90 to 106
Soft flowing mud	104 to 120
Sand, perfectly wet	118 to 129

COMMERCIAL SIZES OF IRON BARS.

Flats.

Width.	Thickness.	Width.	Thickness.	Width.	Thickness.
$\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{1}{8}$ to $\frac{5}{8}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{8}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$	4	$\frac{1}{4}$ to 2
$\frac{7}{8}$	$\frac{1}{8}$ to $\frac{3}{4}$	2	$\frac{1}{8}$ to $\frac{1}{4}$	$4\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{4}$ to 2
1	$\frac{1}{8}$ to 15/16	$2\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$	5	$\frac{1}{4}$ to 2
$1\frac{1}{8}$	$\frac{1}{8}$ to 1	$2\frac{3}{8}$	$\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$	$5\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{4}$ to 2
$1\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{8}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$	$2\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$	6	$\frac{1}{4}$ to 2
$1\frac{3}{8}$	$\frac{1}{8}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$	$2\frac{5}{8}$	$\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$	$6\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{4}$ to 2
$1\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{8}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$	$2\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$	7	$\frac{1}{4}$ to 2
$1\frac{5}{8}$	$\frac{1}{8}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$	3	$\frac{1}{4}$ to 2	$7\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{4}$ to 2
$1\frac{7}{8}$	$\frac{1}{8}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{1}{8}$	$\frac{1}{4}$ to 2		

ls: 1/4 to 1 3/4 inches, advancing by 16ths, and 1 3/4 to 5 inches by

3/8: 5/16 to 1 1/4 inches, advancing by 16ths, and 1 1/4 to 3 inches by

pounds: 7/16, 3/8, 9/16, 11/16, 3/4, 1, 1 1/8, 1 1/4, 1 3/8, 1 3/4, 2 inches.

ns: 3/4 to 1 1/2 inches, advancing by 8ths.

1/2 x 1/4, 5/8 x 5/16, 3/4 x 9/16, 7/8 x 7/16 inch.

als: 1/2 x 1/8, 9/8 x 5/32, 3/4 x 3/16, 7/8 x 7/32, 1 1/8 x 1/8, 1 3/4 x 9/16.

edge flats: 1 1/2 x 1/2, 1 3/4 x 5/8, 1 7/8 x 5/8 inch.

1/2 to 1 1/2 inches, advancing by 8ths, 7 to 16 B. W. gauge.

ches, advancing by 4ths, 7 to 16 gauge up to 3 inches, 4 to 14

5 inches.

WEIGHTS OF SQUARE AND ROUND BARS OF

IRON IN POUNDS PER LINEAL FOOT.

weighing 480 lbs. per cubic foot. For steel add 2 per cent.

Weight of Round Bar One Foot Long.	Thickness or Diameter in Inches.	Weight of Square Bar One Foot Long.	Weight of Round Bar One Foot Long.	Thickness or Diameter in Inches.	Weight of Square Bar One Foot Long.	Weight of Round Bar One Foot Long.
.010	11/16	24.08	18.91	3/8	96.30	75.64
.041	3/4	25.21	19.80	7/16	98.55	77.40
.092	13/16	26.37	20.71	1/2	100.8	79.19
.164	3/8	27.55	21.64	9/16	103.1	81.00
.256	15/16	28.76	22.59	5/8	105.5	82.83
.368	1	30.00	23.56	11/16	107.8	84.69
.501	1/16	31.26	24.55	3/4	110.2	86.56
.654	1/8	32.55	25.57	13/16	112.6	88.45
.828	3/16	33.87	26.60	7/8	115.1	90.36
1.023	5/16	35.21	27.65	15/16	117.5	92.29
1.237	3/8	36.58	28.73	6	120.0	94.25
1.473	7/16	37.97	29.82	1/8	122.1	96.22
1.728	1/2	39.39	30.94	1/4	124.2	102.3
2.004	5/8	40.83	32.07	3/8	126.5	106.4
2.301	3/4	42.30	33.23	1/2	128.8	110.6
2.618	7/8	43.80	34.40	5/8	126.3	114.9
2.955	11/8	45.33	35.60	3/4	151.9	119.3
3.313	13/8	46.88	36.82	7/8	157.6	123.7
3.692	15/8	48.45	38.05	7	163.3	128.3
4.091	1	50.05	39.31	1/8	169.2	132.9
4.510	1 1/16	51.68	40.59	1/4	175.2	137.6
4.950	1 1/8	53.33	41.89	3/8	181.3	142.4
5.410	1 1/4	55.01	43.21	1/2	187.5	147.3
5.890	1 3/8	56.72	44.55	5/8	193.8	152.2
6.392	1 1/2	58.45	45.91	3/4	200.2	157.3
6.913	1 5/8	60.21	47.29	7/8	206.7	162.4
7.455	1 3/4	61.99	48.69	8	213.3	167.6
8.018	1 7/8	63.80	50.11	1/8	220.9	172.9
8.601	2	65.64	51.55	1/4	228.8	178.2
9.204	2 1/8	67.50	53.01	3/8	236.9	183.3
9.828	2 1/4	69.39	54.50	1/2	245.2	188.3
10.47	2 3/8	71.30	56.00	5/8	253.7	193.3
11.14	2 1/2	73.24	57.52	3/4	262.4	198.3
11.82	2 5/8	75.21	59.07	7/8	271.3	203.3
12.53	3	77.20	60.63	8	280.4	208.3
13.25	3 1/8	79.22	62.22	1	289.6	213.3
14.00	3 1/4	81.26	63.82	1 1/8	299.0	218.3
14.77	3 3/8	83.33	65.45	1 1/4	308.5	223.3
15.55	3 1/2	85.43	67.10	1 3/8	318.2	228.3
16.36	3 5/8	87.55	68.76	1 1/2	328.1	233.3
17.19	4	89.70	70.45	1 5/8	338.1	238.3
18.04	4 1/8	91.89	72.16	7/8	348.2	243.3
	5/16	94.08	73.89	12	480.	377.

WEIGHTS OF FLAT ROLLED IRON IN POUNDS PER LINEAL FOOT.

Iron weighing 480 lbs. per cubic foot. For steel add 2 per cent.

Thick- ness in Inches.	Widths.															
	1".	1 1/4".	1 1/2".	1 3/4".	2".	2 1/4".	2 1/2".	2 3/4".	3".	3 1/4".	3 1/2".	3 3/4".	4".	4 1/2".	4 3/4".	5".
1-16	.308	.260	.313	.409	.521	.625	.729	.833	.937	1.041	1.145	1.249	1.353	1.457	1.561	1.665
1-8	.417	.351	.425	.541	.673	.815	.957	1.100	1.242	1.384	1.526	1.668	1.810	1.952	2.094	2.236
3-16	.635	.531	.635	.811	1.000	1.189	1.378	1.567	1.756	1.945	2.134	2.323	2.512	2.701	2.890	3.079
1-4	.853	1.04	1.25	1.41	1.56	1.72	1.88	2.03	2.19	2.34	2.49	2.65	2.80	2.95	3.10	3.25
1-2	1.04	1.30	1.56	1.82	2.08	2.34	2.59	2.85	3.12	3.38	3.65	3.91	4.17	4.43	4.69	4.95
3-8	1.35	1.82	2.19	2.55	2.92	3.13	3.44	3.75	4.06	4.38	4.74	5.10	5.47	5.83	6.20	6.56
7-16	1.46	1.82	2.19	2.55	2.92	3.13	3.44	3.75	4.06	4.38	4.74	5.10	5.47	5.83	6.20	6.56
1-2	1.65	2.08	2.51	2.92	3.38	3.75	4.17	4.58	5.00	5.42	5.83	6.25	6.67	7.08	7.50	7.92
9-16	1.68	2.14	2.51	2.92	3.38	3.75	4.17	4.58	5.00	5.42	5.83	6.25	6.67	7.08	7.50	7.92
11-16	2.25	2.76	3.15	3.65	4.17	4.69	5.21	5.73	6.25	6.77	7.29	7.81	8.33	8.85	9.38	9.90
3-4	2.70	3.13	3.73	4.01	4.58	5.16	5.73	6.30	6.88	7.45	8.02	8.59	9.17	9.74	10.31	10.89
13-16	3.02	3.65	4.28	4.74	5.38	5.93	6.56	7.19	7.82	8.45	9.08	9.71	10.34	10.97	11.60	12.23
7-8	3.13	3.67	4.29	4.69	5.37	6.05	6.73	7.41	8.09	8.77	9.45	10.13	10.81	11.49	12.17	12.85
15-16	3.33	4.17	5.01	5.97	6.93	7.90	8.87	9.84	10.81	11.78	12.75	13.72	14.69	15.66	16.63	17.60
1-16	3.53	4.45	5.37	6.33	7.30	8.27	9.24	10.21	11.18	12.15	13.12	14.09	15.06	16.03	17.00	17.97
1-8	3.73	4.69	5.64	6.63	7.60	8.58	9.56	10.54	11.52	12.50	13.48	14.46	15.44	16.42	17.40	18.38
1-4	3.96	4.97	5.94	6.95	7.93	8.93	9.92	10.92	11.91	12.90	13.89	14.88	15.87	16.86	17.85	18.84
3-8	4.17	5.21	6.25	7.29	8.33	9.37	10.41	11.45	12.49	13.53	14.57	15.61	16.65	17.69	18.73	19.77
1-2	4.37	5.47	6.56	7.66	8.75	9.84	10.93	12.02	13.11	14.20	15.29	16.38	17.47	18.56	19.65	20.74
5-8	4.58	5.73	6.88	8.02	9.17	10.31	11.46	12.60	13.75	14.89	16.04	17.18	18.33	19.47	20.61	21.75
3-4	4.79	5.99	7.19	8.39	9.58	10.78	11.98	13.18	14.38	15.57	16.77	17.97	19.17	20.36	21.56	22.76
7-8	5.00	6.25	7.50	8.75	10.00	11.25	12.50	13.75	15.00	16.25	17.50	18.75	20.00	21.25	22.50	23.75
1-2	5.21	6.51	7.81	9.11	10.42	11.72	13.02	14.32	15.63	16.93	18.23	19.53	20.83	22.14	23.44	24.74
3-8	5.42	6.77	8.13	9.48	10.83	12.19	13.54	14.89	16.24	17.59	18.94	20.29	21.64	22.99	24.34	25.69
1-4	5.63	7.03	8.44	9.84	11.25	12.66	14.06	15.47	16.88	18.28	19.69	21.09	22.50	23.91	25.31	26.72
5-8	5.83	7.29	8.73	10.17	11.61	13.05	14.49	15.93	17.37	18.81	20.25	21.69	23.13	24.57	26.01	27.45
3-4	6.04	7.55	9.06	10.57	12.08	13.59	15.10	16.61	18.13	19.64	21.15	22.66	24.17	25.68	27.19	28.70

Thick- ness in Inches.	Widths.													
	5".	5½".	5¾".	6".	6½".	6¾".	7".	7½".	8".	8½".	9".	10".	11".	12".
1-10	1.04	1.09	1.15	1.20	1.25	1.30	1.35	1.41	1.46	1.56	1.67	1.77	1.88	2.00
1-10	2.08	2.19	2.30	2.40	2.50	2.60	2.71	2.81	2.93	3.13	3.33	3.54	3.75	4.00
1-10	3.13	3.28	3.44	3.59	3.75	3.91	4.06	4.22	4.38	4.69	4.90	5.21	5.43	5.70
1-10	4.17	4.38	4.58	4.79	5.00	5.21	5.42	5.63	5.83	6.25	6.47	7.08	7.50	8.00
1-10	5.21	5.47	5.73	5.99	6.25	6.51	6.77	7.03	7.29	7.81	8.03	8.85	9.38	10.00
1-10	6.25	6.56	6.88	7.19	7.50	7.81	8.13	8.44	8.75	9.38	10.00	10.63	11.25	12.00
1-10	7.29	7.66	8.03	8.39	8.75	9.11	9.48	9.84	10.21	10.94	11.67	12.40	13.13	14.00
1-10	8.33	8.75	9.17	9.58	10.00	10.42	10.83	11.25	11.67	12.50	13.33	14.17	15.00	16.00
1-10	9.38	9.84	10.31	10.78	11.25	11.72	12.19	12.66	13.13	14.06	15.00	15.94	16.88	18.00
1-10	10.42	10.94	11.46	11.98	12.50	13.02	13.54	14.06	14.58	15.63	16.67	17.71	18.75	20.00
1-10	11.46	12.03	12.60	13.18	13.75	14.32	14.90	15.47	16.04	17.19	18.33	19.48	20.63	22.00
1-10	12.50	13.13	13.75	14.38	15.00	15.63	16.25	16.88	17.50	18.75	19.00	21.25	22.50	24.00
1-10	13.54	14.22	14.90	15.57	16.25	16.93	17.60	18.28	18.96	20.31	21.67	23.03	24.38	26.00
1-10	14.58	15.31	16.04	16.77	17.50	18.23	18.96	19.69	20.42	21.88	23.33	24.79	26.25	28.00
1-10	15.63	16.41	17.19	17.97	18.75	19.53	20.31	21.09	21.88	23.44	25.00	26.56	28.13	30.00
1-10	16.67	17.50	18.33	19.17	20.00	20.83	21.67	22.50	23.33	25.00	26.67	28.33	30.00	32.00
1-10	17.71	18.67	19.63	20.59	21.56	22.52	23.48	24.44	25.40	27.33	29.26	31.19	33.13	35.50
1-10	18.75	19.69	20.63	21.56	22.50	23.44	24.38	25.31	26.25	28.13	30.00	31.88	33.75	36.00
1-10	19.79	20.82	21.84	22.86	23.88	24.89	25.91	26.93	27.95	30.00	32.03	34.06	36.00	38.50
1-10	20.83	21.92	22.99	24.06	25.13	26.20	27.27	28.34	29.41	31.50	33.53	35.56	37.50	40.00
1-10	21.88	23.03	24.17	25.31	26.45	27.59	28.73	29.87	31.00	33.13	35.26	37.39	39.50	42.00
1-10	22.92	24.14	25.35	26.56	27.77	28.98	30.19	31.39	32.59	34.79	36.99	39.19	41.38	44.00
1-10	23.97	25.25	26.52	27.79	29.06	30.33	31.59	32.86	34.13	36.33	38.53	40.73	43.00	46.00
1-10	25.00	26.33	27.66	29.00	30.33	31.66	32.99	34.32	35.65	37.92	39.25	41.58	43.50	46.50
1-10	26.04	27.42	28.80	30.18	31.56	32.94	34.32	35.70	37.08	39.38	40.83	43.13	45.00	48.00
1-10	27.08	28.51	29.94	31.37	32.80	34.23	35.66	37.09	38.52	40.83	42.26	44.67	46.50	50.00
1-10	28.13	29.61	31.08	32.55	34.02	35.49	36.96	38.43	39.90	42.19	43.75	46.22	47.75	51.50
1-10	29.17	30.68	32.18	33.68	35.18	36.67	38.16	39.65	41.14	43.75	45.33	47.92	49.50	53.00
1-10	30.21	31.76	33.31	34.86	36.41	37.96	39.51	41.06	42.61	45.33	47.00	49.67	51.33	55.00
1-10	31.25	32.84	34.43	36.02	37.61	39.20	40.79	42.38	43.97	46.88	48.50	51.13	52.75	56.50
1-10	32.30	33.93	35.56	37.19	38.82	40.45	42.08	43.71	45.34	48.33	50.00	52.67	54.33	58.00

Other sizes.—Weight of other sizes can easily be obtained from the above table by means of combinations or divisions. Thus, for example,

Weight of 12 X 1½ equals weight of 12 X 1 plus weight of 12 X ½..... 50.00
 Or, twice weight of 12 X ¾..... 50.00
 Weight of 6 X 1½ equals weight between 6 X 1½ and 6 X 2..... 38.75
 Weight of 24 X 1½ being twice as wide as 12 X 1½, weights..... 75.00

Thicknesses in inches.

Widths.

	5"	5 1/4"	5 1/2"	5 3/4"	6"	6 1/4"	6 1/2"	6 3/4"	7"	7 1/2"	8"	8 1/2"	9"	10"	11"	12"
1-16	1.04	1.15	1.30	1.45	1.60	1.77	1.94	2.11	2.28	2.45	2.62	2.79	2.96	3.13	3.30	3.47
3-16	2.08	2.30	2.60	2.90	3.20	3.50	3.80	4.10	4.40	4.70	5.00	5.30	5.60	5.90	6.20	6.50
1-4	3.13	3.44	3.90	4.35	4.80	5.25	5.70	6.15	6.60	7.05	7.50	7.95	8.40	8.85	9.30	9.75
3-8	4.17	4.58	5.20	5.80	6.40	7.00	7.60	8.20	8.80	9.40	10.00	10.60	11.20	11.80	12.40	13.00
1-2	5.21	5.73	6.50	7.35	8.20	9.05	9.90	10.75	11.60	12.45	13.30	14.15	15.00	15.85	16.70	17.55
3-4	6.25	6.88	7.90	8.95	10.00	11.05	12.10	13.15	14.20	15.25	16.30	17.35	18.40	19.45	20.50	21.55
7-16	7.29	7.99	9.20	10.45	11.70	12.95	14.20	15.45	16.70	17.95	19.20	20.45	21.70	22.95	24.20	25.45
1-8	8.33	9.11	10.40	11.70	13.00	14.30	15.60	16.90	18.20	19.50	20.80	22.10	23.40	24.70	26.00	27.30
3-16	9.38	10.31	11.70	13.10	14.50	15.90	17.30	18.70	20.10	21.50	22.90	24.30	25.70	27.10	28.50	29.90
1-4	10.42	11.46	13.00	14.55	16.10	17.65	19.20	20.75	22.30	23.85	25.40	26.95	28.50	30.05	31.60	33.15
3-8	11.46	12.63	14.30	16.00	17.70	19.40	21.10	22.80	24.50	26.20	27.90	29.60	31.30	33.00	34.70	36.40
1-2	12.50	13.75	15.60	17.50	19.40	21.30	23.20	25.10	27.00	28.90	30.80	32.70	34.60	36.50	38.40	40.30
3-4	13.54	14.89	16.90	19.00	21.10	23.20	25.30	27.40	29.50	31.60	33.70	35.80	37.90	40.00	42.10	44.20
7-16	14.58	16.03	17.18	18.70	20.25	21.80	23.35	24.90	26.45	28.00	29.55	31.10	32.65	34.20	35.75	37.30
1-8	15.62	17.17	18.40	19.85	21.30	22.75	24.20	25.65	27.10	28.55	30.00	31.45	32.90	34.35	35.80	37.25
3-16	16.67	18.30	19.60	21.15	22.70	24.25	25.80	27.35	28.90	30.45	32.00	33.55	35.10	36.65	38.20	39.75
1-4	17.71	19.48	20.90	22.50	24.10	25.70	27.30	28.90	30.50	32.10	33.70	35.30	36.90	38.50	40.10	41.70
3-8	18.75	20.63	22.20	23.90	25.60	27.30	29.00	30.70	32.40	34.10	35.80	37.50	39.20	40.90	42.60	44.30
1-2	19.79	21.77	23.40	25.20	27.00	28.80	30.60	32.40	34.20	36.00	37.80	39.60	41.40	43.20	45.00	46.80
3-4	20.83	22.90	24.60	26.50	28.40	30.30	32.20	34.10	36.00	37.90	39.80	41.70	43.60	45.50	47.40	49.30
7-16	21.87	24.03	25.80	27.80	29.80	31.80	33.80	35.80	37.80	39.80	41.80	43.80	45.80	47.80	49.80	51.80
1-8	22.91	25.17	27.00	29.00	31.00	33.00	35.00	37.00	39.00	41.00	43.00	45.00	47.00	49.00	51.00	53.00
3-16	23.95	26.31	28.20	30.30	32.40	34.50	36.60	38.70	40.80	42.90	45.00	47.10	49.20	51.30	53.40	55.50
1-4	24.99	27.45	29.80	32.00	34.20	36.40	38.60	40.80	43.00	45.20	47.40	49.60	51.80	54.00	56.20	58.40
3-8	26.03	28.59	30.90	33.20	35.60	38.00	40.40	42.80	45.20	47.60	50.00	52.40	54.80	57.20	59.60	62.00
1-2	27.07	29.73	32.10	34.50	37.00	39.50	42.00	44.50	47.00	49.50	52.00	54.50	57.00	59.50	62.00	64.50
3-4	28.11	30.87	33.30	35.80	38.40	41.00	43.60	46.20	48.80	51.40	54.00	56.60	59.20	61.80	64.40	67.00
7-16	29.15	32.01	34.40	36.90	39.40	41.90	44.40	46.90	49.40	51.90	54.40	56.90	59.40	61.90	64.40	66.90
1-8	30.19	33.15	35.60	38.10	40.60	43.10	45.60	48.10	50.60	53.10	55.60	58.10	60.60	63.10	65.60	68.10
3-16	31.23	34.29	36.80	39.30	41.80	44.30	46.80	49.30	51.80	54.30	56.80	59.30	61.80	64.30	66.80	69.30
1-4	32.27	35.43	38.00	40.60	43.20	45.80	48.40	51.00	53.60	56.20	58.80	61.40	64.00	66.60	69.20	71.80
3-8	33.31	36.57	39.40	42.10	44.80	47.50	50.20	52.90	55.60	58.30	61.00	63.70	66.40	69.10	71.80	74.50
1-2	34.35	37.81	40.60	43.30	46.00	48.70	51.40	54.10	56.80	59.50	62.20	64.90	67.60	70.30	73.00	75.70
3-4	35.39	38.95	41.80	44.60	47.40	50.20	53.00	55.80	58.60	61.40	64.20	67.00	69.80	72.60	75.40	78.20

Other sizes.—Weight of other sizes can easily be obtained from the above table by means of combinations or divisions. Thus, for example,

Weight of 12 x 14 equals weight of 12 x 1 plus weight of 12 x 14.
 Or, twice weight of 12 x 5, as it is twice as thick.
 Weight of 6 x 18 equals midway weight between 6 x 17 and 6 x 2.
 Weight of 34 x 13 being twice as wide as 17 x 13.

50.00
 50.00
 38.75
 78.00

WEIGHT OF IRON AND STEEL SHEETS.**Weights per Square Foot.**

(For weights by new U. S. Standard Gauge, see page 31.)

Thickness by Birmingham Gauge.				Thickness by American (Brown Sharpe's) Gauge.			
No. of Gauge.	Thick-ness in Inches.	Iron.	Steel.	No. of Gauge.	Thick-ness in Inches.	Iron.	St
0000	.454	18.16	18.52	0000	.46	18.40	18
000	.425	17.00	17.34	000	.4096	16.38	16
00	.38	15.20	15.30	00	.3648	14.59	14
0	.34	13.60	13.87	0	.3249	13.00	13
1	.3	12.00	12.24	1	.2893	11.57	11
2	.284	11.36	11.59	2	.2576	10.30	10
3	.259	10.36	10.57	3	.2294	9.18	9
4	.238	9.53	9.71	4	.2043	8.17	8
5	.22	8.80	8.98	5	.1819	7.38	7
6	.203	8.12	8.28	6	.1620	6.48	6
7	.18	7.20	7.34	7	.1443	5.77	5
8	.165	6.60	6.73	8	.1285	5.14	5
9	.148	5.92	6.04	9	.1144	4.58	4
10	.134	5.36	5.47	10	.1019	4.08	4
11	.12	4.80	4.90	11	.0907	3.63	3
12	.109	4.36	4.45	12	.0808	3.23	3
13	.095	3.80	3.88	13	.0720	2.88	2
14	.083	3.32	3.39	14	.0641	2.56	2
15	.072	2.88	2.94	15	.0571	2.28	2
16	.065	2.60	2.65	16	.0508	2.03	2
17	.058	2.32	2.37	17	.0453	1.81	1
18	.049	1.96	2.00	18	.0403	1.61	1
19	.042	1.68	1.71	19	.0359	1.44	1
20	.035	1.40	1.43	20	.0320	1.28	1
21	.032	1.28	1.31	21	.0285	1.14	1
22	.028	1.12	1.14	22	.0253	1.01	1
23	.025	1.00	1.02	23	.0226	.904	1
24	.022	.88	.898	24	.0201	.804	1
25	.02	.80	.816	25	.0179	.716	1
26	.018	.72	.734	26	.0159	.636	1
27	.016	.64	.653	27	.0142	.568	1
28	.014	.56	.571	28	.0126	.504	1
29	.013	.52	.530	29	.0113	.452	1
30	.012	.48	.490	30	.0100	.400	1
31	.01	.40	.408	31	.0089	.356	1
32	.009	.36	.367	32	.0080	.320	1
33	.008	.32	.326	33	.0071	.284	1
34	.007	.28	.286	34	.0063	.252	1
35	.005	.20	.204	35	.0056	.224	1

	Iron.	Steel.
Specific gravity	7.7	7.854
Weight per cubic foot.....	480.	489.6
" " " inch.....	.2778	.2833

*there are many gauges in use differing from each other, and even in specified gauge, as the Birmingham, are not assumed by all manufacturers, orders for sheets and wires should always specify the foot, or the thickness in thousandths of an

IZES AND WEIGHTS OF STRUCTURAL SHAPES.

imum and Maximum Weights and Dimensions of Carnegie I-Beams.

STEEL BEAMS.

Depth of Beam, in inches.	Weight per Foot, in lbs.		Flange Width.		Web Thickness.		Increase of Web and Flanges for each lb. increase of weight.
	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	
24	80.00	100.00	6.95	7.20	.50	.75	.0123
20	80.00	100.00	7.00	7.30	.60	.90	.015
20	64.00	75.00	6.25	6.41	.50	.66	.015
15	80.00	100.00	6.41	6.79	.77	1.16	.020
15	60.00	75.00	6.04	6.34	.54	.84	.020
15	50.00	59.00	5.75	5.93	.45	.63	.020
15	41.00	49.00	5.50	5.66	.40	.56	.020
12	40.00	56.70	5.50	5.91	.39	.80	.025
12	32.00	39.00	5.25	5.42	.35	.52	.025
10	33.00	40.00	5.00	5.21	.37	.58	.029
10	25.50	32.00	4.75	4.94	.32	.51	.029
9	27.00	33.00	4.75	4.95	.31	.51	.033
9	21.00	26.00	4.50	4.66	.27	.43	.033
8	22.00	27.00	4.50	4.68	.27	.45	.037
8	18.00	21.70	4.25	4.39	.25	.39	.037
7	20.00	22.00	4.25	4.33	.27	.35	.042
7	15.50	19.00	4.00	4.15	.23	.38	.042
6	16.00	20.00	3.63	3.85	.26	.46	.049
6	13.00	15.00	3.50	3.60	.23	.34	.049
5	13.00	16.00	3.13	3.31	.26	.44	.059
5	10.00	12.00	3.00	3.12	.22	.33	.059
4	10.00	13.00	2.75	2.97	.24	.46	.074
4	7.50	9.00	2.63	2.74	.20	.31	.074
4	6.00	8.00	2.18	2.33	.18	.33	.074

Weight in pounds per foot, to find sectional area	÷ $3\frac{1}{2}$	Iron.	Steel.
" " " " " " " "	" " " "	"	3.4
Sectional area, to find weight in lbs. per foot	× 0.3	"	.2911
" " " " " " " "	" " " "	"	3.4
" " " " " " " "	× 10	"	10.2

imum and Minimum Weights and Dimensions of Carnegie Deck Beams.

STEEL.

Depth of Beam, inches.	Weight per Foot, lbs.		Flange Width.		Web Thickness.		Increase of Web and Flanges per lb. increase of weight.
	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	
10	27.23	35.70	5.25	5.50	.38	.63	.029
9	26.52	30.60	4.84	5.07	.44	.57	.032
8	20.15	24.48	5.00	5.16	.31	.47	.037
7	18.10	23.46	4.87	5.10	.31	.54	.042
6	15.30	18.36	4.38	4.53	.28	.43	.049

WEIGHTS OF STEEL BLOOMS.

Soft steel. 1 cubic inch = 0.284 lb. 1 cubic foot = 490.75 lbs.

Sizes.	Lengths.											
	1'	6"	12"	18"	24"	30"	36"	42"	48"	54"	60"	66"
12" x 4"	13.63	82	164	245	327	409	491	573	654	736	818	900
11 x 6	18.75	113	225	338	450	563	675	788	900	1013	1125	1238
x 5	15.62	94	188	281	375	469	562	656	750	843	937	1030
x 4	12.50	75	150	225	300	375	450	525	600	675	750	825
10 x 7	19.88	130	259	358	477	596	715	835	955	1074	1193	1311
x 6	17.04	102	204	307	409	511	613	716	818	920	1022	1124
x 5	14.20	85	170	256	341	426	511	596	682	767	852	937
x 4	11.36	68	136	205	273	341	409	477	546	614	682	750
x 3	8.52	51	102	153	204	255	306	358	409	460	511	562
9 x 7	17.89	107	215	322	430	537	644	751	859	966	1073	1180
x 6	15.34	92	184	276	368	460	552	644	736	828	920	1011
x 5	12.78	77	153	230	307	383	460	537	614	690	767	844
x 4	10.22	61	123	184	245	307	368	429	490	552	613	674
8 x 8	18.18	109	218	327	436	545	655	764	873	982	1091	1200
x 7	15.9	95	191	286	382	477	573	668	763	859	954	1049
x 6	13.63	82	164	245	327	409	491	573	654	736	818	900
x 5	11.36	68	136	205	273	341	409	477	546	614	682	750
x 4	9.09	55	109	164	218	273	327	382	436	491	545	600
7 x 7	13.92	83	167	251	334	418	501	585	668	752	835	919
x 6	11.93	72	143	215	286	358	430	501	573	644	716	788
x 5	9.94	60	119	179	238	298	358	417	477	536	596	654
x 4	7.95	48	96	143	191	239	286	334	382	429	477	525
x 3	5.96	36	72	107	143	179	214	250	286	322	358	393
6½ x 6½	12.	72	144	216	288	360	432	504	576	648	720	792
x 4	7.38	44	89	133	177	221	266	310	354	399	443	487
6 x 6	10.22	61	123	184	245	307	368	429	490	551	613	674
x 5	8.52	51	102	153	204	255	307	358	409	460	511	562
x 4	6.82	41	82	123	164	204	245	286	327	368	409	450
x 3	5.11	31	61	92	123	153	184	214	245	276	307	337
5½ x 5½	8.59	52	103	155	206	258	309	361	412	464	515	567
x 4	6.25	37	75	112	150	188	225	262	300	337	375	411
5 x 5	7.10	43	85	128	170	213	256	298	341	383	426	469
x 4	5.68	34	68	102	136	170	205	239	273	307	341	375
4½ x 4½	5.75	35	69	104	138	173	207	242	276	311	345	380
x 4	5.11	31	61	92	123	153	184	215	246	277	307	338
4 x 4	4.54	27	55	82	109	136	164	191	218	246	272	300
x 3½	3.97	24	48	72	96	119	143	167	181	215	238	262
x 3	3.40	20	41	61	82	102	122	143	163	184	204	224
3½ x 3½	3.48	21	42	63	84	104	125	146	167	188	209	229
x 3	2.98	18	36	54	72	89	107	125	143	161	179	197
3 x 3	2.56	15	31	46	61	77	92	108	123	138	154	169

EXTENSION OF TESTS

MEASUREMENTS OF WEIGHTS AND DIMENSIONS

or Various

16	34	72	1
85	15	87	1.00
26.5	29.1	31.2	33.3
22.8	25.0	27.2	28.4
17.7	19.3		

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48.

Weights per Foot for Various
Distances in Inches.

16	34	72	1
1.55	3.0	6.25	6.25
17.0	18.9	20.9	22.8
22.9	15.0	17.1	19.2
22.2	14.4	16.4	18.6
11.5	13.6	15.6	17.6
11.0	12.8	14.6	16.4
10.8	12	14.6	16.4
9.7	11.2	12.8	14.3
9.2	10.6	12.1	13.6
9.2	10.6	12.1	13.6
8.6	10.0	1.4	12.8
7.9	9.2	10.5	11.8
7.1	8.3	9.4	
6.7			
6.7	7.8	8.9	
6.1	7.1	8.2	
5.4	6.3	7.2	
4.6			
4.0			



Weights and Dimensions of Carnegie Steel Channels

Section Index	Depth of Channel, in inches.	Weight per Foot, in lbs.		Flange Width.		Web Thickness.		Incr of a Flange for lb. creat weig
		Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	
C1	15	32.00	51.00	3.40	3.78	.40	.78	.0
C2	12	20.00	30.25	2.90	3.15	.30	.55	.0
C3	10	15.25	23.75	2.66	2.91	.26	.51	.0
C4	9	12.75	20.50	2.44	2.69	.24	.49	.0
C5	8	10.00	17.25	2.20	2.47	.20	.47	.0
C6	7	8.50	14.50	2.00	2.25	.20	.45	.0
C7	6	7.00	12.00	1.89	2.14	.19	.44	.0
C8	5	6.00	10.25	1.78	2.03	.18	.43	.0
C9	4	5.00	8.25	1.67	1.91	.17	.41	.0

Weights and Dimensions of Carnegie Z-Bars.

Section Index.	Thickness of Metal.	Size.			Weight.	
		Flange.	Web.	Flange.	Iron.	Ste
Z 1	3/4	3 1/2	6	3 1/2	15.3	16
"	7-16	3 9-16	6 1-16	3 9-16	18.0	18
"	1/2	3 5/8	6 3/8	3 5/8	20.6	20
Z 2	9-16	3 1/2	6	3 1/2	22.3	22
"	5/8	3 9-16	6 1-16	3 9-16	24.9	24
"	11-16	3 5/8	6 3/8	3 5/8	27.5	27
Z 3	3/4	3 1/2	6	3 1/2	28.8	28
"	13-16	3 9-16	6 1-16	3 9-16	31.3	31
"	7/8	3 5/8	6 3/8	3 5/8	33.9	33
Z 4	5-16	3 1/4	5	3 1/4	11.3	11
"	3/8	3 5-16	5 1-16	3 5-16	13.7	13
"	7-16	3 3/8	5 1/8	3 3/8	16.0	16
Z 5	1/2	3 1/2	5	3 1/2	17.5	17
"	9-16	3 5-16	5 1-16	3 5-16	19.8	19
"	5/8	3 3/8	5 1/8	3 3/8	22.1	22
Z 6	11-16	3 1/2	5	3 1/2	23.2	23
"	3/4	3 7-16	5 1-16	3 7-16	25.5	25
"	13-16	3 3/8	5 1/8	3 3/8	27.8	27
Z 7	1/4	3 1-16	4	3 1-16	5.0	5
"	5-11	3 1/8	4 1-16	3 1/8	10.1	10
"	3/8	3 3-16	4 1/8	3 3-16	12.2	12
Z 8	7-16	3 1-16	4	3 1-16	13.5	13
"	1/2	3 1/8	4 1-16	3 1/8	15.5	15
"	9-16	3 3-16	4 3/8	3 3-16	17.0	17
Z 9	5/8	3 1-16	4	3 1-16	18.5	18
"	11-16	3 1/8	4 1-16	3 1/8	20.5	20
"	3/4	3 3-16	4 3/8	3 3-16	22.5	22
Z10	1/4	2 11-16	3	2 11-16	6.6	6
"	5-16	2 3/4	3 1-16	2 3/4	8.3	8
Z11	3/8	2 11-16	3	2 11-16	9.5	9
"	7-16	2 3/4	3 1-16	2 3/4	11.3	11
Z12	1/2	2 11-16	3	2 11-16	12.3	12
"	3/4	2 3/4	3 1-16	2 3/4	13.3	13

Pencoyd Tees.

EVEN TEES.

UNEVEN TEES.

Chart Number.	Size in Inches.	Weight per Foot.		Chart Number.	Size in Inches.	Weight per Foot.
		Iron.	Steel.			
70	4 x 4	12.40	12.65	107	5 x 4	14.70
71	3½ x 3½	10.17	10.37	106	5 x 3½	16.13
72	3 x 3	8.33	8.50	93	5 x 2 9-16	11.03
82	3 x 3	6.43	6.56	92	5 x 2½	10.23
83	3 x 3	7.53	7.68	90	4½ x 3½	14.83
84	2½ x 2½	4.88	4.93	109	4 x 4½	13.23
78	2½ x 2½	6.50	6.68	91	4 x 3½	13.93
74	2½ x 2½	5.73	5.85	94	4 x 3	8.63
75	2½ x 2½	3.90	3.98	95	4 x 3	8.37
76	2½ x 2½	3.93	4.01	96	4 x 2	6.43
77	2 x 2	3.47	3.54	97	3 x 3½	9.37
78	1¾ x 1¾	2.37	2.41	98	3 x 2½	7.93
79	1½ x 1½	2.00	2.04	110	3 x 2½	5.87
80	1¾ x 1¾	1.50	1.53	111	3 x 2½	6.87
81	1 x 1	1.03	1.05	117	3 x 2½	5.00
85	4 x 4	10.98	11.19	99	3 x 1½	3.73
				105	2¾ x 2	7.13
				104	3¾ x 1¾	6.53
				100	2¾ x 1¾	3.63
				108	2¾ x 0 9-16	2.30
				101	2 x 1½	2.60
				112	2 x 1 1-16	2.67
				102	2 x 1	2.33
				103	2 x 9-16	2.63
				116	1¾ x 1¾	3.47
				113	1¾ x 1 1-16	1.87
				114	1½ x 15-16	1.37
				115	1¾ x 15-16	1.13
				118	3 x 2½	5.93
				119	2¾ x 2½	5.63

Pencoyd Car-Builders' Channels, Iron.

Section Number.	Depth in Inches.	Minimum Flange Width in Inches.	Minimum Web Thickness in Inches.	Minimum Weight per Foot in Pounds.	Approximate Weight in Pounds per Foot for Each Thickness of Web, in Inches.					
					5-16	¾	7-16	½	9-16	5/8
55	13	37½	¾	29.5		29.5	32.2	34.9	37.6	40.3
54	12	3	0-32	22.4	23.6	26.1	28.6	31.1	33.6	
33½	10½	3¾	7-16	23.6			23.6	25.8		
33	10½	2½	5-16	17.6	17.6	19.8				

Pencoyd Car-Builders' Channels, Steel.

55	13	37½	¾	30.1		30.1	32.9	35.6	38.4	41.1
54	12	3	0-32	22.8	24.1	26.6	29.2	31.7	34.3	
33½	10½	3¾	7-16	24.1			24.1	26.3		
33	10½	2½	5-16	17.9	17.9	20.2				

D WEIGHTS OF ROOFING MATERIALS.
Corrugated Iron (Phoenix Iron Co.).

BLACK IRON.			GALVANIZED IRON.		
ht in. No. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9	Weight in Lbs. per Sq. Ft. on Roof, Flat.	Weight in Lbs. per Sq. Ft., on Roof, Corrugated	Weight in Lbs. per Sq. Ft., Flat.	Weight in Lbs. per Sq. Ft. on Roof, Flat.	Weight in Lbs. per Sq. Ft., on Roof, Corrugated
1	3.03	3.37	3.00	3.50	3.88
7	2.29	2.54	2.37	2.76	3.07
9	1.63	1.82	1.75	2.03	2.26
3	1.31	1.45	1.31	1.53	1.71
5	1.03	1.14	1.06	1.24	1.37
3	0.84	0.93	0.94	1.09	1.21

Weight is calculated for the ordinary size of sheet, which is from 6 to 8 feet long, allowing 4 inches lap in length and 1/2 inch width of sheet.

Weight of sheet iron adds about one-third of a pound to its weight.

Corrugated iron made by the Keystone Bridge Co., the corrugations are measured on the straight line; they require a length of iron of 12 feet for one corrugation, and the depth of corrugation is 2 1/2-3/4". A 1/2" is allowed for lap in the width of the sheet and 6" in the usual pitch of roof of two to one. Sheets can be corrugated to a width not exceeding ten feet. The most advantageous width is 10 feet (allowing 1/2" for irregularities) will make eleven corrugations and, with allowance for laps, will cover 24 1/4" of the surface of the roof.

It was found that corrugated iron No. 20, spanning 6 feet, will sustain a permanent deflection for a load of 30 lbs. per square foot, and will collapse with a load of 60 lbs. per square foot. The distance between purlins should therefore not exceed 6 feet, and, preferably, be less than this.

Terra-Cotta.

Common terra-cotta roofing 3" thick weighs 16 lbs. per square foot and 2" thick weighs 11 lbs. per square foot.

Thin terra-cotta of the same material 2" thick weighs 11 lbs. per square foot.

Tiles.

Common tiles 14" x 10 1/2" x 5 1/2" weigh from 1450 to 1850 lbs. per square of roof, depending on one-half the length of the tile.

Decorative tiles and *fillets* weigh from 740 to 925 lbs. per square of roof. Tiles 14" x 10 1/2" laid 10" to the weather, weigh 850 lbs. per square.

Tin.

Weights for roofing tin are 14" x 20" and 20" x 28". Without allowance for waste, tin roofing weighs from 50 to 62 lbs. per square. Galvanized tin weighs from 62 to 75 lbs. per square.

Asbestos or terne plates (steel plates coated with an alloy of tin and iron) are made only in 10 and 12 thicknesses (27 and 29 Birmingham "gauge") and "charcoal" tin plates, old names used when iron and charcoal was used for the tinned plate, are still used in some places. Although steel plates have been substituted for iron; a coke plate meaning one made of Bessemer steel, and a charcoal plate meaning one made of steel. The thickness of the tin coating on the plates varies with the different brands.

For information on Tin Roofing, see circulars of Merchants.

TIN PLATES. (TINNED SHEET STEEL.)

Standard Stock Sizes, with Number of Sheets and Net Weight per Box.

B. W. Gauge.	Thickness.	Size.	Sheets.	Net Weight lbs.	B. W. Gauge.	Thickness.	Size.	Sheets.	Net Weight lbs.
29	IC	10 x 14	225	108	29	IC	10 x 20	225	108
27	IX	10 x 14	225	135	27	IX	10 x 20	225	135
26	IXX	10 x 14	225	160	26	IXX	10 x 20	225	160
29	IC	12 x 12	225	110	29	IC	11 x 22	225	110
27	IX	12 x 12	225	138	27	IX	11 x 22	225	138
26	IXX	12 x 12	225	165	26	IXX	11 x 22	225	165
29	IC	14 x 20	112	108	29	IC	12 x 24	112	108
27	IX	14 x 20	112	135	27	IX	12 x 24	112	135
26	IXX	14 x 20	112	160	26	IXX	12 x 24	112	160
25	IXXXX	14 x 20	112	180	25	IXX	13 x 26	112	180
24 _g	IXXXX	14 x 20	112	200	27	IX	13 x 26	112	200
29	IC	20 x 28	112	216	26	IXX	13 x 26	112	216
27	IX	20 x 28	112	270	29	IC	14 x 22	112	270
26	IXX	20 x 28	112	320	27	IX	14 x 22	112	320
25	IXXXX	20 x 28	56	180	26	IXX	14 x 22	112	180
24 _g	IXXXX	20 x 28	56	200	29	IC	14 x 24	112	200
29	IC	13 x 13	225	132	27	IX	14 x 24	112	132
27	IX	13 x 13	225	162	26	IXX	14 x 24	112	162
26	IXX	13 x 13	225	192	29	IC	14 x 28	112	192
29	IC	14 x 14	225	155	27	IX	14 x 28	112	155
27	IX	14 x 14	225	183	26	IXX	14 x 28	112	183
26	IXX	14 x 14	225	220	29	IC	14 x 31	112	220
29	IC	15 x 15	225	178	27	IX	14 x 31	112	178
27	IX	15 x 15	225	218	26	IXX	14 x 31	112	218
26	IXX	15 x 15	225	260	27	IX	14 x 36	56	260
29	IC	16 x 16	225	200	26	IXX	14 x 36	56	200
27	IX	16 x 16	225	248	27	IX	14 x 60	56	248
26	IXX	16 x 16	225	290	26	IXX	14 x 60	56	290
29	IC	17 x 17	225	230	29	IC	15 x 21	112	230
27	IX	17 x 17	225	289	27	IX	15 x 21	112	289
26	IXX	17 x 17	225	340	26	IXX	15 x 21	112	340
29	IC	18 x 18	112	173	29	IC	16 x 19	112	173
27	IX	18 x 18	112	158	27	IX	16 x 19	112	158
26	IXX	18 x 18	112	173	26	IXX	16 x 19	112	173
29	IC	20 x 20	112	160	29	IC	16 x 20	112	160
27	IX	20 x 20	112	195	27	IX	16 x 20	112	195
26	IXX	20 x 20	112	222	26	IXX	16 x 20	112	222
29	IC	22 x 22	112	190	29	IC	16 x 22	112	190
27	IX	22 x 22	112	235	27	IX	16 x 22	112	235
26	IXX	22 x 22	112	275	26	IXX	16 x 22	112	275
29	IC	24 x 24	112	220					
27	IX	24 x 24	112	276					
26	IXX	24 x 24	112	330					

B. W. Gauge.	Thickness.	Size.	Sheets.	Net Weight lbs.	B. W. Gauge.	Thickness.	Size.	Sheets.	Net Weight lbs.
23	DC	12 $\frac{1}{4}$ x 17	100	94	23	DXXX	15 x 21	100	94
25	DX	12 $\frac{1}{4}$ x 17	100	122	22	DXXXX	15 x 21	100	122
24	DXX	12 $\frac{1}{4}$ x 17	100	143	28	DC	17 x 25	50	143
23	DXXX	12 $\frac{1}{4}$ x 17	100	164	25	DX	17 x 25	50	164
22	DXXXX	12 $\frac{1}{4}$ x 17	100	185	24	DXX	17 x 25	50	185
28	DC	15 x 21	100	130	23	DXXX	17 x 25	50	130
25	DX	15 x 21	100	180	22	DXXXX	17 x 25	50	180
24	DXX	15 x 21	100	213					

Terne Plates, 112 sheets in a box. $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 10 \times 20, \text{ IC, } 80 \text{ lbs., IX } 100 \text{ lbs. per box.} \\ 14 \times 20, \text{ IC, } 112 \text{ lbs., IX } 140 \text{ " " " } \\ 20 \times 28, \text{ IC, } 224 \text{ lbs., IX } 280 \text{ " " " } \end{array} \right.$

• Tin and Iron, 36 and 38 B. W. G., 10 x 14 and 14 x 20, 112 lbs. per

Slate.

Number and superficial area of slate required for one square of roof.
(1 square = 100 square feet.)

Dimensions in Inches.	Number per Square.	Superficial Area in Sq. Ft.	Dimensions in Inches.	Number per Square.	Superficial Area in Sq. Ft.
6x12	533	367	12x18	160	240
7x12	457	10x20	169	235
8x12	400	11x20	154
9x12	355	12x20	141
7x14	374	254	14x20	121
8x14	327	16x20	137
9x14	291	12x22	126	231
10x14	261	14x22	108
8x16	277	246	12x24	114	228
9x16	246	14x24	98
10x16	221	16x24	86
8x18	213	240	14x26	89	205
10x18	192	16x26	78

As slate is usually laid, the number of square feet of roof covered by one square can be obtained from the following formula :

$$\frac{\text{width} \times (\text{length} - 3 \text{ inches})}{288} = \text{the number of square feet of roof covered.}$$

Weight of slate of various lengths and thicknesses required for one square of roof :

Length in Inches.	Weight in Pounds per Square for the Thickness.							
	1/8"	3-16"	1/4"	3/8"	1/2"	5/8"	3/4"	1"
12	483	724	967	1450	1936	2419	2902	3872
14	460	688	920	1379	1842	2301	2760	3683
16	445	667	890	1336	1784	2229	2670	3567
18	434	650	869	1303	1740	2174	2607	3480
20	425	637	851	1276	1704	2129	2553	3408
22	418	626	836	1254	1675	2083	2508	3350
24	412	617	825	1238	1653	2056	2478	3306
26	407	610	815	1222	1631	2030	2445	3263

The weights given above are based on the number of slate required for one square of roof, taking the weight of a cubic foot of slate at 175 pounds.

Pine Shingles.

Number and weight of pine shingles required to cover one square of roof :

Number of Inches Exposed to Weather.	Number of Shingles per Square of Roof.	Weight in Pounds of Shingle on One-square of Roofs.	Remarks.
4	900	216	The number of shingles per square is for common gable-roofs. For hip-roofs add five per cent. to these figures. The weights per square are based on the number per square.
4 1/2	800	192	
5	720	173	
5 1/2	655	157	
6	600	144	

Skylight Glass.

The weights of various sizes and thicknesses of fluted or rough plates required for one square of roof.

Dimensions in Inches.	Thickness in Inches.	Area in Square Feet.	Weight in Lbs. Square of Roof
12 x 48	3-16	3.997	250
15 x 60	$\frac{1}{4}$	6.246	350
20 x 100	$\frac{3}{8}$	13.880	500
94 x 156	$\frac{1}{2}$	101.768	700

In the above table no allowance is made for lap.

If ordinary window-glass is used, single thick glass (about 1-16") will weigh about 82 lbs. per square, and double thick glass (about $\frac{1}{8}$ ") will weigh about 164 lbs. per square, *no allowance being made for lap*. A box of ordinary window-glass contains as nearly 50 square feet as the size of the panes admit of. Panes of any size are made to order by the manufacturers, but a great variety of sizes are usually kept in stock, ranging from 6 x 8 inches to 36 x 60 inches.

APPROXIMATE WEIGHTS OF VARIOUS ROOF COVERINGS.

For preliminary estimates the weights of various roof coverings may be taken as tabulated below:

Name.	Weight in Lbs. per Square of Roof.
Cast-iron plates ($\frac{3}{8}$ " thick)	1500
Copper,	80-125
Felt and asphalt	100
Felt and gravel	800-1000
Iron, corrugated	100-375
Iron, galvanized, flat	100-350
Lath and plaster	900-1000
Sheathing, pine, 1" thick yellow, northern ..	300
" " " " southern ..	400
Spruce, 1" thick	200
Sheathing, chestnut or maple, 1" thick	400
" " ash, hickory, or oak, 1" thick	500
Sheet iron (1-16" thick)	300
" " " " and laths	500
Shingles, pine	300
Slates ($\frac{1}{4}$ " thick)	900
Skylights (glass 3-16" to $\frac{1}{8}$ " thick)	250-700
Sheet lead	500-800
Thatch	650
Tile,	70-125
Tiles, flat	1500-3000
" (grooves and fillets)	700-1000
" pan	1000
" with mortar	3000-3000
Zinc	100-300

WEIGHT OF CAST-IRON PIPES OR COLUMNS.**In Lbs. per Lineal Foot.**

Cast iron = 450 lbs. per cubic foot.

Thick. of Metal.	Weight per Foot.	Bore.	Thick. of Metal.	Weight per Foot.	Bore.	Thick. of Metal.	Weight per Foot.
Ins.	Lbs.	Ins.	Ins.	Lbs.	Ins.	Ins.	Lbs.
$\frac{3}{8}$	12.4	10	$\frac{3}{4}$	79.2	22	$\frac{3}{4}$	167.5
$\frac{1}{2}$	17.2	$10\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	54.0		$\frac{5}{8}$	196.5
$\frac{5}{8}$	22.2		$\frac{3}{8}$	68.2	23	$\frac{3}{4}$	174.9
$\frac{3}{4}$	14.3		$\frac{1}{4}$	82.8		$\frac{7}{8}$	205.1
$\frac{7}{8}$	19.6	11	$\frac{1}{2}$	56.5	1	$\frac{3}{4}$	235.6
$1\frac{1}{8}$	25.3		$\frac{3}{8}$	71.3	24	$\frac{3}{4}$	182.2
$1\frac{1}{4}$	16.1		$\frac{1}{4}$	86.5		$\frac{5}{8}$	213.7
$1\frac{3}{8}$	22.1	$11\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	58.9	1	$\frac{3}{4}$	245.4
$1\frac{1}{2}$	28.4		$\frac{3}{8}$	74.4	25	$\frac{3}{4}$	189.6
$1\frac{3}{4}$	17.9		$\frac{1}{4}$	90.2		$\frac{7}{8}$	222.3
$1\frac{7}{8}$	24.5	12	$\frac{1}{2}$	61.3	1	$\frac{3}{4}$	255.3
$1\frac{5}{8}$	31.5		$\frac{3}{8}$	77.5	26	$\frac{3}{4}$	197.0
$1\frac{3}{2}$	19.8		$\frac{1}{4}$	93.9		$\frac{5}{8}$	230.9
$1\frac{7}{8}$	27.0	$12\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	63.8	1	$\frac{3}{4}$	265.1
$1\frac{5}{8}$	34.4		$\frac{3}{8}$	80.5	27	$\frac{3}{4}$	204.3
$1\frac{3}{4}$	21.6		$\frac{1}{4}$	97.6		$\frac{7}{8}$	239.4
$1\frac{7}{8}$	29.4	13	$\frac{1}{2}$	66.3	1	$\frac{3}{4}$	274.9
$1\frac{5}{8}$	37.6		$\frac{3}{8}$	83.6	28	$\frac{3}{4}$	211.7
$1\frac{3}{2}$	23.5		$\frac{1}{4}$	101.2		$\frac{5}{8}$	248.1
$1\frac{7}{8}$	31.8	14	$\frac{1}{2}$	71.2	1	$\frac{3}{4}$	284.7
$1\frac{5}{8}$	40.7		$\frac{3}{8}$	89.7	29	$\frac{3}{4}$	219.1
$1\frac{3}{4}$	25.3		$\frac{1}{4}$	108.6		$\frac{7}{8}$	256.6
$1\frac{7}{8}$	34.4	15	$\frac{1}{2}$	95.9	1	$\frac{3}{4}$	294.5
$1\frac{5}{8}$	43.7		$\frac{3}{8}$	116.0	30	$\frac{3}{4}$	265.2
$1\frac{3}{2}$	27.1		$\frac{1}{4}$	136.4		$\frac{5}{8}$	304.3
$1\frac{7}{8}$	36.8	16	$\frac{1}{2}$	102.0	1	$\frac{3}{4}$	343.7
$1\frac{5}{8}$	46.8		$\frac{3}{8}$	123.3	31	$\frac{3}{4}$	273.8
$1\frac{3}{4}$	29.0		$\frac{1}{4}$	145.0		$\frac{7}{8}$	314.2
$1\frac{7}{8}$	39.3	17	$\frac{1}{2}$	108.2	1	$\frac{3}{4}$	354.8
$1\frac{5}{8}$	49.9		$\frac{3}{8}$	130.7	32	$\frac{3}{4}$	282.4
$1\frac{3}{2}$	30.8		$\frac{1}{4}$	153.6		$\frac{5}{8}$	324.0
$1\frac{7}{8}$	41.7	18	$\frac{1}{2}$	114.3	1	$\frac{3}{4}$	365.8
$1\frac{5}{8}$	52.9		$\frac{3}{8}$	138.1	33	$\frac{3}{4}$	291.0
$1\frac{3}{4}$	44.2		$\frac{1}{4}$	162.1		$\frac{7}{8}$	333.8
$1\frac{7}{8}$	56.0	19	$\frac{1}{2}$	120.4	1	$\frac{3}{4}$	376.9
$1\frac{5}{8}$	68.1		$\frac{3}{8}$	145.4	34	$\frac{3}{4}$	299.6
$1\frac{3}{2}$	46.6		$\frac{1}{4}$	170.7		$\frac{5}{8}$	343.7
$1\frac{7}{8}$	59.1	20	$\frac{1}{2}$	126.6	1	$\frac{3}{4}$	388.0
$1\frac{5}{8}$	71.8		$\frac{3}{8}$	152.8	35	$\frac{3}{4}$	308.1
$1\frac{3}{4}$	49.1		$\frac{1}{4}$	179.3		$\frac{7}{8}$	353.4
$1\frac{7}{8}$	62.1	21	$\frac{1}{2}$	132.7	1	$\frac{3}{4}$	409.0
$1\frac{5}{8}$	75.5		$\frac{3}{8}$	160.1	36	$\frac{3}{4}$	316.6
$1\frac{3}{2}$	51.5		$\frac{1}{4}$	187.9		$\frac{5}{8}$	363.1
$1\frac{7}{8}$	65.2	22	$\frac{1}{2}$	138.8	1	$\frac{3}{4}$	410.0

The weight of the two flanges may be reckoned = weight of one foot.

CAST-IRON PIPE FITTINGS.

Approximate Weight.

Addyston Pipe and Steel Co., Cincinnati, Ohio.

Size in Inches.	Weight in Lbs.	Size in Inches.	Weight in Lbs.	Size in Inches.	Weight in Lbs.	Size in Inches.	Weight in Lbs.
CROSSES.		TEES.		SLEEVES.		REDUCERS.	
	40	8 x 3	220	6	65	10 x 4	128
	104	10	390	8	86	12 x 10	278
2	90	10 x 8	390	10	140	12 x 8	254
	150	10 x 6	312	12	176	12 x 6	250
3	114	10 x 4	292	14	208	12 x 4	250
2	110	10 x 3	290	16	340	14 x 12	475
	200	12	565	20	500	14 x 10	430
4	150	12 x 10	510	24	710	14 x 8	340
3	150	12 x 8	492	30	965	14 x 6	285
	325	12 x 6	484	36	1500	16 x 12	475
6	265	12 x 4	460			16 x 10	435
4	265	14 x 12	650	90° ELBOWS.			
3	225	14 x 10	650	2	14	20 x 16	690
	510	14 x 8	575	3	34	20 x 14	575
8	415	14 x 6	545	4	48	20 x 12	540
6	388	14 x 4	525	6	110	20 x 8	300
4	338	14 x 3	490	8	145	24 x 20	745
3	350	16	790	10	225	30 x 24	1305
	700	16 x 14	850	12	370	30 x 18	1385
10	650	16 x 12	825	14	450	36 x 30	1730
8	615	16 x 10	890	16	525	ANGLE REDUCERS FOR GAS.	
6	540	16 x 8	755	20	900	6 x 4	95
4	525	16 x 6	680	24	1400	6 x 3	80
3	495	16 x 4	655	1/8 or 45° BENDS.			
10	20	20	1375	3	30	S PIPES.	
8	635	20 x 16	1115	4	65	4	90
6	570	20 x 12	1025	6	85	6	190
	1025	20 x 10	1090	8	160	PLUGS.	
14	1070	20 x 8	900	10	190	2	2
12	1025	20 x 6	875	12	290	3	5
10	1010	20 x 4	845	16	510	4	8
8	825	21 x 10	1465	20	740	6	12
6	700	24	1875	24	1425	8	26
4	650	24 x 12	1425	30	2000	10	46
2	1790	24 x 8	1375	1-16 or 2 1/2° BENDS.			
10	1370	24 x 6	1375	6	150	12	66
	1225	30	3025	8	155	14	70
8	1000	30 x 24	2640	10	165	16	100
6	1000	30 x 20	2200	12	260	20	150
4	1000	30 x 12	2035	16	500	24	185
2	2190	30 x 10	2050	24	1280	30	370
	2020	30 x 6	1825	30	1735	CAPS.	
0	1340	36	5140	REDUCERS.			
0	2635	36 x 30	4200	3 x 2	35	3	15
2	2250	36 x 12	4050	4 x 3	42	4	25
	1995	45° BRANCH PIPES.		4 x 2	40	6	60
		3	90	6 x 4	95	8	75
		6 x 6 x 4	145	8 x 3	126	10	100
		8	300	8 x 2	80	12	120
		8 x 6	290	8 x 6	126	DRIP BOXES.	
		24	2765	8 x 4	116	4	235
		24 x 24 x 20	2145	8 x 3	116	8	355
		30	4170	10 x 8	212	10	760
		36	10800	10 x 6	150	20	1420
		SLEEVES.					
		2	10				
		3	20				
		4	44				

WEIGHTS OF CAST-IRON WATER- AND GAS-PIPE

(Addyston Pipe and Steel Co., Cincinnati, Ohio.)

Size in Inches.	Standard Water-Pipe.			Size in Inches.	Standard Gas-Pipe.		
	Per Foot.	Thick-ness.	Per Length.		Per Foot.	Thick-ness.	Per Length.
2	7	5-16	63	2	6	1/4	4
3	15	5/8	180	3	12 1/2	5-16	11
3	17	1/2	204				
4	22	1/2	264	4	17	3/8	8
6	33	1/2	396	6	30	7-16	3
8	42	1/2	504	8	40	7-16	4
10	60	9-16	720	10	50	7-16	6
12	75	9-16	900	12	70	1/2	8
14	117	3/4	1400	14	84	9-16	10
16	125	3/4	1500	16	100	9-16	11
18	167	3/8	2000	18	134	11-16	14
20	200	15-16	2400	20	150	11-16	16
24	250	1	3000	24	184	3/4	21
30	350	1 1/8	4200	30	250	3/4	31
36	475	1 1/8	5700	36	350	7/8	41
42	600	1 1/8	7200	42	383	7/8	46
48	775	1 1/2	9300	48	542	1 1/8	67
60	1330	2	15960	60	900	1 1/8	107

THICKNESS OF CAST-IRON PIPES.

P. H. Baermann, in a paper read before the Engineers' Club of Philadelphia in 1882, gave twenty different formulas for determining the thickness of cast-iron water-pipes under pressure. The formulas are of classes:

1. Depending upon the diameter only.
2. Those depending upon the diameter and head, and which add a constant.
3. Those depending upon the diameter and head, contain an additive subtractive term depending upon the diameter, and add a constant.

The more modern formulas are of the third class, and are as follows:

$t = .0008hd + .01d + .36$	Shedd,	No. 1.
$t = .00006hd + .0133d + .296$	Warren Foundry,	No. 2.
$t = .000058hd + .0152d + .312$	Francis,	No. 3.
$t = .000048hd + .013d + .32$	Dupuit,	No. 4.
$t = .00004hd + .1 \sqrt{d} + .15$	Box,	No. 5.
$t = .00135hd + .4 - .0011d$	Whitman,	No. 6.
$t = .00006(h + 230)d + .333 - .0033d$	Fanning,	No. 7.
$t = .00015hd + .25 - .0052d$	Meggs,	No. 8.

In which t = thickness in inches, h = head in feet, d = diameter in in.

Rankine, "Civil Engineering," p. 721, says: "Cast-iron pipes should be made of a soft and tough quality of iron. Great attention should be paid to moulding them correctly, so that the thickness may be exactly uniform. Each pipe should be tested for air-bubbles and flaws by rapping with a hammer, and for strength by exposing it to double the highest greatest working pressure." The rule for computing the thickness of

to resist a given working pressure is $t = \frac{rp}{f}$, where r is the radius in in, p the pressure in pounds per square inch, and f the tenacity of the iron in pounds per square inch. When $f = 18000$, and a factor of safety of 5 is used, the expression in terms of d and h becomes

$$t = \frac{.5d.433h}{3600} = \frac{dh}{16628} = .00006dh.$$

"There are," however, arising from difficulties in casting by shocks, which cause the thickness to be less than the above formula."

Safe Pressures, etc., for Cast-Iron Pipe.—(Continued)

Thick-ness.	Size of Pipe.															
	22"		24"		27"		30"		33"		36"		42"		48"	
	Pressure in Pounds.	Head in Feet.	Pressure in Pounds.	Head in Feet.	Pressure in Pounds.	Head in Feet.	Pressure in Pounds.	Head in Feet.	Pressure in Pounds.	Head in Feet.	Pressure in Pounds.	Head in Feet.	Pressure in Pounds.	Head in Feet.	Pressure in Pounds.	Head in Feet.
11-16	40	92	30	69	19	64										
8-4	60	138	49	113	36	83	24	55								
13-16	80	184	68	157	52	150	39	90								
7-8	101	233	86	198	69	159	54	134	42	97						
15-16	121	279	105	242	85	196	69	159	55	127	44	101				
1	142	327	124	286	102	235	84	194	69	159	57	131	38	88	24	55
1 1-8	182	419	161	371	135	311	114	263	96	221	82	189	59	136	43	96
1 1-4	224	516	199	458	169	389	144	332	124	286	107	247	81	187	63	143
1 3-8	237	546	202	465	174	401	151	348	132	304	103	237	81	187
1 1-2	296	544	204	470	178	410	157	363	134	286	96	221
1 5-8
1 3-4
1 7-8
2
2 1-8
2 1-4
2 1-2
2 3-4

NOTE.—The absolute safe static pressure which may be put upon pipe is given by the formula $P = \frac{2T}{D} \times \frac{S}{5}$, in which formula P is the pressure per square inch; T , the thickness of the shell; S , the ultimate strength per square inch of the metal in tension; and D , the inside diameter of the pipe. In the tables S is taken as 18000 pounds per square inch, with a working strain of one fifth this amount or 3600 pounds per square inch. The formula for the absolute safe static pressure then is: $P = \frac{7200T}{D}$.

It is, however, usual to allow for "water-ram" by increasing the thickness enough to provide for 100 pounds additional static pressure, and, to insure sufficient metal for good casting; and for wear and tear, a further increase equal to $.333 \left(1 - \frac{D}{100}\right)$.

The expression for the thickness then becomes:

$$T = \frac{(P+100)D}{7200} + .333 \left(1 - \frac{D}{100}\right),$$

and for safe working pressure

$$P = \frac{7200}{D} \left(T - .333 \left(1 - \frac{D}{100}\right)\right) - 100.$$

The additional section provided as above represents an increased value under static pressure for the different sizes of pipe as follows (see table in margin). So that to test the pipes up to one fifth of the ultimate strength of the material, the pressures in the marginal table should be added to the pressure-values given in the table above.

Size of Pipe.

- 4"
- 6
- 8
- 10
- 12
- 14
- 16
- 18
- 20
- 22
- 24
- 27
- 30
- 33
- 36
- 42
- 48
- 60

SHEET-IRON HYDRAULIC PIPE.

(Pelton Water-Wheel Co.)

ft per foot, with safe head for various sizes of double-riveted pipe.

Area of Pipe.	Thickness of Iron by Wire Gauge.	Safe Head in Feet the Pipe will stand.	Weight of Pipe per Lineal Ft.	Diameter of Pipe.	Area of Pipe.	Thickness of Iron by Wire Gauge.	Safe Head in Feet the Pipe will stand.	Weight of Pipe per Lineal Ft.
sq. in.	B. W. G.	feet.	lbs.	in.	sq. in.	B. G. W.	feet.	lbs.
7	18	400	2	18	254	16	161	6
12	18	350	2 $\frac{1}{4}$	18	254	14	252	20 $\frac{1}{8}$
12	16	525	3	18	254	12	385	27 $\frac{1}{4}$
20	18	325	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	18	254	11	424	30
20	16	500	4 $\frac{1}{4}$	18	254	10	505	34
20	14	675	5	20	314	16	148	18
28	18	296	4 $\frac{1}{4}$	20	314	14	227	22 $\frac{1}{2}$
28	16	487	5 $\frac{1}{4}$	20	314	12	346	30
28	14	743	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	20	314	11	380	32 $\frac{1}{2}$
38	18	254	5 $\frac{1}{4}$	20	314	10	456	36 $\frac{1}{2}$
38	16	419	6 $\frac{3}{4}$	22	380	16	125	20
38	14	640	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	22	380	14	206	24 $\frac{1}{2}$
50	16	367	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	22	380	12	316	32 $\frac{1}{2}$
50	14	560	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	22	380	11	347	35 $\frac{1}{2}$
50	12	854	13	22	380	10	415	40
63	16	327	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	24	452	14	188	27 $\frac{1}{2}$
63	14	499	10 $\frac{3}{4}$	24	452	12	290	35 $\frac{1}{2}$
63	12	761	14 $\frac{1}{4}$	24	452	11	318	39
78	16	295	9 $\frac{1}{4}$	24	452	10	379	43 $\frac{1}{2}$
78	14	450	11 $\frac{3}{4}$	24	452	8	466	53
78	12	687	15 $\frac{3}{4}$	26	530	14	175	29 $\frac{1}{2}$
78	11	754	17 $\frac{1}{2}$	26	530	12	267	38 $\frac{1}{2}$
78	10	900	19 $\frac{1}{4}$	26	530	11	294	42
95	16	260	9 $\frac{3}{4}$	26	530	10	352	47
95	14	412	13	26	530	8	432	57 $\frac{1}{2}$
95	12	626	17 $\frac{1}{4}$	28	615	14	162	31 $\frac{1}{2}$
95	11	687	18 $\frac{3}{4}$	28	615	12	247	41 $\frac{1}{2}$
95	10	820	21	28	615	11	273	45
113	16	246	11 $\frac{1}{4}$	28	615	10	327	50 $\frac{1}{2}$
113	14	377	14	28	615	8	400	61 $\frac{1}{2}$
113	12	574	18 $\frac{1}{2}$	30	706	12	231	44
113	11	630	19 $\frac{3}{4}$	30	706	11	254	48
113	10	753	22 $\frac{3}{4}$	30	706	10	304	54
132	16	228	12	30	706	8	375	65
132	14	348	15	30	706	7	427	74
132	12	530	20	36	1017	11	111	58
132	11	583	22	36	1017	10	107	67
132	10	696	24 $\frac{1}{2}$	36	1017	8	107	78
153	16	211	13	36	1017	7	107	88
153	14	324	16	40	1256	10	107	81
153	12	494	21 $\frac{1}{2}$	40	1256	8	107	86
153	11	543	23 $\frac{1}{2}$	40	1256	7	107	97
153	10	648	26	40	1256	6	107	108
176	16	187	13 $\frac{3}{4}$	40	1256	4	107	126
176	14	302	17	42	1385	10	107	74 $\frac{1}{2}$
176	12	460	23	42	1385	8	107	91
176	11	507	24 $\frac{1}{2}$	42	1385	7	107	102
176	10	606	28	42	1385	6	107	114
201	16	185	14 $\frac{1}{2}$	42	1385	4	107	133
201	14	283	17 $\frac{1}{4}$	42	1385	3 $\frac{1}{4}$	107	137
201	12	432	24 $\frac{1}{4}$	42	1385	5	107	144
201	11	474	26 $\frac{1}{2}$	42	1385	5-16	107	144
201	10	567	29 $\frac{1}{2}$	42	1385	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	107	144

STANDARD PIPE FLANGES.

Adopted July 18, 1894, at a conference of committees of the Society of Mechanical Engineers, and the Master Steam and Boilers' Association, with representatives of leading manufacturers of pipe.

The list is divided into two groups; for medium and high pressure first ranging up to 75 lbs. per square inch, and the second up to 20

Pipe size, inches.	Pipe Thickness, $\frac{.4s}{P+100}d + .333 \left(1 - \frac{d}{100}\right)$	Thickness, nearest Fraction, inches	Stress on Pipe per square inch @ 200 lbs.	Radius of Fillet, inches.	Flange Diameters, inches.	Flange Thickness, inches.	Width Flange Face, inches.	Bolt Circle Diameter, inches.	Number of Bolts.	Bolt Diameter, inches.
2	.409	$\frac{1}{8}$	400	$\frac{1}{8}$	6			4 3/4	4	$\frac{3}{8}$
2 1/4	.429	$\frac{1}{8}$	550	$\frac{1}{8}$	7			5 1/4	4	$\frac{3}{8}$
3	.443	$\frac{1}{8}$	690	$\frac{1}{8}$	7 1/2			6	4	$\frac{3}{8}$
3 1/2	.466	$\frac{1}{8}$	700	$\frac{1}{8}$	8 1/2			6 1/4	4	$\frac{3}{8}$
4	.486	$\frac{1}{8}$	800	$\frac{1}{8}$	9			7 1/4	4	$\frac{3}{8}$
4 1/2	.498	$\frac{1}{8}$	900	$\frac{1}{8}$	9 1/4			7 3/4	8	$\frac{3}{8}$
5	.525	$\frac{1}{8}$	1000	$\frac{1}{8}$	10			8 1/4	8	$\frac{3}{8}$
6	.563	$\frac{1}{8}$	1060	$\frac{1}{8}$	11	1		9 1/4	8	$\frac{3}{8}$
7	.60	$\frac{1}{8}$	1120	$\frac{1}{8}$	12 1/2	1 1/2		10 1/4	8	$\frac{3}{8}$
8	.639	$\frac{1}{8}$	1280	$\frac{1}{8}$	13 1/2	1 1/2		11 1/4	8	$\frac{3}{8}$
9	.678	$\frac{1}{8}$	1310	$\frac{1}{8}$	15	1 1/2		13	12	$\frac{3}{8}$
10	.713	$\frac{3}{4}$	1390	$\frac{1}{8}$	16	1 1/2	3	14 1/4	12	$\frac{3}{8}$
12	.79	$\frac{1}{2}$	1470	$\frac{1}{8}$	19	1 1/2	3 1/4	16 1/4	12	$\frac{3}{8}$
14	.864	$\frac{3}{8}$	1600	$\frac{1}{8}$	21	1 1/2	3 1/4	18 1/4	12	$\frac{3}{8}$
15	.904	$\frac{1}{2}$	1600	$\frac{1}{8}$	22 1/4	1 1/2	3 1/4	20	16	1
16	.946	1	1600	$\frac{1}{8}$	23 1/2	1 1/2	3 1/4	21 1/4	16	1
18	1.02	1 1/2	1690	$\frac{1}{8}$	25	1 1/2	3 1/4	22 3/4	16	1 1/4
20	1.09	1 1/2	1780	$\frac{1}{8}$	27 1/2	1 1/2	3 1/4	25	20	1 1/4
22	1.18	1 1/2	1850	$\frac{1}{4}$	29 1/2	1 1/2	3 1/4	27 1/4	20	1 1/4
24	1.25	1 1/2	1920	$\frac{1}{4}$	31 1/2	1 1/2	3 1/4	29 1/4	20	1 1/4
26	1.30	1 1/2	1980	$\frac{1}{4}$	34 1/4	1 1/2	3 1/4	31 1/4	24	1 1/4
28	1.33	1 1/2	2040	$\frac{1}{4}$	36	1 1/2	4	33 1/4	24	1 1/4
30	1.48	1 1/2	2000	$\frac{1}{4}$	38 1/4	1 1/2	4	35 1/4	24	1 1/4
36	1.71	1 1/2	1920	$\frac{1}{4}$	44 1/2	2 1/2	4 1/4	42	24	1 1/2
42	1.87	2	2100	$\frac{1}{4}$	51	2 1/2	4 1/4	48 1/4	24	1 1/2
48	2.17	2 1/4	2130	$\frac{1}{4}$	57 1/2	2 1/2	4 1/4	54 1/4	24	1 1/2

Notes.—Sizes up to 24 inches are designed for 200 lbs. or less. Sizes from 24 to 48 inches are divided into two scales, one for 2 other for less.

The sizes of bolts given are for high pressure. For medium pressure diameters are 1/8-inch less for pipes 2 to 20 inches diameter inclus inch less for larger sizes, except 48-inch pipe, for which the size of inches.

When two lines of figures occur under one heading, the single d to 24 inches are for both medium and high pressures. Beginning inches, the left-hand columns are for medium and the right-hand for high pressures.

The sudden increase in diameters at 16 inches is due to the position of wrought-iron pipe, making with a nearly constant width greater diameter desirable.

When wrought-iron pipe is used, if thinner flanges than those sufficient, it is proposed that bosses be used to bring the nuts standard lengths. This avoids the use of a reinforcement around

Figures in the third, fourth, fifth, and last columns refer only to

Draw a vertical line parallel to the spindle on the upper side of the flanges.

DIMENSIONS OF PIPE FLANGES AND CAST-IRON PIPES.

(J. E. Codman, Engineers' Club of Philadelphia, 1889.)

Diameter of Flange.	Diameter of Bolt Circle.	Diameter of Bolt	Number of Bolts.	Thickness of Flange.	Thickness of Pipe.		Weight per foot without Flange.	Weight of Flange and Bolts.
					Frac.	Dec.		
6¼	4¾	¾	4	5/8	¾	.373	6.90	4.41
7	5½	¾	4	5/8	13/32	.398	11.16	5.93
7	5½	¾	6	15/16	7-16	.420	15.84	7.66
9¾	8	¾	6	¾	7-16	.443	21.00	9.63
10¾	9½	¾	8	¾	15-32	.466	26.64	11.82
12¼	11¾	¾	8	13/16	¾	.511	39.36	16.91
13¼	13¼	¾	10	13/16	9-16	.557	54.00	23.00
15¾	15¾	¾	12	15/16	10-32	.603	70.56	30.13
20	18	¾	14	1	21-32	.649	89.04	38.34
22	20	¾	16	1 1-16	11-16	.695	109.44	47.70
24	22¼	¾	16	1 1/8	¾	.741	131.76	58.23
27	24¼	¾	18	1 1/8	25-32	.787	156.00	70.00
28¾	26½	¾	20	1 5/8	27-32	.833	182.16	83.05
31¼	28¾	¾	22	1 5/8	¾	.879	210.24	97.42
33¾	31	¾	24	1 5/8	15-16	.925	240.32	113.18
36¾	33¼	¾	24	1 7-16	31-32	.971	272.16	130.35
39	35½	¾	26	1 9-16	1	1.017	306.00	149.00
40	37½	¾	28	1 5/8	1 1-16	1.063	341.76	169.77
45¼	40	¾	30	1 11-16	1¾	1.109	379.44	190.90
46	42	¾	32	1¾	1 5-32	1.155	419.04	214.36
47	44	¾	32	1 13-16	1 3-16	1.201	460.56	239.27
49	46	¾	34	1¾	1¾	1.247	504.00	266.00
51¼	48¼	¾	34	1 15-16	1 5-16	1.293	549.36	294.49
53¾	50¾	¾	36	2	1 11-32	1.339	596.64	324.78
56¾	53¼	¾	38	2 1-16	1¾	1.385	645.84	356.94
58	55	¾	40	2¼	1 7-16	1.431	696.96	391.00

D = Diameter of pipe. All dimensions in inches.

THICKNESS.—Thickness of flange = 0.033D + 0.56.

Thickness of pipe = 0.023D + 0.327.

Weight of pipe per foot = 0.24D² + 3D.

Weight of flange = .001D³ + 0.1D² + D + 2.

Diameter of flange = 1.125D + 4.25.

Diameter of bolt-circle = 1.092D + 2.566.

Diameter of bolt = 0.011D + 0.73.

Number of bolts = 0.78D + 2.56.

PIPE FLANGES FOR HIGH STEAM-PRESSURE.

(Chapman Valve Mfg. Co.)

Size of Pipe.	Diameter of Flange.	Number of Bolts.	Diameter of Bolts.	Diameter of Bolt Circle.	Length of Pipe-Thread.
inches.	Inches.		Inches.	Inches.	Inches.
¾	7½	6	¾	5¾	1¼
1	9	6	¾	6¾	1½
1¼	9	7	¾	7¾	1 7-16
1½	10	8	¾	8¾	1 9-16
1¾	10½	8	¾	9¾	1 11-16
2	11	9	¾	10¾	1 13-16
2¼	13	10	¾	10¾	1¾
2½	14	12	¾	11¾	1 15-16
2¾	15	12	¾	13	2
3	16	13	¾	14	2
3¼	17½	15	¾	15¼	2¼
3½	20	18	¾	17¾	2¾
3¾	22	18	1	20¼	3
4	23½	18	1	21¼	3½

**STANDARD SIZES, ETC., OF WROUGHT-IRON PIPE
For Water, Gas, or Steam.**

(Briggs Standard.)

Diameter of Tube.			Thickness of Metal.	Internal Circum- ference.	External Circum- ference.	Length of Pipe per Sq. Ft. of Inside Sur- face.	Length of Pipe per Sq. Ft. of Outside Surface.	Internal Area.
Nomi- nal Inside.	Actual Inside.	Actual Out- side.						
Ins.	Ins.	Ins.	Ins.	Ins.	Ins.	Feet.	Feet.	Ins.
$\frac{3}{8}$.270	.405	.068	.848	1.272	14.15	9.44	.0572
$\frac{1}{2}$.364	.540	.088	1.144	1.696	10.50	7.075	.1011
$\frac{5}{8}$.494	.675	.091	1.552	2.121	7.67	5.657	.1916
$\frac{3}{4}$.623	.840	.109	1.957	2.652	6.13	4.502	.3048
$\frac{7}{8}$.824	1.050	.113	2.589	3.299	4.635	3.637	.5333
1	1.048	1.315	.134	3.292	4.134	3.679	2.903	.8627
1 $\frac{1}{4}$	1.380	1.660	.140	4.395	5.215	2.768	2.201	1.496
1 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.610	1.900	.145	5.061	5.969	2.371	2.01	2.038
2	2.067	2.375	.154	6.494	7.461	1.848	1.611	3.355
2 $\frac{1}{2}$	2.468	2.875	.204	7.754	9.032	1.547	1.328	4.783
3	3.067	3.500	.217	9.636	10.996	1.245	1.091	7.388
3 $\frac{1}{2}$	3.548	4.000	.226	11.146	12.666	1.077	.955	9.887
4	4.026	4.500	.237	12.648	14.187	.949	.849	12.730
4 $\frac{1}{2}$	4.508	5.000	.246	14.153	15.708	.848	.765	15.339
5	5.045	5.563	.259	15.849	17.475	.757	.629	19.990
6	6.065	6.625	.290	19.054	20.818	.63	.577	28.889
7	7.023	7.625	.301	22.063	23.954	.544	.505	38.777
8	7.982	8.625	.322	25.076	27.096	.478	.444	50.039
9	9.000	9.688	.344	28.277	30.433	.425	.394	63.633
10	10.019	10.750	.366	31.475	33.772	.381	.355	78.838

* By the action of the Manufacturers of Wrought-iron Pipe and Tubes, at a meeting held in New York, May 9, 1889, a change in size of outside diameter of 9-inch pipe was adopted, making the latter 9.625 in. of 9.688 inches, as given in the table of Briggs' standard pipe diameters.

For discussion of the Briggs Standard of Wrought-iron Pipe Diameter see Report of the Committee of the A. S. M. E. in "Standard Pipe and Threads," 1886. Trans., Vol. VIII, p. 29. The figures in the next to the column are derived from the formula

$$D - (0.05D + 1.9) \times \frac{1}{n},$$

in which D = outside diameter of the tubes, and n the number of threads per inch. The figures in the last column are derived from the formula $0.8 \frac{1}{n} \times 2 + d$, or $1.6 \frac{1}{n} + d$, in which d is the diameter at the bottom thread at the end of the pipe.

Having the taper, length of full-threaded portion, and the sizes at top and bottom of thread at the end of the pipe, as given in the table, taps can be made to secure these points correctly, the length of the full threaded portions on the pipe, and the length the tap is run into the pipe beyond the point at which the size is as given, or, in other words, the end of the pipe, having no effect upon the standard. The angle of thread is 60°, and it is slightly rounded off at top and bottom, so that, if its depth being equal to its pitch, as is the case with a full V-thread

$\frac{1}{4}$ the pitch, or equal to $0.8 \frac{1}{n}$, n being the number of threads per inch

Sizes, etc., of Wrought-iron Pipe—(Continued.)

Sizes, etc.				Screwed Ends.			
Length of Pipe Containing One Cubic Foot.	Weight per Foot of Length.	Contents in U. S. Gallons per Foot.	Weight of Water per Foot of Length.	Number of Threads per Inch.	Length of Perfect Screw.	Diameter of Bottom of Thread at End of Pipe.	Diameter of Top of Thread at End of Pipe.
Feet.	Lbs.		Lbs.	No.	Inch.	Inches.	Inches.
2500.	.243	.0006	.005	27	.19	.234	.333
1385.	.422	.0026	.021	18	.29	.433	.522
751.5	.561	.0057	.047	18	.30	.567	.656
472.4	.845	.0102	.085	14	.39	.701	.815
270.	1.126	.0230	.190	14	.40	.911	1.025
166.9	1.670	.0408	.349	11½	.51	1.144	1.283
96.25	2.258	.0638	.527	11½	.54	1.488	1.627
70.65	2.694	.0918	.760	11½	.55	1.727	1.866
42.86	3.667	.1632	1.356	11½	.58	2.2	2.339
30.11	5.773	.2550	2.116	8	.89	2.62	2.82
19.49	7.547	.3673	2.949	8	.95	3.241	3.441
14.56	9.055	.4998	4.155	8	1.00	3.738	3.938
11.21	10.728	.6528	5.405	8	1.05	4.235	4.435
9.03	12.492	.8263	6.851	8	1.10	4.732	4.932
7.29	14.564	1.020	8.500	8	1.16	5.291	5.491
4.98	18.767	1.469	12.312	8	1.26	6.346	6.546
3.72	23.410	1.999	16.662	8	1.36	7.34	7.54
2.88	28.348	2.611	21.750	8	1.46	8.334	8.534
2.26	34.077	3.300	27.500	8	1.57	9.39	9.59
1.80	40.641	4.081	34.000	8	1.68	10.445	10.645

per of conical tube ends, 1 in 32 to axis of tube = ¾ inch to the foot taper.
 Each and below are butt-welded, and proved to 300 pounds per square inch hydraulic pressure.
 Each and above are lap-welded, and proved to 500 pounds per square inch hydraulic pressure.

SIZES ABOVE 10 INCHES.

(Morris, Tasker & Co., Limited.)

Actual Inside Diameter.	Actual Outside Diameter.	Thickness.	Internal Circumference.	External Circumference.	Internal Area.	External Area.	Length of Pipe per sq. ft. of Inside Surface.	Length of Pipe per sq. ft. of Outside Surface.	Length of Pipe containing 1 cubic foot.	Weight per foot of Length.
in.	in.	in.	in.	in.	sq. in.	sq. in.	ft.	ft.	ft.	lbs.
11.224	12	.388	35.26	37.70	98.94	113.10	.340	.318	1.455	47.73
12.180	13	.41	38.26	40.84	116.54	132.73	.313	.293	1.235	54.66
13.136	14	.432	41.27	43.98	134.58	153.94	.290	.273	1.069	61.94
14.092	15	.454	44.27	47.12	155.97	176.72	.271	.254	.923	70.01
15.048	16	.476	47.27	50.27	177.87	201.06	.254	.238	.809	78.27
16.004	17	.498	50.28	53.41	201.16	223.98	.238	.225	.715	87.12
16.960	18	.520	53.28	56.55	225.91	254.47	.225	.212	.638	96.38
17.916	19	.542	56.28	59.69	252.10	283.53	.213	.201	.571	106.07
18.872	20	.564	59.29	62.83	279.72	314.16	.202	.191	.515	116.21
19.828	21	.586	62.29	65.97	308.77	346.36	.192	.183	.466	126.76

WROUGHT-IRON WELDED TUBES, EXTRA STRONG
Standard Dimensions.

Nominal Diameter.	Actual Outside Diameter.	Thickness, Extra Strong.	Thickness, Double Extra Strong.	Actual Inside Diameter, Extra Strong.	Actual Inside Diameter, Double Extra Strong.
Inches.	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.
1/8	0.405	0.100	0.205
1/8	0.51	0.123	0.294
3/8	0.675	0.127	0.421
1/2	0.84	0.149	0.298	0.542	0.314
5/8	1.05	0.157	0.314	0.736	0.423
3/4	1.315	0.182	0.364	0.951	0.587
1	1.66	0.194	0.388	1.272	0.894
1 1/4	1.9	0.203	0.406	1.494	1.088
1 1/2	2.375	0.221	0.442	1.933	1.491
2	2.875	0.280	0.560	2.315	1.723
2 1/2	3.5	0.304	0.608	2.892	2.284
3	4.0	0.331	0.649	3.358	2.716
3 1/2	4.5	0.341	0.682	3.818	3.136

STANDARD SIZES, ETC., OF LAP-WELDED CHILLED COAL-IRON BOILER-TUBES.

(Morris, Tasker & Co., Limited).

External Diameter.	Internal Diameter.	Standard Thickness.	Internal Circumference.		Internal Area.		External Area.		Length of Tube per Sq. Ft. of Inside Surface.	Length of Tube per Sq. Ft. of Outside Surface.	Length of Tube per Sq. Ft. of Net Surface.
			Ins.	Ins.	Sq. In.	Sq. Ft.	Sq. In.	Sq. Ft.			
1	0.856	0.072	2.689	3.142	0.755	0.04	0.785	0.055	4.460	3.819	4.139
1 1/4	1.106	0.072	3.474	3.927	0.969	0.067	1.227	0.083	3.455	3.656	3.255
1 1/2	1.354	0.083	4.191	4.712	1.396	0.097	1.767	0.123	2.363	2.547	2.746
1 3/4	1.560	0.095	4.901	5.498	1.911	0.133	2.465	0.167	2.448	2.182	2.313
2	1.804	0.098	5.667	6.283	2.556	0.177	3.143	0.218	2.118	1.909	2.010
2 1/4	2.054	0.098	6.484	7.069	3.314	0.230	3.976	0.276	1.850	1.698	1.771
2 1/2	2.283	0.109	7.172	7.854	4.094	0.284	4.909	0.341	1.673	1.528	1.609
3	2.533	0.109	7.977	8.639	5.039	0.351	5.940	0.412	1.508	1.390	1.469
3 1/4	2.783	0.109	8.743	9.423	6.083	0.422	7.069	0.491	1.373	1.272	1.323
3 1/2	3.012	0.119	9.462	10.210	7.125	0.495	8.296	0.570	1.268	1.175	1.223
3 3/4	3.262	0.119	10.248	10.995	8.357	0.58	9.621	0.668	1.171	1.091	1.131
4	3.512	0.119	11.033	11.781	9.687	0.673	11.045	0.767	1.088	1.014	1.053
4 1/4	3.741	0.130	11.753	12.566	10.992	0.763	12.566	0.872	1.023	0.955	0.995
4 1/2	4.011	0.130	12.522	13.37	12.126	0.861	14.194	1.004	0.961	0.899	0.939
5	4.729	0.140	14.818	15.708	17.497	1.215	19.635	1.364	0.809	0.764	0.786
6	5.099	0.151	17.904	18.819	25.509	1.771	28.274	1.963	0.70	0.637	0.633
7	6.057	0.172	20.914	21.991	34.805	2.217	38.484	2.673	0.574	0.545	0.561
8	7.036	0.182	23.989	25.132	45.795	3.18	50.265	3.490	0.500	0.478	0.483
9	8.015	0.192	27.053	28.274	58.391	3.648	63.617	4.415	0.444	0.414	0.419
10	9.073	0.214	30.074	31.416	71.975	4.998	78.540	5.554	0.399	0.381	0.391
11	10.560	0.22	33.175	34.557	87.479	6.675	95.033	6.601	0.361	0.347	0.354
12	11.542	0.229	36.26	37.699	103.749	7.905	113.997	7.854	0.330	0.318	0.324
13	12.524	0.238	39.345	40.840	123.187	8.534	133.732	9.213	0.305	0.293	0.299
14	13.504	0.248	42.414	43.982	143.189	9.943	153.938	1.069	0.282	0.272	0.277
15	14.482	0.259	45.496	47.124	164.718	1.1488	175.715	1.2272	0.263	0.254	0.259
16	15.458	0.271	48.562	50.265	187.667	1.3032	201.662	1.158	0.247	0.238	0.243
17	16.432	0.284	51.662	53.407	212.237	1.4738	226.980	1.5762	0.232	0.224	0.228
18	17.416	0.292	54.714	56.548	238.224	1.6543	254.469	1.7671	0.219	0.212	0.216
19	1.400	0.3	57.805	59.690	265.903	1.8465	283.659	1.969	0.207	0.200	0.203
20	18.360	0.33	60.821	62.832	294.373	2.0443	314.159	2.1817	0.197	0.190	0.193
21	19.320	0.34	63.837	65.973	324.311	2.2522	346.361	2.4053	0.188	0.181	0.184

In estimating the effective steam-heating or boiler surface of tubes, the surface contact with air or gases of combustion (whether internal or external to the tubes) be taken.

by steam, superheating steam, or transferring heat from the mean surface of the tubes is to be taken.

find the square feet of surface, S , in a tube of a given length, L , in feet, diameter, d , in inches, multiply the length in feet by the diameter in inches and by .2618. Or, $S = \frac{3.1416dL}{12} = .2618dL$. For the diameters in the table below, multiply the length in feet by the figures given opposite the diameter.

Diameters, inches.	Square Feet per Foot Length.	Inches, Diameter.	Square Feet per Foot Length.	Inches, Diameter.	Square Feet per Foot Length.
1 1/4	.0654	2 1/4	.5890	5	1.3090
1 1/2	.1200	2 3/4	.6545	6	1.5708
1 3/4	.1963	3	.7199	7	1.8326
2	.2618	3 1/4	.7854	8	2.0944
2 1/4	.3272	3 1/2	.8508	9	2.3562
2 1/2	.3927	3 3/4	.9163	10	2.6180
2 3/4	.4581	4	.9817	11	2.8798
3	.5236		1.0472	12	3.1416

RIVETED IRON PIPE.

(Abendroth & Root Mfg. Co.)

Sheets punched and rolled, ready for riveting, are packed in convenient form for shipment. The following table shows the iron and rivets required for sheets punched and formed sheets.

Diameter in inches.	Width of Lap in Inches.	Square Feet.	Approximate No. of Rivets 1 Inch apart required for 100 Feet Punched and Formed Sheets.	Number Square Feet of Iron required to make 100 Lineal Feet Punched and Formed Sheets when put together.			Approximate No. of Rivets 1 Inch apart required for 100 Feet Punched and Formed Sheets.
				Diameter in Inches.	Width of Lap in Inches.	Square Feet.	
3	1	90	1,600	14	1 1/2	397	2,800
4	1	116	1,700	15	1 1/2	423	2,900
5	1 1/2	150	1,800	16	1 1/2	452	3,000
6	1 1/2	178	1,900	18	1 1/2	506	3,200
7	1 1/2	206	2,000	20	1 1/2	562	3,500
8	1 1/2	234	2,200	22	1 1/2	617	3,700
9	1 1/2	258	2,300	24	1 1/2	670	3,900
10	1 1/2	289	2,400	26	1 1/2	725	4,100
11	1 1/2	314	2,500	28	1 1/2	779	4,400
12	1 1/2	343	2,600	30	1 1/2	836	4,600
13	1 1/2	369	2,700	36	1 1/2	908	5,200

WEIGHT OF ONE SQUARE FOOT OF SHEET-IRON FOR RIVETED PIPE.

Thickness by the Birmingham Wire-Gauge.

No. of Gauge.	Thickness in Decimals of an Inch.	Weight in lbs., Black.	Weight in lbs., Galvanized.	No. of Gauge.	Thickness in Decimals of an Inch.	Weight in lbs., Black.	Weight in lbs., Galvanized.
20	.018	.73	.94	18	.019	1.97	2.19
21	.022	.88	1.13	16	.025	2.61	2.82
22	.028	1.12	1.38	14	.033	3.33	3.52
23	.035	1.40	1.69	12	.040	4.37	4.50

SEAMLESS DRAWN BRASS-TUBING.

(Randolph & Clowes, Waterbury, Conn.)

diameter 3-16 to 7 $\frac{3}{4}$ inches. Thickness of walls 8 to 25 Stubbs' or Old Gauge. Lengths 12 feet. The following are the standard sizes:

SEAMLESS DRAWN BRASS-TUBING.

Length Feet.	Stubbs' or Old Gauge.	Outside Diam- eter.	Length Feet.	Stubbs' or Old Gauge.	Outside Diam- eter.	Length Feet.	Stubbs' or Old Gauge.
12	20	1 $\frac{5}{8}$	12	14	2 $\frac{5}{8}$	12	11
12	19	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	12	14	2 $\frac{3}{4}$	12	11
12	19	1 $\frac{5}{8}$	12	13	3	12	11
12	18	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	12	13	3 $\frac{1}{4}$	12	11
12	18	1 13-16	12	13	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	12	11
12	17	1 $\frac{7}{8}$	12	12	4	10 to 12	11
12	17	1 15-16	12	12	5	10 to 12	11
12	17	2	12	12	5 $\frac{1}{4}$	10 to 12	11
12	17	2 $\frac{1}{8}$	12	12	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	10 to 12	11
12	16	2 $\frac{1}{4}$	12	12	5 $\frac{3}{4}$	10 to 12	11
12	16	2 $\frac{3}{8}$	12	12	6	10 to 12	11
12	15	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	12	11			

COILED PIPES.

(National Pipe-bending Co., New Haven, Conn.)

SIZES OF STEEL OR IRON PIPE ; WELDED LENGTHS.

Inches outside diameter of coil contain- ing 25 feet of pipe and less. Inches outside diameter of coils over 25 feet and not over 300 feet. Inches	Butt-welded Pipe.						Lap- welded Pipe.
	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{3}{8}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	1	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$
12	2	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	4	6	8	12
18	2	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	4	6	8	12
24	6	7	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	9	11	14

SIZES OF SEAMLESS DRAWN BRASS AND COPPER TUBING.

Outside diameter Inches	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{3}{8}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	1	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 $\frac{3}{4}$	2	2 $\frac{1}{4}$	2 $\frac{3}{4}$	3
Thickness Inches	1	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	2	3	4	6	7	8	10	12	14	18

Standard sizes of mild drawn-steel tubes, imported by P. S. Justice & Co., Philadelphia, made in sizes from $\frac{1}{4}$ to 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ inches outside diameter, varying in length with thickness of walls from 1-16 to 11-16 inches. The maximum length is 15 feet.

WEIGHT OF BRASS, COPPER, AND ZINC TUBING Per Foot.

Thickness by Brown & Sharpe's Gauge.

Brass, No. 17.		Brass, No. 20.		Copper, Lightning-rod No. 23.	
Inch.	Lbs.	Inch.	Lbs.	Inch.	
$\frac{3}{4}$.107	$\frac{1}{2}$.082	$\frac{1}{2}$	
5-16	.157	3-16	.039	9-16	
$\frac{3}{8}$.185	$\frac{1}{4}$.063	$\frac{5}{8}$	
7-16	.234	5-16	.106	11-16	
$\frac{1}{2}$.266	$\frac{3}{8}$.126	$\frac{3}{4}$	
9-11	.318	7-16	.158		
$\frac{5}{8}$.333	$\frac{1}{2}$.189		
$\frac{3}{4}$.377	9-16	.208		
$\frac{7}{8}$.462	$\frac{5}{8}$.220		
1	.542	$\frac{3}{4}$.252		
$1\frac{1}{8}$.675	$\frac{7}{8}$.284		
$1\frac{1}{4}$.740	1	.378		
$1\frac{3}{8}$.915	$1\frac{1}{4}$.500		
$1\frac{3}{4}$.980	$1\frac{1}{2}$.580		
2	1.90				
$2\frac{1}{2}$	1.506				
3	2.188				

Zinc, No. 3

$\frac{1}{2}$
 $\frac{5}{8}$
 $\frac{3}{4}$
 $\frac{7}{8}$
1
 $1\frac{1}{4}$
 $1\frac{1}{2}$

LEAD PIPE IN LENGTHS OF 10 FEET.

In.	3-8 Thick.		5-16 Thick.		$\frac{1}{4}$ Thick.		3-16
	lb.	oz.	lb.	oz.	lb.	oz.	
$2\frac{1}{2}$	17	0	14	0	11	0	8
3	20	0	16	0	12	0	9
$3\frac{1}{2}$	22	0	18	0	15	0	9
4	25	0	21	0	16	0	12
$4\frac{1}{2}$					18	0	14
5	31	0			20	0	

LEAD WASTE-PIPE.

$1\frac{1}{2}$ in., 2 lbs. per foot. | $3\frac{1}{2}$ in., 4 lbs. per foot.
2 " 3 and 4 lbs. per foot. | 4 " 5, 6, and 8 lbs.
3 " $3\frac{1}{2}$ and 5 lbs. per foot. | $4\frac{1}{2}$ " 6 and 8 lbs.
5 in., 8, 10, and 12 lbs.

LEAD AND TIN TUBING.

$\frac{1}{8}$ inch.

$\frac{1}{4}$ inch.

SHEET LEAD.

Weight per square foot, $2\frac{1}{2}$, 3, $3\frac{1}{2}$, 4, $4\frac{1}{2}$, 5, 6, 8, 9, 10 lbs. and up
Other weights rolled to order.

BLOCK-TIN PIPE.

$\frac{3}{8}$ in., $4\frac{1}{2}$, $6\frac{1}{2}$, and 8 oz. per foot. | 1 in., 15, and 18 oz. per foot.
 $1\frac{1}{8}$ " " " " " | $1\frac{1}{4}$ " $1\frac{1}{4}$ and $1\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. "
 $1\frac{3}{8}$ " " " " " | $1\frac{3}{8}$ " 2 and $2\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. "
 $1\frac{1}{2}$ " " " " " | 2 " $2\frac{1}{2}$ and 3 lbs. "

LEAD AND TIN-LINED LEAD PIPE.

(Tatham & Bros., New York.)

Letter.	Weight per Foot and Rod.	Thickness in 1-100th in.	Calibre.	Letter.	Weight per Foot and Rod.	Thickness in 1-100th in.
E	7 lbs. per rod		1 in.	E	1½ lbs. per foot	10
D	10 oz. per foot	6	"	D	2 " "	11
C	12 " "	8	"	C	2½ " "	14
B	1 lb. "	12	"	B	3½ " "	17
A	1¼ " "	16	"	A	4½ " "	21
AA	1½ " "	19	"	AA	5½ " "	24
AAA	1¾ " "	27	"	AAA	6½ " "	30
	13 oz. "		1½ in.	E	2 " "	10
E	1 lb. "		"	D	2½ " "	12
D	9 lbs. per rod	7	"	C	3 " "	14
C	¾ lb. per foot	9	"	B	3¾ " "	16
B	1 " "	11	"	A	4¾ " "	19
	1¼ " "	13	"	AA	5¾ " "	25
	1½ " "		"	AAA	6¾ " "	
A	1¾ " "	16	1½ in.	E	3 " "	12
AA	2 " "	19	"	D	3½ " "	14
	2½ " "	23	"	C	4½ " "	17
AAA	3 " "	25	"	B	5 " "	19
	12 " per rod	8	"	A	6½ " "	23
E	1 " per foot	9	"	AA	8 " "	27
D	1½ " "	12	"	AAA	9 " "	
C	2 " "	16	1¾ in.	C	4 " "	13
B	2½ " "	20	"	B	5 " "	17
A	2¾ " "	22	"	A	6½ " "	21
AA	3¼ " "	25	"	AA	8½ " "	27
AAA	3½ " "		"	C	4¾ " "	15
E	1 " per foot	8	2 in.	B	6 " "	18
D	1¼ " "	10	"	A	7 " "	22
C	1¾ " "	12	"	AA	9 " "	27
B	2 " "	16	"	AAA	11¾ " "	
A	2½ " "	20	"			
AA	3 " "	23	"			
AAA	3½ " "	30	"			

WEIGHT OF LEAD PIPE WHICH SHOULD BE USED FOR A GIVEN HEAD OF WATER.

(Tatham & Bros., New York.)

Pressure per sq. inch.	Calibre and Weight per Foot.						
	Letter.	¾ inch.	½ inch.	⅝ inch.	¾ inch.	1 inch.	1¼ in.
15 lbs.	D	10 oz.	¾ lb.	1 lb.	1¼ lbs.	2 lbs.	2½ lbs.
25 lbs.	C	12 oz.	1 lb.	1½ lbs.	1¾ lbs.	2½ lbs.	3 lbs.
35 lbs.	B	1 lb.	1¼ lbs.	2 lbs.	2¼ lbs.	3½ lbs.	3¾ lbs.
50 lbs.	A	1¼ lbs.	1¾ lbs.	2½ lbs.	3 lbs.	4 lbs.	4¾ lbs.
75 lbs.	AA	1½ lbs.	2 lbs.	2¾ lbs.	3½ lbs.	4¾ lbs.	6 lbs.
100 lbs.	AAA	1¾ lbs.	2½ lbs.	3½ lbs.	4¾ lbs.	6 lbs.	6¾ lbs.

To find the thickness of lead pipe required when the head of water is given. (Chadwick Lead Works).

Rule.—Multiply the head in feet by size of pipe wanted, expressed decimal, and divide by 750; the quotient will give thickness required, in one-hundredths of an inch.

EXAMPLE.—Required thickness of half-inch pipe for a head of 25 feet.

$$25 \times 0.50 \div 750 = 0.16 \text{ Inch.}$$

WEIGHT OF COPPER AND BRASS WIRE AND PLATES.

Brown & Sharpe's Gauge.

(From tables of leading manufacturers.)

d e.	Weight of Wire per 1000 Lineal Feet. l		Weight of Plates per Square Foot.		No. of Gauge.	Size of Each No.	Weight of Wire per 1,000 Lineal Feet.		Weight of Plates per Square Foot.	
	Copper.	Brass.	Copper.	Brass.			Copper.	Brass.	Copper.	Brass.
0000	Inch.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	21	Inch.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.
0000	.46000	640.5	605.28	19.69		.028462	2.45	2.317	1.29	1.32
0000	.40964	508.0	479.91	18.55		.025347	1.94	1.838	1.15	1.08
00	.36180	402.0	380.77	16.52	22	.022571	1.54	1.457	1.02	.966
0	.32470	319.5	301.82	14.72	23	.020100	1.22	1.155	.911	.860
1	.28930	253.3	239.45	13.10	24	.017900	.969	.916	.811	.768
2	.25763	200.9	189.82	11.67	25	.01494	.769	.727	.632	.608
3	.22942	159.3	150.72	10.39	26	.01195	.610	.576	.483	.468
4	.20431	126.4	119.48	9.25	27	.009511	.484	.457	.373	.354
5	.18194	100.3	94.07	8.24	28	.007257	.383	.362	.282	.261
6	.16232	79.46	75.08	7.34	29	.005225	.304	.287	.214	.193
7	.14428	63.01	59.55	6.54	30	.003928	.241	.228	.154	.132
8	.12849	49.98	47.22	5.82	31	.002960	.191	.181	.107	.084
9	.11443	39.64	37.44	5.18	32	.002300	.132	.123	.066	.040
10	.10189	31.43	29.69	4.62	33	.001804	.100	.090	.040	.020
11	.090742	24.92	23.55	4.11	34	.001453	.075	.066	.026	.015
12	.080808	19.77	18.68	3.66	35	.001153	.050	.041	.015	.008
13	.072021	15.65	14.81	3.24	36	.000900	.030	.022	.008	.004

WEIGHT OF ROUND BOLT COPPER.

Per Foot.

es.	Pounds.	Inches.	Pounds.	Inches.	Pounds.
	.425	1	3.02	1 $\frac{5}{8}$	7.99
	.756	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	3.83	1 $\frac{3}{4}$	9.27
	1.18	1 $\frac{3}{8}$	4.72	1 $\frac{5}{8}$	10.64
	1.70	1 $\frac{7}{8}$	5.73	2	12.10
	2.31	1 $\frac{9}{8}$	6.81		

WEIGHT OF SHEET AND BAR BRASS.

ness. or th.	Sheets per sq. ft.	Square Bars 1 ft. long.	Round Bars 1 ft. long.	Thickness, Side or Diam.	Sheets per sq. ft.	Square Bars 1 ft. long.	Round Bars 1 ft. long.
				Inches.			
1/8	2.72	.014	.011	1 1-16	46.32	4.10	3.22
3/16	5.45	.056	.045	1/4	49.05	4.59	3.61
1/4	8.17	.128	.100	1 3-16	51.77	5.12	4.02
5/16	10.90	.227	.178	1/4	54.50	5.67	4.45
3/8	13.62	.355	.278	1 5-16	57.22	6.26	4.91
7/16	16.35	.510	.401	3/8	59.95	6.86	5.39
1/2	19.07	.695	.545	1 7-16	62.67	7.50	5.89
5/8	21.80	.907	.713	1/2	65.40	8.16	6.41
3/4	24.52	1.15	.902	1 9-16	68.12	8.86	6.95
7/8	27.25	1.42	1.11	5/8	70.85	9.59	7.53
1	29.97	1.72	1.35	1 11-16	73.57	10.34	8.12
1 1/8	32.70	2.04	1.60	3/4	76.30	11.12	8.73
1 1/4	35.42	2.40	1.88	1 13-16	79.02	11.93	9.36
1 1/2	38.15	2.78	2.18	7/8	81.75	12.76	10.01
1 3/4	40.87	3.19	2.50	1 15-16	84.47	13.63	10.70
2	43.60	3.63	2.85	2	87.20	14.52	11.40

COMPOSITION OF VARIOUS GRADES OF ROLLED BRASS, ETC.

Trade Name.	Copper	Zinc.	Tin.	Lead.	Nickel.
Common high brass.....	61.5	38.5
Yellow metal.....	60	40
Large brass.....	65 $\frac{1}{2}$	33 $\frac{1}{2}$
Small brass.....	80	20
Spinning brass.....	60	40	1 $\frac{1}{2}$
Drawing rod.....	60	40	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ to 2
German brass.....	65 $\frac{1}{2}$	33 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 $\frac{1}{2}$
90 per cent German silver.....	61 $\frac{1}{2}$	30 $\frac{1}{2}$	18

The above table was furnished by the superintendent of a mill in Connecticut in 1894. He says: While each mill has its own proportions for various grades, depending upon the purposes for which the product is intended, the figures given are about the average standard. Thus, between cartridge brass (with 33 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent zinc) and common high brass with 38 $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent zinc there are a number of different mixtures known generally as "high brass" or specifically as "spinning brass," "drawing brass," etc., wherein the amount of zinc is dependent upon the amount of scrap used in the mixture and the degree of working to which the metal is to be subjected, etc.

AMERICAN STANDARD SIZES OF DROP-SHOT

	Diameter.	No. of Shot to the oz.		Diameter.	No. of Shot to the oz.		Diameter.
Fine Dust.	3-100"	10784	No. 8	Trap Shot	472	No. 2...	15-100
Dust.....	4-100	4565	" 8	9-100"	399	" 1...	16-100
No. 12.....	5-100	2326	" 7	Trap Shot	338	" B...	17-100
" 11.....	6-100	1346	" 7	10-100"	291	" BB...	18-100
" 10.....	Trap Shot	1056	" 6	11-100	218	" BBB	19-100
" 10.....	7-100"	848	" 5	12-100	168	" T...	20-100
" 9.....	Trap Shot	688	" 4	13-100	132	" TT...	21-100
" 9.....	8-100"	568	" 3	14-100	106	" F...	22-100
						" FF...	23-100

COMPRESSED BUCK-SHOT.

	Diameter.	No. of Balls to the lb.		Diameter.	No. of Balls to the lb.
No. 3.....	25-100"	284	No. 00.....	34-100"	
" 2.....	27-100	232	" 000.....	34-100	
" 1.....	30-100	173	Balls.....	38-100	
" 0.....	32-100	140	".....	44-100	

SCREW-THREADS, SELLERS OR U. S. STANDARD.

In 1894 a committee of the Franklin Institute recommended the adoption of the system of screw-threads and bolts which was devised by Mr. V. Sellers, of Philadelphia. This same system was subsequently adopted by both the Army and Navy Departments of the United States and by the Master Mechanics' and Master Car Builders' Association, so that it may now be regarded, and in fact is called, the United States Standard.

The rule given by Mr. Sellers for proportioning the thread is as follows: Divide the pitch, or, what is the same thing, the side of the thread, into eight equal parts; take off one part from the top and fill in one part at the bottom of the thread; then the flat top and bottom will equal one eighth of the pitch, the wearing surface will be three quarters of the pitch, and the diameter of screw at bottom of the thread will be expressed by the following formula:

$$\text{diameter of bolt} = \frac{1.299}{\text{no. threads per inch}}$$

For a sharp V thread with angle of 60° the formula is

$$\text{diameter of bolt} = \frac{1.733}{\text{no. of threads per inch}}$$

The angle of the thread in the Sellers system is 60°. In the Whitworth system it is 55°, and the point and root of the thread are rounded.

Screw-Threads, United States Standard.

Diam.	Pitch.	Diam.	Pitch.	Diam.	Pitch.	Diam.	Pitch.	Diam.
1/4	20	3/8	10	1 1/2	7	1 15-16	5	2 13-16
5-16	18	13-16	10	1 5-16	6	2	4 1/2	3
3/8	16	3/8	9	1 1/4	6	2 1/4	4 1/2	3 1/4
7-16	14	15-16	9	1 1/4	6	2 5-16	4 1/2	3 5-16
1/2	13	1	8	1 3/8	5 1/2	2 3/4	4	3 3/4
9-16	12	1 1-16	7	1 3/8	5	2 3/4	4	3 3/4
5/8			7	1 3/8	5	2 3/4	4	4

Screw-Threads, Whitworth (English) Standard.

	Pitch.	Diam.	Pitch.	Diam.	Pitch.	Diam.	Pitch.	Diam.	Pitch.
20	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	11	1	8	13 $\frac{1}{8}$	5	3	31 $\frac{1}{2}$	
18	11-16	11	1 $\frac{1}{8}$	7	17 $\frac{1}{8}$	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	31 $\frac{1}{4}$	
16	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	10	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	7	17 $\frac{1}{8}$	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	31 $\frac{1}{4}$	
14	13-16	10	1 $\frac{3}{8}$	6	21 $\frac{1}{4}$	4	3	3	
12	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	9	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	6	21 $\frac{1}{4}$	4	3	3	
12	15-16	9	1 $\frac{5}{8}$	5	29 $\frac{1}{4}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$			

U. S. OR SELLERS SYSTEM OF SCREW-THREADS.

Threads per Inch.	BOLTS AND THREADS.				HEX. NUTS AND HEADS.					Long Diam. Sq. Nuts Rough.
	Diam. of Root of Thread.		Area at Root of Thread in Sq. Inches.		Short Diam., Rough.		Long Diam., Rough.		Thickness, Rough.	
	Ins.	Ins.	Ins.	Ins.	Ins.	Ins.	Ins.	Ins.	Ins.	
20	.185	.0062	.049	.027	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	7-16	37-64	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	3-16	7-10
18	.240	.0074	.077	.045	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	17-32	17-32	11-16	5-10	10-12
16	.294	.0078	.110	.053	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	11-16	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	51-64	5-16	63-64
14	.344	.0089	.150	.083	1	25-32	23-32	9-10	7-16	17-64
12	.400	.0096	.196	.126	7 $\frac{1}{8}$	15-16	15-16	1	7-16	15-64
11	.454	.0104	.249	.162	7 $\frac{1}{8}$	31-32	29-32	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	9-16	123-64
10	.507	.0113	.307	.202	1	11-16	1	17-32	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	11 $\frac{1}{2}$
9	.560	.0125	.442	.302	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	13-16	17-16	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	11-16	149-64
8	.781	.0128	.601	.420	17-16	18 $\frac{1}{2}$	18 $\frac{1}{2}$	1421-32	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	19-16
8	.837	.0156	.785	.570	15 $\frac{1}{2}$	19-16	17 $\frac{1}{2}$	1	15-16	219-64
7	.940	.0178	.994	.694	13-16	19 $\frac{1}{2}$	23-32	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	11-16	29-16
7	1.065	.0178	1.227	.898	2	115-16	25-16	14 $\frac{1}{2}$	13-16	253-64
6	1.160	.0208	1.485	1.057	2	3-16	21 $\frac{1}{2}$	217-32	13 $\frac{1}{2}$	33-32
6	1.284	.0208	1.7	1.295	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	5-16	23 $\frac{1}{2}$	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	17-16	323-64
5 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.389	.0227	2.074	1.515	2	9-16	23 $\frac{1}{2}$	231-32	15 $\frac{1}{2}$	10-16
5	1.491	.0250	2.405	1.746	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	11-16	33-16	13 $\frac{1}{2}$	11-16	357-64
5	1.616	.0250	2.761	2.051	2	15-16	27 $\frac{1}{2}$	319-32	17 $\frac{1}{2}$	113-16
4 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.712	.0277	3.142	2.302	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	31-16	39 $\frac{1}{2}$	2	115-16	427-64
4 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.962	.0277	3.976	3.023	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	37-16	41-16	21 $\frac{1}{2}$	23-16	461-64
4	2.176	.0312	4.909	3.719	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	13-16	41 $\frac{1}{2}$	21 $\frac{1}{2}$	27-16	531-64
4	2.426	.0312	5.940	4.620	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	43-16	439-32	23 $\frac{1}{2}$	21-16	6
3 $\frac{1}{2}$	2.629	.0357	7.069	5.428	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	49-16	53 $\frac{1}{2}$	3	215-16	617-32
3 $\frac{1}{2}$	2.879	.0357	8.296	6.510	5	45-16	513-16	31 $\frac{1}{2}$	33-16	71-16
3 $\frac{1}{4}$	3.100	.0384	9.621	7.548	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	55-16	67-64	31 $\frac{1}{2}$	37-16	730-64
3	3.517	.0413	11.045	8.641	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	51-16	621-32	39 $\frac{1}{2}$	31-16	81 $\frac{1}{2}$
3	3.567	.0413	12.566	9.959	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	61-16	73-32	4	315-16	841-64
2 $\frac{1}{2}$	3.798	.0435	14.186	11.329	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	67-16	79-16	41 $\frac{1}{2}$	43-16	93-16
2 $\frac{1}{2}$	4.028	.0454	15.904	12.743	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	613-16	731-32	41 $\frac{1}{2}$	47-16	93 $\frac{1}{2}$
2 $\frac{1}{2}$	4.256	.0476	17.721	14.226	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	73-16	713-32	49 $\frac{1}{2}$	411-16	109 $\frac{1}{2}$
2 $\frac{1}{4}$	4.480	.0500	19.635	15.763	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	79-16	827-32	5	415-16	1049-64
2 $\frac{1}{4}$	4.730	.0500	21.648	17.572	8	715-16	939-32	51 $\frac{1}{2}$	53-16	1123-64
2 $\frac{1}{4}$	4.953	.0526	23.768	19.267	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	85-16	923-32	51 $\frac{1}{2}$	57-16	117 $\frac{1}{2}$
2 $\frac{1}{4}$	5.203	.0526	25.967	21.262	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	811-16	1053-32	59 $\frac{1}{2}$	511-16	129 $\frac{1}{2}$
2 $\frac{1}{4}$	5.423	.0555	28.274	23.698	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	91-16	1019-32	6	515-16	1315-16

T GAUGES FOR IRON FOR SCREW THREADS.
 being the Sellers, or Franklin Institute, or United States Standard,
 riously called, a difficulty arose from the fact that it is the habit
 manufacturers to make iron over-size, and as there are no over-size

STANDARD SET-SCREWS AND CAP-SCREWS.

American, Hartford, and Worcester Machine-Screw Companies.
(Compiled by W. S. Dix.)

	(A)	(B)	(C)	(D)	(E)	(F)	(G)
Diameter of Screw....	$\frac{1}{8}$	3-16	$\frac{1}{4}$	5-16	$\frac{3}{8}$	7-16	1
Threads per Inch....	40	34	30	18	16	14	12
Size of Tap Drill*....	No. 43	No. 30	No. 5	17-64	21-64	$\frac{9}{32}$	$\frac{11}{32}$

	(H)	(I)	(J)	(K)	(L)	(M)	(N)
Diameter of Screw....	9-16	$\frac{5}{8}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{7}{8}$	1	$1\frac{1}{8}$	1
Threads per Inch....	12	11	10	9	8	7	6
Size of Tap Drill*....	31-64	17-32	21-32	49-64	$\frac{7}{8}$	63-64	1

Set Screws.			Hex. Head Cap-screws.			Sq. Head Cap-screws.			
Sort Diam of Head	Long Diam. of Head	Lengths (under Head).	Short Diam. of Head.	Long Diam. of Head.	Lengths (under Head).	Short Diam. of Head.	Long Diam. of Head.	Lengths (under Head)	
(C)	$\frac{1}{4}$.35	$\frac{3}{8}$	to 3	$\frac{3}{8}$	to 3	$\frac{5}{8}$.53	$\frac{3}{4}$ to 1
(D)	5-16	.44	$\frac{3}{8}$	to 3 $\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{2}$.58	$\frac{3}{4}$	to 3 $\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{7}{16}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$
(E)	$\frac{3}{8}$.53	$\frac{3}{8}$	to 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	9-16	.65	$\frac{3}{4}$	to 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{3}{4}$
(F)	7-16	.62	$\frac{3}{8}$	to 3 $\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{5}{8}$.72	$\frac{3}{4}$	to 3 $\frac{3}{4}$	9-16 to $\frac{1}{2}$
(G)	$\frac{1}{2}$.71	$\frac{3}{8}$	to 4	$\frac{3}{4}$.87	$\frac{3}{4}$	to 4	$\frac{5}{8}$ to $\frac{3}{4}$
(H)	9-16	.80	$\frac{3}{8}$	to 4 $\frac{1}{4}$	13-16	.94	$\frac{3}{4}$	to 4 $\frac{1}{4}$	11-16 to $\frac{3}{4}$
(I)	$\frac{5}{8}$.89	$\frac{3}{8}$	to 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{7}{8}$	1.01	1	to 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{4}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$
(J)	$\frac{3}{4}$	1.06	1	to 4 $\frac{3}{4}$	1	1.15	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	to 4 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.04 to $\frac{1}{2}$
(K)	$\frac{7}{8}$	1.24	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	to 5	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.30	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	to 5	1.60 to $\frac{1}{2}$
(L)	1	1.42	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	to 5	1 $\frac{3}{4}$	1.45	1 $\frac{3}{4}$	to 5	1.77 to $\frac{1}{2}$
(M)	1 $\frac{1}{8}$	1.60	1 $\frac{3}{4}$	to 5	1 $\frac{7}{8}$	1.59	2	to 5	1.95 to $\frac{1}{2}$
(N)	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	1.77	2	to 5	1 $\frac{7}{8}$	1.73	2	to 5	2.13 to $\frac{1}{2}$

Round and Flister Head Cap-screws.		Flat Head Cap-screws.		Button-head Cap-screws.	
Diam. of Head.	Lengths (under Head).	Diam. of Head.	Lengths (including Head).	Diam. of Head.	Lengths (under Head)
(A)	3-16	$\frac{3}{4}$	to 2 $\frac{1}{2}$	7-32 (.225)	$\frac{3}{4}$ to 1 $\frac{1}{2}$
(B)	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	to 2 $\frac{3}{4}$	5-16	$\frac{3}{4}$ to 2
(C)	$\frac{3}{8}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	to 3	7-16	$\frac{3}{4}$ to 2 $\frac{1}{2}$
(D)	7-16	$\frac{3}{4}$	to 3 $\frac{1}{4}$	9-16	$\frac{3}{4}$ to 2 $\frac{3}{4}$
(E)	9-16	$\frac{3}{4}$	to 3 $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{5}{8}$	$\frac{3}{4}$ to 2 $\frac{3}{4}$
(F)	$\frac{5}{8}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	to 3 $\frac{3}{4}$	1	$\frac{3}{4}$ to 2
(G)	$\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	to 4	$\frac{3}{8}$	$\frac{3}{4}$ to 2 $\frac{3}{4}$
(H)	13-16	1	to 4 $\frac{1}{4}$	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 to 2
(I)	$\frac{7}{8}$	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	to 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 $\frac{1}{4}$ to 1
(J)	1	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	to 4 $\frac{3}{4}$	1 $\frac{3}{8}$	1 $\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$
(K)	1 $\frac{1}{8}$	1 $\frac{3}{4}$	to 5	2	1 $\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$
(L)	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	2	to 5	1 $\frac{3}{4}$	1 $\frac{3}{4}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$

* For cast iron. For numbers of twist-drills see p. 22.

Threads are U. S. Standard. Cap screws are threaded $\frac{3}{4}$ length up to including 1" diam. \times 4" long, and $\frac{1}{2}$ length above. Lengths increase by each regular size between the limits given. Lengths of heads, except round and button, equal diam. of screws.

The angle of the cone of the flat-head screw is 76°, the sides making an angle of 38° with the top.

place is turned to the size given in the ninth column, these sizes being the same as those of the regular U. S. Standard bolt, at the bottom of the thread, plus the amount allowed for fit and wear of tap ; or, in other words, $d' = U. S. Standard\ d + (D' - D)$. Gauges like the one in the cut, Fig. 72, are furnished for this sizing. In finishing the threads of the tap a tool



FIG. 72.

is used which has a removable cutter finished accurately to gauge by grinding, this tool being correct U. S. Standard as to angle, and flat at the point. It is fed in and the threads chased until the flat point just touches the portion of the tap which has been turned to size d' . Care having been taken with the form of the tool, with its grinding on the top face (a fixture being provided for this to insure its being ground properly), and also with the setting of the tool properly in the lathe, the result is that the threads of the tap are correctly sized without further attention.

It is evident that one of the points of advantage of the Sellers system is sacrificed, i.e., instead of the taps being flatted at the top of the threads they are sharp, and are consequently not so durable as they otherwise would be ; but practically this disadvantage is not found to be serious, and is far overbalanced by the greater ease of getting iron within the prescribed limits ; while any rough bolt when reduced in size at the top of the threads, by filing or otherwise, will fit a hole tapped with the U. S. Standard hand taps, thus affording proof that the two kinds of bolts or screws made for the two different kinds of work are practically interchangeable. By this system $\frac{1}{2}$ " iron can be .005" smaller or .0108" larger than the nominal diameter, or, in other words, it may have a total variation of .0158", while $\frac{1}{4}$ " iron can be .005" smaller or .0309" larger than nominal—a total variation of .0414"—and within these limits it is found practicable to procure the iron.

STANDARD SIZES OF SCREW-THREADS FOR BOLTS AND TAPS.

(CHAS. A. BAUER.)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
<i>A</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>D</i>	<i>d</i>	<i>h</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>D' - D</i>	<i>D'</i>	<i>d'</i>	<i>H</i>
		Inches.	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.	Inches.
$\frac{1}{8}$	20	.2608	.1855	.0379	.0062	.006	.2668	.1915	.2024
$\frac{3}{16}$	18	.3245	.2403	.0421	.0070	.006	.3305	.2463	.2589
$\frac{1}{4}$	16	.3885	.2938	.0474	.0078	.006	.3945	.2998	.3139
$\frac{5}{16}$	14	.4530	.3447	.0541	.0089	.006	.4590	.3507	.3670
$\frac{3}{8}$	13	.5166	.4000	.0582	.0096	.006	.5225	.4060	.4236
$\frac{7}{16}$	12	.5805	.4543	.0631	.0104	.007	.5875	.4613	.4802
$\frac{1}{2}$	11	.6447	.5069	.0689	.0114	.007	.6517	.5139	.5346
$\frac{9}{16}$	10	.7177	.5201	.0758	.0125	.007	.7787	.6271	.6499
$\frac{5}{8}$	9	.8991	.7307	.0842	.0139	.007	.9061	.7377	.7630
$\frac{3}{4}$	8	1.0271	.8376	.0947	.0156	.007	1.0341	.8446	.8731
$\frac{7}{8}$	7	1.1559	.9394	.1083	.0179	.007	1.1629	.9464	.9789
1	7	1.2899	1.0644	.1083	.0179	.007	1.2879	1.0714	1.1039

A = nominal diameter of bolt.
D = actual diameter of bolt.
d = diameter of bolt at bottom of thread.
n = number of threads per inch.
h = flat of bottom of thread, depth of thread.
f = diameters of tap.
H = diameter in nut before tapping.

$$D = A + \frac{.2165}{n}$$

$$d = A - \frac{1.29904}{n}$$

$$h = \frac{.7577}{n} = \frac{D - d}{2}$$

$$f = \frac{.125}{n}$$

$$H = D' - \frac{1.288}{n} = D' - .85(2h.)$$

STANDARD SET-SCREWS AND CAP-SCREWS.

American, Hartford, and Worcester Machine-Screw Companies.
(Compiled by W. S. Dix.)

Diameter of Screw....	(A) $\frac{3}{8}$	(B) 3-16	(C) $\frac{1}{4}$	(D) 5-16	(E) $\frac{3}{8}$	(F) 7-16	(G) $\frac{1}{2}$
Threads per Inch.....	40	24	20	18	16	14	12
Size of Tap Drill*....	No. 43	No. 30	No. 5	17-64	21-64	$\frac{9}{8}$	27-64
Diameter of Screw....	(H) 9-16	(I) $\frac{5}{8}$	(J) $\frac{3}{4}$	(K) $\frac{7}{8}$	(L) 1	(M) $1\frac{1}{8}$	(N) $1\frac{1}{2}$
Threads per Inch.....	12	11	10	9	8	7	7
Size of Tap Drill*....	31-64	17-32	21-32	49-64	$\frac{7}{8}$	63-64	$1\frac{1}{8}$

Set Screws.			Hex. Head Cap-screws.			Sq. Head Cap-screws.		
Sort Diam of Head	Long Diam. of Head	Lengths (under Head).	Short Diam. of Head.	Long Diam. of Head.	Lengths (under Head).	Short Diam. of Head.	Long Diam. of Head.	Lengths (under Head).
(C) $\frac{1}{4}$.35	$\frac{3}{4}$ to 3	7-16	.51	$\frac{3}{4}$ to 3	$\frac{3}{8}$.53	$\frac{3}{4}$ to 3
(D) 5-16	.44	$\frac{5}{8}$ to $3\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{2}$.58	$\frac{3}{4}$ to $3\frac{1}{4}$	7-16	.62	$\frac{5}{8}$ to $3\frac{1}{4}$
(E) $\frac{3}{8}$.53	$\frac{3}{4}$ to $3\frac{1}{2}$	9-16	.65	$\frac{1}{2}$ to $3\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$.71	$\frac{3}{4}$ to $3\frac{1}{2}$
(F) 7-16	.63	$\frac{5}{8}$ to $3\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{5}{8}$.72	$\frac{3}{4}$ to $3\frac{3}{4}$	9-16	.80	$\frac{5}{8}$ to $3\frac{3}{4}$
(G) $\frac{1}{2}$.71	$\frac{3}{4}$ to 4	$\frac{3}{4}$.87	$\frac{3}{4}$ to 4	$\frac{5}{8}$.89	$\frac{3}{4}$ to 4
(H) 9-16	.80	$\frac{3}{4}$ to $4\frac{1}{4}$	13-16	.94	$\frac{3}{4}$ to $4\frac{1}{4}$	11-16	.98	$\frac{3}{4}$ to $4\frac{1}{4}$
(I) $\frac{5}{8}$.89	$\frac{3}{4}$ to $4\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{7}{8}$	1.01	$\frac{1}{2}$ to $4\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	1.06	$\frac{1}{2}$ to $4\frac{1}{2}$
(J) $\frac{3}{4}$	1.06	1 to $4\frac{3}{4}$	1	1.15	$1\frac{1}{4}$ to $4\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	1.34	$1\frac{1}{4}$ to $4\frac{3}{4}$
(K) $\frac{7}{8}$	1.24	$1\frac{1}{4}$ to 5	$1\frac{1}{8}$	1.30	$1\frac{1}{2}$ to 5	$1\frac{1}{8}$	1.60	$1\frac{1}{2}$ to 5
(L) 1	1.43	$1\frac{1}{2}$ to 5	$1\frac{1}{4}$	1.45	$1\frac{3}{4}$ to 5	$1\frac{1}{4}$	1.77	$1\frac{3}{4}$ to 5
(M) $1\frac{1}{8}$	1.60	$1\frac{3}{4}$ to 5	$1\frac{3}{8}$	1.59	2 to 5	$1\frac{3}{8}$	1.95	2 to 5
(N) $1\frac{1}{4}$	1.77	2 to 5	$1\frac{1}{2}$	1.73	2 to 5	$1\frac{1}{2}$	2.13	$2\frac{1}{4}$ to 5

Round and Filister Head Cap-screws.**Flat Head Cap-screws.****Button-Head Cap-screws.**

Diam. of Head.	Lengths (under Head).	Diam. of Head.	Lengths (including Head).	Diam. of Head.	Lengths (under Head).
(A) 3-16	$\frac{3}{4}$ to $2\frac{1}{8}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{3}{4}$ to $1\frac{1}{4}$	7-32 (.225)	$\frac{3}{4}$ to $1\frac{1}{4}$
(B) $\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{5}{8}$ to $2\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{5}{8}$	$\frac{3}{4}$ to 2	5-16	$\frac{5}{8}$ to 2
(C) $\frac{3}{8}$	$\frac{3}{4}$ to 3	15-32	$\frac{3}{4}$ to $2\frac{1}{4}$	7-16	$\frac{3}{4}$ to $2\frac{1}{4}$
(D) 7-16	$\frac{3}{4}$ to $3\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{5}{8}$	$\frac{3}{4}$ to $2\frac{3}{4}$	9-16	$\frac{3}{4}$ to $2\frac{3}{4}$
(E) 9-16	$\frac{3}{4}$ to $3\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{3}{4}$ to 3	$\frac{5}{8}$	$\frac{5}{8}$ to $3\frac{1}{2}$
(F) $\frac{5}{8}$	$\frac{3}{4}$ to $3\frac{3}{4}$	13-16	1 to 3	$\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{3}{4}$ to 3
(G) $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{4}$ to 4	$\frac{7}{8}$	$1\frac{1}{4}$ to 3	13-16	1 to 3
(H) 13-16	1 to $4\frac{1}{4}$	1	$1\frac{1}{2}$ to 3	15-16	$1\frac{1}{4}$ to 3
(I) $\frac{3}{8}$	$1\frac{1}{4}$ to $4\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{8}$	$1\frac{3}{8}$ to 3	1	$1\frac{1}{2}$ to 3
(J) 1	$1\frac{1}{2}$ to $4\frac{3}{4}$	$1\frac{3}{8}$	2 to 3	$1\frac{1}{4}$	$1\frac{3}{4}$ to 3
(K) $1\frac{1}{8}$	$1\frac{3}{4}$ to 5				
(L) $1\frac{1}{4}$	2 to 5				

* For cast iron. For numbers of twist-drills see p. 29.

Threads are U. S. Standard. Cap screws are threaded $\frac{3}{4}$ length up to and including 1" diam. x 4" long, and $\frac{1}{2}$ length above. Lengths increase by $\frac{1}{8}$ " each regular size between the limits given. Lengths of heads, except flat and button, equal diam. of screws.

The angle of the cone of the flat-head screw is 70°, the sides making angles of 35° with the top.

STANDARD MACHINE SCREWS.

(Am. Screw Co.'s Catalogue, 1883, 1892.)

Threads per Inch.	Diam. of Body.	Diam. of Flat Head.	Diam. of Round Head.	Diam. of Filister Head.	Lengths.	
					From	To
56	.0842	.1631	.1544	.1332	3-16	1/8
48	.0973	.1894	.1786	.1545	3-16	5/8
32, 36, 40	.1105	.2158	.2028	.1747	3-16	3/4
32, 36, 40	.1236	.2421	.2270	.1985	3-16	7/8
30, 32	.1368	.2684	.2512	.2175	3-16	1
30, 32	.1500	.2947	.2754	.2392	1/4	1 1/4
30, 32	.1631	.3210	.2936	.2610	1/4	1 1/2
24, 30, 32	.1763	.3474	.3238	.2805	1/4	1 3/4
24, 30, 32	.1894	.3737	.3480	.3035	1/4	1 7/8
20, 24	.2158	.4263	.3922	.3445	5/8	1 3/4
20, 24	.2421	.4790	.4364	.3885	5/8	2
16, 18, 20	.2684	.5316	.4866	.4300	5/8	2 1/4
16, 18	.2947	.5842	.5248	.4710	1 1/8	2 3/4
16, 18	.3210	.6368	.5690	.5200	1 1/8	2 7/8
16, 18	.3474	.6894	.6106	.5557	1 1/8	3
14, 16	.3737	.7420	.6522	.6005	1 1/8	3
14, 16	.4000	.7946	.6938	.6425	3/4	3
14, 16	.4263	.7946	.7354	.6920	3/8	3
14, 16	.4526	.8473	.7770	.7240	1	3

Lengths vary by 16ths from 3-16 to 1/2, by 8ths from 1/2 to 1 1/2, by 4ths from 1 1/2 to 3.

SIZES AND WEIGHTS OF SQUARE AND HEXAGONAL NUTS.

United States Standard Sizes. Chamfered and trimmed. Punched to suit U. S. Standard Taps.

Width.	Thickness.	Diam. of Hole.	Long Diam. Sq. Nuts.	Long Diam. Hex. Nuts.	Square.		Hexagon.	
					No. in 100 lbs.	Wt. each in lbs.	No. in 100 lbs.	Wt. each in lbs.
1/8	1/4	13-64	11-16	9-16	7270	.0138	7615	.0131
19-32	5-16	1/4	13-16	11-16	4700	.0231	5200	.0192
11-16	3/8	19-64	1	13-16	2350	.0426	3000	.0333
25-32	7-16	11-32	1 1/8	7/8	1630	.0613	2000	.070
7-16	1/2	25-64	1 1/4	1	1120	.0893	1430	.070
31-32	9-16	29-64	1 3/8	1 1/8	890	.1124	1100	.091
1 1-16	5/8	33-64	1 1/2	1 1/4	640	.156	740	.135
1 1/8	3/4	39-64	1 3/4	1 7-16	380	.263	450	.222
1 1-16	7/8	47-64	2	1-16	280	.357	309	.324
1 1/4	1	53-64	2 5-16	1 1/2	170	.588	216	.463
1 1/2	1 1/4	59-64	2 9-16	2 1-16	130	.769	148	.676
2	1 1/2	1 1-16	2 13-16	2 5-16	96	1.04	111	.901
2 1-16	1 3/4	1 5-32	3 1/8	3 1/4	70	1.43	85	1.18
2 1/8	1 7/8	1 9-32	3 3/8	3 3/4	58	1.72	68	1.47
2 1/4	2	1 13-32	3 5/8	4	44	2.27	56	1.79
2 3/8	2 1/8	1 1/2	3 7/8	4 1/2	34	2.94	40	2.50
2 1/2	2 1/4	1 3/4	4 1/8	5	30	3.33	37	2.70
2 3/4	2 3/8	1 23-32	4 7-16	5 1/2	23	4.35	29	3.45
3	2 1/2	1 15-16	4 15-16	4 1-16	19	5.26	21	4.76
3 1/8	2 3/4	2 3-16	5 1/8	4 1/2	12	8.33	15	6.67
3 1/4	2 7/8	2 7-16	6	5 15-16	9	11.11	11	9.09
3 3/8	3	2 3/8	6 1/4	5 5-16	7 1/4	13.64	8 3/4	11.76

SIZES OF WASHERS.

Diameter in inches.	Size of Hole, in inches.	Thickness, Birmingham Wire-gauge.	Bolt in inches.	No. in 100 lbs.
$\frac{5}{8}$	5-16	No. 16	$\frac{1}{2}$	29,300
$\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{5}{8}$	" 16	$\frac{5}{8}$ -16	18,000
1	$\frac{7}{8}$ -16	" 14	$\frac{3}{4}$	7,600
$1\frac{1}{4}$	9-16	" 11	$\frac{7}{8}$	3,300
$1\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{5}{8}$	" 11	$\frac{7}{8}$ -16	2,180
$1\frac{3}{4}$	11-16	" 11	$\frac{5}{8}$	2,250
19	13-16	" 11	$\frac{3}{4}$	1,080
2	31-32	" 10	$\frac{3}{4}$	1,140
$2\frac{1}{4}$	$1\frac{1}{8}$	" 8	1	580
$2\frac{3}{4}$	$1\frac{1}{4}$	" 8	$1\frac{1}{8}$	470
3	$1\frac{3}{8}$	" 7	$1\frac{1}{4}$	360
3	$1\frac{1}{2}$	" 6	$1\frac{3}{8}$	360

TRACK SPIKES.

Rails used.	Spikes.	Number in Keg, 200 lbs.	Kegs per Mile Ties 24 in. between Cent.
45 to 85	$5\frac{1}{2} \times 9-16$	380	30
40 " 52	$5 \times 9-16$	400	27
35 " 40	$5 \times \frac{1}{2}$	490	22
24 " 35	$4\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{2}$	550	20
24 " 30	$4\frac{1}{2} \times 7-16$	725	15
18 " 24	$4 \times 7-16$	820	13
16 " 20	$3\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{3}{4}$	1250	9
14 " 16	$3 \times \frac{3}{4}$	1350	8
8 " 12	$2\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{3}{4}$	1550	7
8 " 10	$2\frac{1}{2} \times 5-16$	2300	5

STREET RAILWAY SPIKES.

Spikes.	Number in Keg, 200 lbs.	Kegs per Mile, Ties 24 between Centres.
$5\frac{1}{2} \times 9-16$	400	30
$5 \times \frac{1}{2}$	575	19
$4\frac{1}{2} \times 7-16$	800	13

BOAT SPIKES.

Number in Keg of 200 lbs.

Length.	$\frac{3}{4}$	5-16	$\frac{3}{8}$	$\frac{1}{2}$
4 inch.	2375
5 "	2030	1330	940
6 "	1825	1175	800	450
7 "	990	650	375
8 "	880	600	335
9 "	525	300
10 "	475	275

SIZES, LENGTH, AND NUMBER TO THE POUND OF STANDARD STEEL WIRE NAILS.

(John A. Roebbing's Sons Co.)

Sizes.	Length, inches.	Common Nails and Brads.		Barbed Common.	Clinch.	Fence.	Smooth and Barbed Finishing.	Fine.	Barrel.	Casing, and Smooth and Barbed Box.	Flooring Brads.	Barbed Oval Head Car Nail.		Shaling.	Barbed Roofing.	Shingle.	Tobacco.	Lining.	Wire Spikes.	Length, inches.	Sizes.
		Light.	Heavy.																		
3/4	1 3/8	1500	1000	1500	1558	1558	1558	1550	1500	1350	1350	1350	118	142	469	469	469	1780	1	3/4	3/4
3/4	1 1/2	1300	1140	1140	1140	1140	1140	1140	875	875	875	875	118	142	411	411	411	1500	1	3/4	3/4
3/4	1 3/4	1200	1080	1080	1080	1080	1080	1080	775	775	775	775	118	142	351	351	351	1500	1	3/4	3/4
3/4	2	1000	900	900	900	900	900	900	390	390	390	390	165	274	251	251	251	1000	1	3/4	3/4
3/4	2 1/4	900	800	800	800	800	800	800	350	350	350	350	165	274	165	165	165	1000	1	3/4	3/4
3/4	2 1/2	800	700	700	700	700	700	700	320	320	320	320	165	274	165	165	165	1000	1	3/4	3/4
3/4	2 3/4	700	600	600	600	600	600	600	280	280	280	280	165	274	165	165	165	1000	1	3/4	3/4
3/4	3	600	500	500	500	500	500	500	240	240	240	240	165	274	165	165	165	1000	1	3/4	3/4
3/4	3 1/4	500	400	400	400	400	400	400	200	200	200	200	165	274	165	165	165	1000	1	3/4	3/4
3/4	3 1/2	400	300	300	300	300	300	300	160	160	160	160	165	274	165	165	165	1000	1	3/4	3/4
3/4	3 3/4	300	200	200	200	200	200	200	120	120	120	120	165	274	165	165	165	1000	1	3/4	3/4
3/4	4	200	100	100	100	100	100	100	80	80	80	80	165	274	165	165	165	1000	1	3/4	3/4
3/4	4 1/4	100	50	50	50	50	50	50	40	40	40	40	165	274	165	165	165	1000	1	3/4	3/4
3/4	4 1/2	50	25	25	25	25	25	25	20	20	20	20	165	274	165	165	165	1000	1	3/4	3/4

APPROXIMATE NUMBER OF WIRE NAILS PER POUND.

Wire Gauge, D. W. G.	Length, Inches.																					
	1/4	5/8	3/4	1	1 1/4	1 1/2	1 3/4	2	2 1/2	3	3 1/2	4	4 1/2	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
00																						
0					83	97	103	110	117	124	131	138	145	152	159	166	173	180	187	194	201	
1				57	45	38	32	28	25	22	19	16	14	13	11	10	9	8	7	6	5	
2				68	52	44	37	32	28	24	21	18	16	14	13	11	10	9	8	7	6	
3				76	60	50	43	38	33	30	27	24	21	19	17	15	14	12	11	10	9	
4				120	90	72	60	51	45	39	35	32	29	26	24	21	19	18	16	15	14	
5				169	141	106	85	71	60	53	47	42	38	35	32	30	28	26	25	23	21	
6				247	197	164	123	99	82	71	62	56	51	47	44	41	39	37	35	33	31	
7				329	239	200	149	120	100	88	78	72	67	63	60	58	56	54	52	50	48	
8				345	276	229	172	137	115	98	86	78	72	68	65	63	61	59	57	55	53	
9				414	331	276	207	165	138	118	103	93	87	83	80	78	76	74	72	70	68	
10				663	496	397	248	198	166	142	124	112	104	99	95	92	90	88	86	84	82	
11				857	628	502	314	251	209	178	157	140	130	125	120	117	115	113	111	109	107	
12				1096	822	658	348	289	244	207	181	164	154	149	145	142	140	138	136	134	132	
13				1429	1072	857	414	339	274	233	200	181	170	165	161	158	156	154	152	150	148	
14				1840	1363	1072	514	414	339	274	233	200	181	170	165	161	158	156	154	152	150	
15				2304	1693	1320	614	494	399	324	274	233	200	181	170	165	161	158	156	154	152	
16				3504	2396	1752	814	643	514	414	339	274	233	200	181	170	165	161	158	156	154	
17				4571	3048	2280	1014	803	643	514	414	339	274	233	200	181	170	165	161	158	156	
18				6236	4156	3116	1214	983	793	643	514	414	339	274	233	200	181	170	165	161	158	
19				8376	5517	4138	1514	1233	1003	803	643	514	414	339	274	233	200	181	170	165	161	
20				10668	7112	5354	1814	1453	1183	953	773	643	514	414	339	274	233	200	181	170	165	
21				15000	10000	7500	2500	2000	1600	1300	1100	950	800	700	650	600	550	500	450	400	350	
22				17777	11850	8888	2888	2288	1888	1588	1388	1238	1088	938	838	788	738	688	638	588	538	
23				22856	15337	11428	3428	2728	2128	1728	1478	1278	1128	1028	928	878	828	778	728	678	628	

These approximate numbers are an average only, and the figures given may be varied either way by changes in the dimensions of the heads or points. Brads and no-head nails will run more to the pound than the table shows, and large or thick-headed nails will run less.

SIZE, WEIGHT, LENGTH, AND STRENGTH OF IRON WIRE.

(Trenton Iron Co.)

No. by Wire Gauge.	Diam. in Decimals of One Inch.	Area of Section in Decimals of One Inch.	Feet to the Pound.	Weight of One Mile in pounds.	Tensile Strength (Approximate) of Charred Iron Wire in Pounds.	
					Bright.	Annealed.
00000	.450	.15904	1,863	2833.248	12598	9449
0000	.400	.12566	2,358	2238.878	9955	7466
0000	.360	.10179	2,911	1819.574	8124	6091
00	.330	.08553	3,465	1523.861	6880	5160
0	.305	.07306	4,057	1301.678	5926	4445
1	.285	.06379	4,645	1136.678	5236	3920
2	.265	.05515	5,374	982.555	4570	3425
3	.245	.04714	6,286	839.942	3948	2960
4	.225	.03976	7,454	708.365	3374	2530
5	.205	.03301	8,976	588.189	2839	2130
6	.190	.02835	10,453	506.084	2476	1820
7	.175	.02405	12,322	428.472	2136	1600
8	.160	.02011	14,736	358.3008	1813	1390
9	.145	.01651	17,950	294.1488	1507	1130
10	.130	.01327	22,333	236.4384	1233	925
11	.1175	.01084	27,340	193.1424	1010	758
12	.105	.00866	34,219	154.2816	810	607
13	.0925	.00672	44,092	119.7504	651	473
14	.080	.00508	56,916	89.6016	474	356
15	.070	.00385	76,984	68.6872	372	280
16	.061	.00292	101,488	52.0060	292	220
17	.0525	.00216	137,174	38.4912	222	165
18	.045	.00159	186,335	28.9378	169	127
19	.040	.0012566	235,084	22.8572	137	103
20	.035	.0009621	308,079	17.1389	107	80
21	.031	.0007547	392,772	13.4429	10,3718	
22	.028	.0006157	481,234	10.3718	8,7427	
23	.025	.0004969	603,863	8.1250	7,0805	
24	.0225	.0003976	745,710	6.4633	5,5668	
25	.020	.0003142	943,396	5.5668	4,5334	
26	.018	.0002545	1164,680	4.8433	4,0423	
27	.017	.0002270	1305,670	4.0423	3,5819	
28	.016	.0002011	1476,869	3,5819	3,1485	
29	.015	.0001767	1676,989	3,1485	2,7424	
30	.014	.0001539	1925,321	2,7424	2,3640	
31	.013	.0001327	2232,653	2,3640	2,0148	
32	.012	.0001131	2630,607	2,0148	1,6928	
33	.011	.0000950	3119,092	1,6928	1,3992	
34	.010	.00007854	3773,584	1,3992	1,1364	
35	.0095	.00007088	4482,508	1,1364	1,0111	
36	.009	.00006362	5357,728	1,0111	.89549	
37	.0085	.00005675	6322,035	.89549	.78672	
38	.008	.00005027	7399,147	.78672	.68587	
39	.0075	.00004418	8724,291	.68587		
40	.007	.00003848	10288,253			

The above figures on tensile strength are based upon tests made with good charcoal-iron wire from Trenton blooms. The tensile strength of wire made of Swedish charcoal iron is about 10 per cent. less. Mild Bessemer steel is about 10 more. Ordinary crucible steel is about 25 more. Special crucible steel is from 30 to 50 more than that of charcoal-iron wire.

ALVANIZED IRON WIRE FOR TELEGRAPH AND TELEPHONE LINES.

(Trenton Iron Co.)

EIGHT PER MILE-OHM.—This term is to be understood as distinguishing *resistance of material* only, and means the weight of such material *resistance per mile* to give the resistance of one ohm. To ascertain the mileage *resistance of any wire*, divide the "weight per mile-ohm" by the weight of wire per mile. Thus in a grade of Extra Best Best, of which the weight mile-ohm is 5000, the mileage resistance of No. 6 (weight per mile 935) would be about $9\frac{1}{2}$ ohms; and No. 14 steel wire, 6500 lbs. weight per ohm (95 lbs. weight per mile), would show about 69 ohms.

Uses of Wire used in Telegraph and Telephone Lines.

4. Has not been much used until recently; is now used on important where the multiplex systems are applied.

5. Little used in the United States.

6. Used for important circuits between cities.

8. Medium size for circuits of 400 miles or less.

9. For similar locations to No. 8, but on somewhat shorter circuits; lately was the size most largely used in this country.

10, 11. For shorter circuits, railway telegraphs, private lines, police fire-alarm lines, etc.

12. For telephone lines, police and fire-alarm lines, etc.

13, 14. For telephone lines and short private lines: steel wire is used generally in these sizes.

The coating of telegraph wire with zinc as a protection against oxidation is generally admitted to be the most efficacious method.

The grades of line wire are generally known to the trade as "Extra Best" (E. B. B.), "Best Best" (B. B.), and "Steel."

Extra Best Best" is made of the very best iron, as nearly pure as any commercial iron, soft, tough, uniform, and of very high conductivity, its weight per mile-ohm being about 5000 lbs.

The "Best Best" is of iron, showing in mechanical tests almost as good results as the E. B. B., but not quite as good, and being somewhat lower in ductivity; weight per mile-ohm about 5700 lbs.

The Trenton "Steel" wire is well suited for telephone or short telegraph lines, and the weight per mile-ohm is about 6500 lbs.

The following are (approximately) the weights per mile of various sizes of galvanized telegraph wire, drawn by Trenton Iron Co.'s gauge:

No.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.
Lbs.	720.	610.	525.	450.	373.	310.	250.	200.	160.	125.	95.

TESTS OF TELEGRAPH WIRE.

The following data are taken from a table given by Mr. Prescott relating to tests of E. B. B. galvanized wire furnished the Western Union Telegraph Co.

Size of Wire.	Diam. Parts of One Inch.	Weight.		Length. Feet per pound.	Resistance. Temp. 75.8° Fahr.		Ratio of Breaking Weight to Weight per mile.
		Grains per foot.	Pounds per mile.		Feet per ohm.	Ohms per mile.	
5	.220	891.3	673.0	7.85	727	7.26	
6	.203	758.9	573.2	9.20	618	8.54	3.05
7	.180	596.7	449.9	11.70	578	10.86	3.40
8	.165	501.4	378.1	14.00	409	12.92	3.07
9	.148	403.4	304.2	17.4	328	16.10	3.38
10	.134	330.7	249.4	21.3	269	19.60	3.37
11	.120	265.2	200.0	26.4	216	24.42	2.97
12	.109	218.8	165.0	32.0	179	29.60	3.43
14	.083	136.9	95.7	55.2	104	51.00	3.05

JOINTS IN TELEGRAPH WIRES.—The fewer the joints in a line the better. All joints should be carefully made and well soldered over, for a bad joint may cause as much *resistance to the electric current* as several miles of wire.

TABLE OF DIMENSIONS, WEIGHT, AND RESISTANCE OF COPPER WIRE.
(Birmingham Gauge.)

Gauge Number.	Diameter, Inc'.	Sectional Area in Circular Mills. = diam's.	Weight.		Length.		Resistance.		Gauge Number.
			Lbs. per Foot.	Lbs. per Ohm.	Feet per Lb.	Feet per Ohm.	Ohms per Lb.	Ohms per Foot.	
0000	.454	994116	.839265	18486.73	1.0627	19966.55	.00009027	.000050684	0000
000	.425	189625	.643710	6256.59	2.3873	13088.15	.00014350	.00007132	000
0	.38	144400	.437107	3256.59	3.4973	11198.17	.00023698	.0000863	00
1	.34	346928	.297836	3918.60	3.6706	8718.3	.00043163	.00014701	1
2	.31	90000	.272435	2375.17	4.0938	7813.15	.00051229	.00013596	2
3	.28	57600	.248184	1738.58	4.5257	7021.15	.00070887	.00016857	3
4	.25	67084	.223984	1490.82	5.832	5487.11	.00106857	.00023795	4
5	.23	50644	.171665	940.894	6.8255	4688.51	.00145245	.00030059	5
6	.20	48400	.14651	688.494	8.0165	3989.28	.00200099	.000318615	6
7	.18	41200	.129743	497.631	10.1962	3138.59	.00284866	.000391978	7
8	.165	37205	.089416	917.258	13.1962	2400.13	.00404113	.000500000	8
9	.148	27295	.066305	140.754	15.0818	2123.82	.00567191	.000671013	9
10	.134	17956	.045354	94.5483	18.3979	1739.4	.0105772	.0015445	10
11	.12	14400	.04359	60.895	22.941	1394.58	.012445	.0019445	11
12	.109	11500	.03486	46.806	26.8096	1159.91	.0231596	.00281596	12
13	.095	9625	.027219	35.8857	32.565	974.84	.0318354	.0038354	13
14	.083	6889	.020553	14.9849	47.9547	697.333	.0718696	.0109194	14
15	.072	5184	.015692	7.88612	65.7267	502.21	.139062	.019106	15
16	.065	4225	.013789	5.23433	78.1922	409.276	.19106	.0244534	16
17	.059	3400	.011669	3.65322	92.532	325.87	.26144	.030987	17
18	.054	2901	.007268	3.0445	127.252	255.55	.39144	.040456	18
19	.05	2225	.005340	.912492	187.266	170.879	1.0949	.061591	19
20	.048	1924	.003708	.44013	269.687	118.066	3.27366	.084237	20
21	.045	1649	.003099	.307405	322.585	99.105	3.25304	.104087	21
22	.0425	1425	.002493	.211549	424.507	75.948	5.54876	.161617	22
23	.04	1225	.001989	.151519	547.507	63.883	14.5589	.240578	23
24	.0375	1025	.001465	.0668687	683.594	49.885	32.4885	.365878	24
25	.035	825	.001111	.046924	825.764	38.748	31.5111	.5318615	25
26	.0325	625	.000807	.039786	1019.68	31.386	32.4885	.7403246	26
27	.03	425	.000687	.032165	1290.489	24.7987	52.0589	.9403246	27
28	.0275	225	.000515	.024865	1690.816	18.8816	82.573	.029968	28
29	.025	196	.000316	.00837544	1954.622	16.371	119.591	.017688	29
30	.023	144	.0002329	.00619055	2294.104	13.949	164.46	.011688	30
31	.021	100	.0001697	.00432965	3205.40	9.687	241.604	.00801	31

HARD-DRAWN COPPER TELEGRAPH WIRE.

(J. A. Roebling's Sons Co.)

ished in half-mile coils, either bare or insulated.

B. & S. Gauge.	Resistance in Ohms per Mile.	Breaking Strength.	Weight per Mile.	Approximate Size of E. R. B. Iron Wire equal to Copper.
	4.30	625	209	2
	5.40	525	166	3
	6.90	430	131	4
	8.70	330	104	6
	10.90	270	83	6 1/2
	13.70	213	66	8
	17.40	170	52	9
	22.10	130	41	10

Iron-wire Gauge

handling this wire the greatest care should be observed to avoid kinks, scratches, or cuts. Joints should be made only with McIntire Con-

s. account of its conductivity being about five times that of Ex. B. B. wire, and its breaking strength over three times its weight per mile. It may be used of which the section is smaller and the weight less than an equal iron wire, allowing a greater number of wires to be strung on poles.

Without this advantage, the reduction of section materially decreases the static capacity, while its non-magnetic character lessens the self-induction of the line, both of which features tend to increase the possibility of signalling in telegraphing, and to give greater clearness of enunciation in telephone lines, especially those of great length.

INSULATED COPPER WIRES.

Weight per 1000 feet.

Weather-proof Line Wire.	Under-writers' Line Wire.	B. & S. Gauge.	Weather-proof Line Wire.	Under-writers' Line Wire.	B. & S. Gauge.	Weather-proof Line Wire.	Under-writers' Line Wire.
671.	701.	5	115.	121.	13	26.	26.5
537.	565.	6	98.	99.	14	20.5	22.
426.	447.	7	77.	80.	15	17.	20.
342.	364.	8	64.	67.	16	14.	15.
274.	294.	9	53.	54.	17	12.	13.
220.	241.	10	44.	45.	18	10.75	11.
178.	185.	11	37.	37.	19	9.	10.
141.	147.	12	30.	31.	20	7.5	8.

D-ENCASED ANTI-INDUCTION TELEPHONE AND TELEGRAPH CABLES. (Roebling's.)

FOR METALLIC CIRCUIT.		FOR TELEGRAPH CIRCUITS.	
Size Wire B. & S. Gauge.	No. of Pairs.	Size Wire B. & S. Gauge.	No. of Wires.
18	5	18	3
18	15	18	4
18	25	18	7
18	50	18	10
18	75	18	20
			50
			100

FLEXIBLE CABLES.

Area Circ. Mils.	No. of Wires.	Size Wire B. & S. Gauge.	Approximate Size of Equivalent Solid Wire.	Area Circ. Mils.	No. of Wires.	Size Wire B. & S. Gauge.	Diameter of Solid Wires, Mils.
15699.6	49	25	8 B. & S.	273410.6	133	17	522.
24963.0	49	23	6	433154.4	133	15	638.
39698.9	49	21	4	688727.2	133	13	830.
63116.9	49	19	2	868476.7	133	12	932.
				1095135.3	133	11	1046.
				210964.6	108	17	459.
				430127.2	129	15	649.
				657656.8	127	13	811.
				835827.2	128	12	914.
				1062198.9	129	11	1035.

WEATHERPROOF AERIAL CABLES.

No. of Conductors.	Weight per Conductor per 1000 feet.	No. of Conductors.	Weight per Conductor per 1000 feet.	No. of Conductors.	Weight per Conductor per 1000 feet.
1	10.75 lbs.	8	9.25 lbs.	15	9.25 lbs.
2	18.00 "	9	9.25 "	16	9.25 "
3	13.00 "	10	9.25 "	17	9.25 "
4	10.75 "	11	9.25 "	18	9.25 "
5	10.00 "	12	9.25 "	19	9.25 "
6	9.50 "	13	9.25 "	20	9.25 "
7	9.25 "	14	9.25 "		

LEAD-ENCASED ELECTRIC-LIGHT CABLES.

Single Wires.

(J. A. Roebling's Sons Co.)

Size, B. & S. Gauge.	Diameter of Solid Copper Wire, Mils.	Area, Circular Mils.	Nearest Approximate Birmingham Wire-gauge No.	Approximate Weight per Foot of Cable, Oz.	Approximate Diameter of Cable, Mils.
20	31.96	1021.	21	1.63	179
19	35.39	1252.	20	1.70	175
18	40.90	1634.	19	1.75	180
17	45.95	2048.	18 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.84	185
16	50.82	2583.	18	2.00	245
15	57.07	3257.	17	2.20	250
14	64.08	4107.	16	2.38	255
13	71.96	5178.	15	2.56	265
12	80.80	6530.	14	3.00	310
11	90.74	8234.	13 $\frac{1}{2}$	3.23	320
10	101.89	10381.	13 $\frac{1}{4}$	3.68	335
9	114.23	13094.	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	5.95	345
8	128.49	16509.	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	6.35	360
7	144.28	20816.	9	6.90	375

As tested by the Bell Telephone Co. of Philadelphia, the insulation was be stated at 2000 megohms per mile, with an electrostatic capacity of microfarad,

GALVANIZED STEEL-WIRE STRAND.**For Smokestack Guys, Signal Strand, etc.**

(J. A. Roebling's Sons Co.)

strand is composed of 7 wires, twisted together into a single strand.

Diameter.		Weight per 100 Feet.	Estimated Breaking Strength.	7 Wires.	Diameter.		Weight per 100 Feet.	Estimated Breaking Strength.
in.	lbs.	lbs.		No. 15	in.	lbs.	lbs.	
$\frac{3}{4}$	53	8,330		$\frac{3}{4}$	10	1,600		
15-32	42	6,720		16	7-32	8	1,280	
7-16	36	5,720		17	3-16	6	960	
$\frac{5}{8}$	29	4,640		18	11-64	4 3-10	688	
5-16	21	3,360		19	9-64	3 3-10	528	
9-32	16	2,560		20	$\frac{1}{8}$	2 4-10	384	
17-64	12	1,920		21	3-32	2	320	

For special purposes these strands can be made of 50 to 100 per cent of tensile strength. When used to run over sheaves or pulleys the use of iron stock is advisable.

FLEXIBLE STEEL-WIRE CABLES FOR VESSELS.

(Trenton Iron Co., 1886.)

On account of the numerous disadvantages, the system of working ships' anchors with chain cables is still in vogue. A heavy chain cable contributes to the holderness of the anchor, and the facility of increasing that resistance by pulling out the cable is prized as an advantage. The requisite holding-power is obtained, however, by the combined action of a comparatively light anchor and a correspondingly great mass of chain of little service in relation to its weight or to the weight of the anchor. If the weight and holding-power of the anchor were increased so as to give the greatest holding-power, and if it were attached by means of a light wire cable, the combined holding-power of the cable and anchor would be much less than the total weight of the anchor and chain. The facility of handling would be much greater. Shipbuilders have taken the initiative in this direction, and many of the largest and most serviceable vessels afloat are fitted with steel-wire anchors. They have given complete satisfaction.

Trenton Iron Co.'s cables are made of crucible cast-steel wire, and are fitted to fulfill Lloyd's requirements. They are composed of 72 wires twisted into six strands of twelve wires each. In order to obtain great flexibility, hempen centres are introduced in the strands as well as in the steel cable.

FLEXIBLE STEEL-WIRE HAWSERS.

Steel hawsers are extensively used. They are made with six strands of steel-wire each, hempen centres being inserted in the individual strands as well as in the completed rope. The material employed is crucible cast steel, and is guaranteed to fulfill Lloyd's requirements. They are only used for the weight of hempen hawsers; and are sufficiently pliable to work any bits to which hempen rope of equivalent strength can be applied. A white tarred Russian hemp hawser weighs about 30 lbs. per fathom. A white manila hawser weighs about 20 lbs. per fathom. A steel chain weighs about 10 lbs. per fathom.

A galvanized steel hawser weighs about 12 lbs. per fathom. Any of the above named has about the same tensile strength.

SPECIFICATIONS FOR GALVANIZED IRON WIRE
Issued by the British Postal Telegraph Authorities.

Weight per Mile.			Diameter.			Tests for Strength and Ductility.						
Required Standard.	Allowed.		Required Standard.	Allowed.		Breaking Weight.	No. of Twists in 6 in.		No. of Twists in 6 in.		Resistance per Mile of the Standard Size at 19° Fahr.	
	Minimum.	Maximum.		Minimum.	Maximum.		Minimum.	Maximum.	For Breaking Weight not less than—	For Breaking Weight not less than—		
lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	mils.	mils.	mils.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	ohms.		
800	767	833	242	237	247	2480	15	2550	14	2620	13	6.75
600	571	629	209	204	214	1860	17	1910	16	1960	15	9.00
450	424	477	181	176	186	1390	19	1425	18	1460	17	12.00
400	377	424	171	166	176	1240	21	1270	20	1300	19	13.50
200	190	213	121	118	125	620	30	638	28	655	26	27.00

STRENGTH OF PIANO-WIRE.

The average strength of English piano-wire is given as follows by West, Horsfalls & Lea:

Numbers in Music-wire Gauge.	Equivalents in Fractions of Inches in Diameters.	Ultimate Tensile Strength in Pounds.	Numbers in Music-wire Gauge.	Equivalents in Fractions of inches in Diameters.	Ultimate Tensile Strength in Pounds.
12	.029	225	18	.041	365
13	.031	250	19	.043	425
14	.033	285	20	.045	500
15	.035	305	21	.047	580
16	.037	340	22	.052	650
17	.039	360			

These strengths range from 300,000 to 340,000 lbs. per sq. in. The composition of this wire is as follows: Carbon, 0.570; silicon, 0.090; sulphur, 0.014; phosphorus, 0.018; manganese, 0.425.

"PLOUGH"-STEEL WIRE.

The term "plough," given in England to steel wire of high quality, is derived from the fact that such wire is used for the construction of mould-boards for ploughing purposes. It is to be hoped that the term will not be used in this country, as it tends to confusion of terms. Plough-steel, known here in some steel-works as the quality of plate steel used for the mould-boards of ploughs, for which a very ordinary grade is good enough.

Experiments by Dr. Percy on the English plough-steel (so-called) gave the following results: Specific gravity, 7.814; carbon, 0.828 per cent; manganese, 0.587 per cent; silicon, 0.143 per cent; sulphur, 0.009 per cent; phosphorus, nil; copper, 0.030 per cent. No traces of chromium, titanium, tungsten were found. The breaking strains of the wire were as follows:

Diameter, inch093	.132	.159	.191
Force, lbs.	314,960	257,600	224,000	201,600

and elongation, respectively, vary from 0.75 to 1.1 per cent.

TYPES OF DIFFERENT METALS AND ALLOYS.

(J. Bucknall Smith's Treatise on Wire.)

Wire is commonly composed of an alloy of 1 3/4 to 2 parts of copper and 1 part of zinc. The tensile strength ranges from 20 to 40 tons per square inch, increasing with the percentage of zinc in the alloy.

Copper or Nickel Silver, an alloy of copper, zinc, and nickel, is commonly used for brass whitened by the addition of nickel. It has been drawn into wire as fine as .002" diam.

Iron wire may be drawn into the finest sizes. On account of its ductility its use is practically confined to special scientific instruments and appliances in which resistances to high temperature, oxygen, and corrosion are essential. It expands less than other metals when heated, which permits its being sealed in glass without fear of cracking. It is used in incandescent electric lamps.

Iron-bronze Wire contains from 2 to 6 per cent of tin and from 1/8 per cent of phosphorus. The presence of phosphorus is essential to electric conductivity.

Aluminum-metal wire is made from an alloy of copper, iron, and zinc. The tensile strength ranges from 45 to 62 tons per square inch. It is used for some types of wire gauze, also for wire rope. It is not subject to deposits of verdigris, has great toughness, even when its tensile strength is over 60 tons per square inch.

Aluminum Wire.— Specific gravity .268. Tensile strength only 1/2 ton per square inch. It has been drawn as fine as 11,400 yards to the pound or .042 grains per yard.

Aluminum Bronze, 90 copper, 10 aluminum, has high strength and is inoxidizable, sonorous. Its electric conductivity is 12.6 per cent of pure copper.

Silicon Bronze, patented in 1882 by L. Weiler of Paris, is made as an alloy of potash, pounded glass, chlorid of sodium and carbonate of soda and lime, are heated in a plumbago crucible, and the reaction takes place the contents are thrown into the molten metal to be treated. Silicon-bronze wire has a conductivity of from 40 to 60 per cent of that of copper wire and four times more than that of iron. Its tensile strength is nearly that of steel, or 28 to 55 tons per square inch. The conductivity decreases as the tensile strength increases. Wire whose conductivity equals 45 per cent of that of pure copper has a tensile strength of 28 tons per square inch, but when its conductivity is only 25 per cent of pure copper, its strength is 50 tons per square inch. It is especially used for telegraph wires. It has great resistance to oxidation.

Hard Drawn and Annealed Copper Wire has a strength of from 20 to 30 tons per square inch.

SPECIFICATIONS FOR HARD-DRAWN COPPER WIRE.

The Post Office authorities require that hard-drawn copper wire should be of the lengths, sizes, weights, strengths, and consistencies as set forth in the annexed table.

Per Statute Mile.		Approximate Equivalent Diameter.			Minimum Breaking Weight.	Minimum No. of Twists in 3 Inches.	Maximum Resistance per Mile of Wire (when hard) at 60° Fahr.	Minimum Weight of each Piece (or Coil) of Wire.
Minimum.	Maximum.	Standard.	Minimum.	Maximum.				
20	37 1/2	mils.	mils.	mils.	lbs.	30	ohms.	lbs.
25	40 1/2	79	78	80	330	30	9.10	50
30	43 1/2	97	95 1/2	98	490	25	6.05	50
35	46 1/2	112	110 1/2	112 1/2	650	20	4.53	50
40	49 1/2	128	125 1/2	126 1/2	1300	10	2.27	50

WIRE ROPES.

List adopted by manufacturers in 1892. See pamphlets of The Co., John A. Roebling's Sons Co., and other makers.

Pliable Hoisting Rope.

With 6 strands of 19 wires each.

IRON.

Trade Number.	Diameter.	Circumference in inches.	Weight per foot in pounds. Rope with Hemp Centre.	Breaking Strain, tons of 3000 lbs.	Proper Working Load in tons of 3000 lbs.	Circumference of new Manila Rope of equal Strength.
1	2¼	6¾	8.00	74	15	14
2	2	6	6.30	65	13	13
3	1¾	5½	5.25	54	11	12
4	1½	5	4.10	44	9	11
5	1¼	4¾	3.65	39	8	10
5½	1¾	4¾	3.00	33	6½	9½
6	1½	4	2.50	27	5½	8½
7	1½	3½	2.00	20	4	7½
8	1	3½	1.58	16	3	6½
9	¾	2¾	1.20	11.50	2½	5½
10	¾	2¼	0.88	8.64	1¾	4¾
10¼	¾	2	0.60	5.13	1¼	3¾
10½	9-16	1½	0.44	4.27	¾	3½
10¾	½	1½	0.35	3.48	¾	3
10½	7-16	1¾	0.29	3.00	¾	2¾
10¾	¾	1¾	0.26	2.50	¾	2½

CAST STEEL.

1	2¼	6¾	8.00	155	31	15
2	2	6	6.30	125	25
3	1¾	5½	5.25	106	21
4	1½	5	4.10	86	17
5	1¼	4¾	3.65	77	15	14
5½	1¾	4¾	3.00	63	12	13
6	1½	4	2.50	52	10	12
7	1½	3½	2.00	42	8	11
8	1	3½	1.58	33	6	9½
9	¾	2¾	1.20	25	5	8½
10	¾	2¼	0.88	18	3½	7
10¼	¾	2	0.60	12	2½	5¾
10½	9-16	1½	0.44	9	1½	5
10¾	½	1½	0.35	7	1	4½
10½	7-16	1¾	0.29	5½	¾	3¾
10¾	¾	1¾	0.26	4½	¾	3½

Cable-Traction Ropes.

According to English practice, cable-traction ropes, of about 3½ circumference, are commonly constructed with six strands of seven teen wires, the lays in the strands varying from, say, 3 in. to 3½ in., the lays in the ropes from, say, 7½ in. to 9 in. In the United States, the strands of nineteen wires are generally preferred as being more pliable, but, on the other hand, the smaller external wires wear out more rapidly. The Market Street Street Railway Company, San Francisco, has used 1¼ in. in diameter, composed of six strands of nineteen steel wires, weighing 2½ lbs. per foot, the longest continuous length being 21,125 ft. The City and County of New York has employed cables of identical construction, 1½ in. in diameter, 7,700 ft. On the New York and Brooklyn Bridge, cables of 1½ in. diameter, 1,500 ft. long, containing 114 wires, have been used.

Transmission and Standing Rope.

With 6 strands of 7 wires each.

IRON.

Diameter.	Circumference.	Weight per foot in pounds of Rope with Hemp Centre.	Breaking Strain in tons of 3000 lbs	Proper Working Load in tons of 2000 lbs.	Circumference of new Manila Rope of equal Strength.	Min Size of Drum or Sheave in feet.
1 1/8	45 5/8	3.37	36	9	10	13
1 1/8	41 1/4	2.77	30	7 1/2	9	12
1 1/4	39 3/4	2.35	25	6 1/4	8 1/2	10 3/4
1 1/4	35 5/8	1.82	20	5 1/4	7 1/2	9 1/4
1	3	1.50	16	4	6 1/2	8 1/2
7/8	25 5/8	1.12	12.3	3	5 1/4	7 1/2
3/4	23 5/8	0.88	8.8	2 1/4	4 3/4	6 3/4
11-16	21 5/8	0.70	7.6	2	4 1/2	6
5/8	17 5/8	0.57	5.8	1 1/2	4	5 1/4
9-10	15 5/8	0.41	4.1	1	3 1/4	4 1/2
1/2	13 5/8	0.31	2.83	3/4	2 3/4	4
7-16	11 1/4	0.23	2.13	1/2	2 1/2	3 1/4
3/8	11 5/8	0.19	1.65	2 1/4	2 3/4
5-16	1	0.16	1.38	2	2 1/2
9-32	7/8	0.125	1.03	1 3/4	2 1/4

CAST STEEL.

1 1/8	45 5/8	3.37	62	13	13	8 1/2
1 1/8	41 1/4	2.77	52	10	12	8
1 1/4	39 3/4	2.35	44	9	11	7 1/4
1 1/4	35 5/8	1.82	36	7 1/2	10	6 3/4
1	3	1.50	30	6	9	5 3/4
7/8	25 5/8	1.12	22	4 1/2	8	5
3/4	23 5/8	0.88	17	3 1/2	7	4 1/2
11-16	21 5/8	0.70	14	3	6	4
5/8	17 5/8	0.57	11	2 1/4	5 1/2	3 1/2
9-10	15 5/8	0.41	8	1 3/4	4 3/4	3
1/2	13 5/8	0.31	6	1 1/2	4	2 1/2
7-16	11 1/4	0.23	4 1/2	1 1/4	3 1/2	2 1/4
3/8	11 5/8	0.19	4	1	3 1/4	2
5-16	1	0.16	3	3/4	2 3/4	1 3/4
9-32	7/8	0.12	2	1/2	2 1/4	1 1/2

Plough-Steel Rope.

These ropes of very high tensile strength, which are ordinarily called "Cast-Steel Ropes," are made of a high grade of crucible steel, which, put in the form of wire, will bear a strain of from 100 to 150 tons per square inch.

When it is necessary to use very long or very heavy ropes, a reduction of the weight of ropes becomes a matter of serious consideration.

It is advisable to reduce all bends to a minimum, and to use somewhat larger drums or sheaves than are suitable for an ordinary crucible rope. The strength of 80 to 80 tons per square inch. Before using Plough-Steel Ropes, it is best to have advice on the subject of adaptability.

Plough-Steel Rope.

With 6 strands of 19 wires each.

Trade Number.	Diameter in inches.	Weight per foot in pounds.	Breaking Strain in tons of 2000 lbs.	Proper Working Load.	Min. Dra She ft
1	2 $\frac{1}{4}$	8.00	240	46	
2	2	6.30	189	37	
3	1 $\frac{3}{4}$	5.25	157	31	
4	1 $\frac{5}{8}$	4.10	123	25	
5	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	3.65	110	22	
5 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 $\frac{3}{8}$	3.00	90	18	
6	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	2.50	75	15	
7	1 $\frac{1}{8}$	2.00	60	12	
8	1	1.58	47	9	
9	$\frac{7}{8}$	1.30	37	7	
10	$\frac{3}{4}$	0.88	27	5	
10 $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{5}{8}$	0.60	18	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	
10 $\frac{3}{4}$	9-16	0.44	13	2	
10 $\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{3}{8}$	0.35	10	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	

With 7 Wires to the Strand.

15	1	1.50	45	9	
16	$\frac{7}{8}$	1.12	33	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	
17	$\frac{3}{4}$	0.88	25	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	
18	11-16	0.70	21	4	
19	$\frac{5}{8}$	0.57	16	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	
20	9-16	0.41	12	2	
21	$\frac{1}{2}$	0.31	9	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	
22	7-16	0.23	5	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	
23	$\frac{3}{8}$	0.19	4	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	

Galvanized Iron Wire Rope.

For Ships' Rigging and Guys for Derricks.

CHARCOAL ROPE.

Circumference in inches.	Weight per Fathom in pounds.	Clr. of new Manila Rope of equal Strength.	Breaking Strain in tons of 2000 pounds	Circumference in inches	Weight per Fathom in pounds.	Clr. of new Manila Rope of equal Strength.
5 $\frac{1}{2}$	26 $\frac{1}{2}$	11	43	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	5
5 $\frac{1}{4}$	24 $\frac{1}{2}$	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	40	2 $\frac{1}{4}$	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 $\frac{1}{2}$
5	23	10	35	2	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 $\frac{1}{2}$
4 $\frac{3}{4}$	21	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	33	1 $\frac{3}{4}$	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$
4 $\frac{1}{2}$	19	9	30	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	2	3
4 $\frac{1}{4}$	16 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	26	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	1 $\frac{3}{4}$	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
4	14 $\frac{1}{2}$	8	23	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	1 $\frac{3}{4}$	2 $\frac{1}{2}$
3 $\frac{3}{4}$	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	20	1	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	2 $\frac{1}{4}$
3 $\frac{1}{2}$	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	16	$\frac{7}{8}$	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	1 $\frac{3}{4}$
3 $\frac{1}{4}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	6	14	$\frac{5}{8}$	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	1 $\frac{1}{4}$
3	8	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	12	$\frac{3}{8}$	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	1 $\frac{1}{4}$
2 $\frac{3}{4}$		5 $\frac{1}{4}$	10	$\frac{1}{2}$	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	1 $\frac{1}{4}$

Galvanized Cast-steel Yacht Rigging.

Circumference in inches.	Weight per Fathom in pounds.	Cir. of new Manila Rope of equal Strength.	Breaking Strain in tons of 2000 pounds	Circumference in inches	Weight per Fathom in pounds.	Cir. of new Manila Rope of equal Strength.	Breaking Strain in tons of 2000 pounds
1 1/2	14 1/4	13	66	2	3 1/2	6 1/2	14
2	19 1/4	11	43	2 1/4	2 1/2	5 1/4	10
2 1/2	8	9 1/2	32	1 1/2	2	4 3/4	8
3	6 1/4	8 1/2	27	1 3/8	1 7/8	4 1/4	6 1/2
3 1/2	5 1/2	8	22	1 1/4	1 3/4	3 3/4	5 1/2
4	4 1/2	7	18	1	1 1/2	3	3 1/2

Steel Hawasers.

For Mooring, Sea, and Lake Towing.

Circumference.	Breaking Strength.	Size of Manila Hawaser of equal Strength.	Circumference.	Breaking Strength.	Size of Manila Hawaser of equal Strength.
1 1/2	Tons. 15	Inches. 6 1/2	3 1/2	Tons. 29	Inches. 9
2	18	7	4	35	10
2 1/2	22	8 1/2			

Steel Flat Ropes.

(J. A. Roebling's Sons Co.)

Steel-wire Flat Ropes are composed of a number of strands, alternately laid to the right and left, laid alongside of each other, and sewed together with soft iron wires. These ropes are used at times in place of round ropes in the shafts of mines. They wind upon themselves on a narrow winding drum, which takes up less room than one necessary for a round rope. The soft iron sewing-wires wear out sooner than the steel strands, and then it becomes necessary to sew the rope with new iron wires.

Thickness in inches.	Weight per foot in pounds.	Strength in pounds.	Width and Thickness in inches.	Weight per foot in pounds.	Strength in pounds.
1/2	1.19	35,700	1 1/2 x 3	2.38	71,400
3/4	1.86	55,800	1 3/4 x 3 1/2	2.97	89,000
1	2.00	60,000	1 3/4 x 4	3.30	99,000
1 1/4	2.50	75,000	1 3/4 x 4 1/2	4.00	120,000
1 1/2	2.86	85,400	1 3/4 x 5	4.27	128,000
1 3/4	3.12	93,600	1 3/4 x 5 1/2	4.82	144,800
2	3.40	100,000	1 3/4 x 6	5.10	153,000
2 1/2	3.90	110,000	1 3/4 x 7	5.90	177,000

A safe working load allow from one fifth to one seventh of the breaking strength.

"Lang Lay" Rope.

In a rope, as ordinarily made, the component strands are laid up into a direction opposite to that in which the wires are laid into strands; that is, if the wires in the strands are laid from right to left, the strands are laid from left to right. In the "Lang Lay," sometimes known as "Reversal Lay," the wires are laid into strands and the strands into rope in the same direction; that is, if the wire is laid in the strands from right to left, the strands are also laid into rope from right to left. Its use has been found desirable under certain conditions and for certain purposes, mostly in inclined planes, and street railway cables, although it is also used for vertical hoists in mines, etc. Its advantages are that

GALVANIZED STEEL CABLES.

For Suspension Bridges. (Roebling's.)

Diameter in inches.	Ultimate Strength in tons of 2000 pounds.	Weight per foot.	Diameter in inches.	Ultimate Strength in tons of 2000 pounds.	Weight per foot.	Diameter in inches.	Ultimate Strength in tons of 2000 pounds.
$\frac{25}{8}$	220	13	$\frac{23}{4}$	155	8.64	$\frac{13}{4}$	95
$\frac{23}{8}$	200	11.3	$\frac{21}{4}$	110	6.5	$\frac{11}{4}$	55
$\frac{21}{8}$	180	10	$\frac{17}{8}$	100	5.8	$\frac{11}{8}$	65

COMPARATIVE STRENGTHS OF FLEXIBLE GALVANIZED STEEL-WIRE HAWSERS,

With Chain Cable, Tarred Russian Hemp, and Manila Ropes. (Trenton Iron Co.)

Patent Flexible Steel-wire Hawsers and Cables.				Chain Cable.			Tarred Russian Hemp Rope.			V	M
Size, Circumference.	Weight per Fathom.	Guaranteed Breaking Strain.	Diameter of Barrel or Sheave round which it may be worked.	Size.	Weight per Fathom.	Proof Strain.	Breaking Strain.	Size.	Weight per Fathom.	Breaking Strain.	Size.
1	$\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{13}{4}$	6	$\frac{1}{2}$	14	$\frac{1}{2}$	6	$\frac{23}{8}$	3	11	$\frac{3}{4}$
$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{21}{4}$	$\frac{7}{16}$					$\frac{31}{4}$	3	$\frac{21}{4}$	$\frac{3}{8}$
$\frac{11}{16}$	$\frac{13}{16}$	4	9					4	$\frac{31}{4}$	$\frac{21}{4}$	$\frac{3}{8}$
$\frac{13}{16}$	$\frac{15}{16}$	$\frac{5}{8}$	$\frac{103}{16}$	9-16	17	$\frac{5}{16}$	$\frac{7}{16}$	5	6	5	$\frac{3}{8}$
$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{33}{16}$	7	12					6	8	6	$\frac{3}{8}$
$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{33}{8}$	9	$\frac{131}{8}$	10-16	21	7	$\frac{9}{16}$	7	9	7	$\frac{3}{8}$
$\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{41}{8}$	12	15					8	10	8	$\frac{3}{8}$
$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{41}{4}$	15	$\frac{161}{4}$	11-16	25	$\frac{81}{16}$	$\frac{123}{16}$	9	13	$\frac{111}{16}$	$\frac{1}{2}$
$\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{51}{8}$	18	18	12-16	30	$\frac{101}{16}$	$\frac{151}{16}$	10	16	14	$\frac{1}{2}$
$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{51}{4}$	22	$\frac{191}{4}$	13-16	35	$\frac{113}{16}$	$\frac{171}{16}$	11	19	$\frac{161}{16}$	$\frac{1}{2}$
$\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{51}{2}$	27	21	15-16	45	$\frac{151}{16}$	$\frac{231}{16}$	12	23	$\frac{201}{16}$	$\frac{1}{2}$
4	12	31	24	1	54	18	27	13	28	$\frac{241}{16}$	$\frac{1}{2}$
$\frac{1}{2}$	15	30	27	$\frac{1}{2}$	68	$\frac{223}{16}$	34	14	33	29	10
$\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{231}{16}$	64	30	1	17-32	112	$\frac{371}{16}$	15	39	34	11
$\frac{1}{2}$	23	74	33	$\frac{1}{2}$	143	$\frac{471}{16}$	60	17	56	50	12
6	33	88	36	$\frac{1}{2}$	166	$\frac{551}{16}$	77	19	67	60	12
$\frac{3}{4}$	37	102	39	1	15-16	204	$\frac{671}{16}$	21	84	72	15
$\frac{1}{2}$	41	116	42	$\frac{1}{2}$	1-16	231	$\frac{761}{16}$	23	106	96	16
$\frac{3}{4}$	47	130	45	$\frac{1}{2}$	3-16	256	$\frac{861}{16}$	24	131	115	18
8	53	150	48	$\frac{1}{2}$	5-16	280	$\frac{961}{16}$	25	146	125	20

MAGNESIA BRICKS.

"Foreign Abstracts" of the Institution of Civil Engineers, 1893, gives a paper by G. Bischof on the production of magnesia bricks. The material best in favor at present is the magnesite of Styria, which, although less pure, is considered as a source of magnesia than the Greek, has the property of fritting at a high temperature without melting. The composition of the substances, in the natural and burnt states, is as follows:

	Magnesite.	Styrian.	Greek.
Carbonate of magnesia	90.0 to 96.0%	91.46%	
" " lime	0.5 to 2.0	4.49	
" " iron	3.0 to 6.0	FeO 0.08	
Silica	1.0	0.52	
Manganous oxide	0.5	Water 0.54	
Burnt Magnesite.			
Magnesia	77.6	82.16—95.36	
Lime	7.3	0.83—10.92	
Alumina and ferric oxide	13.0	0.56—3.54	
Silica	1.2	0.73—7.98	

At a red heat magnesium carbonate is decomposed into carbonic acid and caustic magnesia, which resembles lime in becoming hydrated and recarbonated when exposed to the air, and possesses a certain plasticity, so that it can be moulded when subjected to a heavy pressure. By long-continued or stronger heating the material becomes dead-burnt, giving a form of magnesia of high density, sp. gr. 3.8, as compared with 3.0 in the plastic form, which is unalterable in the air but devoid of plasticity. A mixture of two plumes of dead-burnt with one of plastic magnesia can be moulded into bricks which contract but little in firing. Other binding materials that have been used are: clay up to 10 or 15 per cent; gas-tar, perfectly freed from water, soda, silica, vinegar as a solution of magnesium acetate which is readily decomposed by heat, and carbonates of alkalis or lime. Among magnesium compounds a weak solution of magnesium chloride may also be used. For setting the bricks lightly burnt, caustic magnesia, with a small proportion of silica to render it less refractory, is recommended. The strength of the bricks may be increased by adding iron, either as oxide or bicrate. If a porous product is required, sawdust or starch may be added to the mixture. When dead-burnt magnesia is used alone, soda is said to be the best binding material.

See also papers by A. E. Hunt, *Trans. A. I. M. E.*, xvi, 720, and by T. Egleson, *Trans. A. I. M. E.*, xiv, 458.

Asbestos.—J. T. Donald, *Eng. and M. Jour.*, June 27, 1891.

ANALYSIS.

	Canadian.		
	Italian.	Broughton.	Templeton.
Silica	40.30%	40.57%	40.52%
Magnesia	43.37	41.50	42.05
Ferrous oxide	.87	2.81	1.97
Alumina	2.27	.90	2.10
Water	13.72	13.55	13.46
	100.53	99.33	100.10

Chemical analysis throws light upon an important point in connection with asbestos, i.e., the cause of the harshness of the fibre of some varieties. Asbestos is principally a hydrous silicate of magnesia, i.e., silicate of magnesia combined with water. When harsh fibre is analyzed it is found to contain less water than the soft fibre. In fibre of very fine quality from Black Lake analysis showed 14.38% of water, while a harsh-fibred sample gave only 11.78%. If soft fibre be heated to a temperature that will drive off a portion of the combined water, there results a substance so brittle that it may be crumbled between thumb and finger. There is evidently some connection between the consistency of the fibre and the amount of water in its composition.

STRENGTH OF MATERIALS.

Stress and Strain.—There is much confusion among writers on strength of materials as to the definition of these terms. An external force applied to a body, so as to pull it apart, is resisted by an internal force, or resistance, and the action of these forces causes a displacement of the molecules, or deformation. By some writers the external force is called a stress, and the internal force a strain; others call the external force a strain, and the internal force a stress: this confusion of terms is not of importance, as the words stress and strain are quite commonly used synonymously, but the use of the word strain to mean molecular displacement, deformation, or distortion, as is the custom of some, is a corruption of the language. See *Engineering News*, June 23, 1892. Definitions by leading authorities are given below.

Stress.—A stress is a force which acts in the interior of a body, and resists the external forces which tend to change its shape. A deformation is the amount of change of shape of a body caused by the stress. The word strain is often used as synonymous with stress and sometimes it is also used to designate the deformation. (Merriman.)

The force by which the molecules of a body resist a strain at any point is called the stress at that point.

The summation of the displacements of the molecules of a body for a given point is called the distortion or strain at the point considered. (Burr.)

Stresses are the forces which are applied to bodies to bring into action their elastic and cohesive properties. These forces cause alterations of the forms of the bodies upon which they act. *Strain* is a name given to the kind of alteration produced by the stresses. The distinction between stress and strain is not always observed, one being used for the other. (Wood.)

Stresses are of different kinds, viz.: *tensile, compressive, transverse, torsional, and shearing stresses.*

A *tensile stress*, or pull, is a force tending to elongate a piece. A *compressive stress*, or push, is a force tending to shorten it. A *transverse stress* tends to bend it. A *torsional stress* tends to twist it. A *shearing stress* tends to force one part of it to slide over the adjacent part.

Tensile, compressive, and shearing stresses are called simple stresses. Transverse stress is compounded of tensile and compressive stresses, and torsional of tensile and shearing stresses.

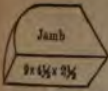
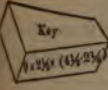
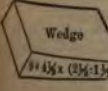
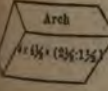
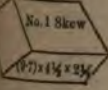
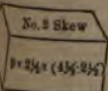
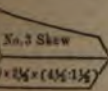
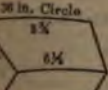

To these five varieties of stresses might be added *tearing stress*, which is either tensile or shearing, but in which the resistance of different portions of the material are brought into play in detail, or one after the other, instead of simultaneously, as in the simple stresses.

Effects of Stresses.—The following general laws for cases of simple tension or compression have been established by experiment. (Merriman.)

1. When a small stress is applied to a body, a small deformation is produced, and on the removal of the stress the body springs back to its original form. For small stresses, then, materials may be regarded as perfectly elastic.
2. Under small stresses the deformations are approximately proportional to the forces or stresses which produce them, and also approximately proportional to the length of the bar or body.
3. When the stress is great enough a deformation is produced which is partly permanent, that is, the body does not spring back entirely to its original form on removal of the stress. This permanent part is termed a set. In such cases the deformations are not proportional to the stress.
4. When the stress is greater still the deformation rapidly increases and the body finally ruptures.
5. A sudden stress, or shock, is more injurious than a steady stress or than a stress gradually applied.

Elastic Limit.—The elastic limit is defined as that point at which the deformations cease to be proportional to the stresses, or, the point at which the rate of stretch (or other deformation) begins to increase. It is also defined as the point at which the first permanent set becomes visible. The last definition is not considered as good as the first, as it is found that with some materials a set occurs with any load, no matter how small, and, with others a set which might be called permanent vanishes with lapse of time, and as it is impossible to get the point of first set without remov-

SIZES OF FIRE-BRICK.

	9-inch straight.....	9 x 4 1/2 x 2 1/2 inches.
	Soap.....	9 x 2 1/4 x 2 1/2 "
	Checker.....	9 x 3 x 3 "
	2-inch.....	9 x 4 1/2 x 2 "
	Split.....	9 x 4 1/2 x 1 1/4 "
	Jamb.....	9 x 4 1/2 x 2 1/2 "
	No. 1 key.....	9 x 2 1/2 thick x 4 1/2 to 4 inches wide.
	No. 2 key.....	113 bricks to circle 12 feet inside diam. 9 x 2 1/2 thick x 4 1/2 to 3 1/2 inches wide.
	No. 3 key.....	63 bricks to circle 6 ft. inside diam. 9 x 2 1/2 thick x 4 1/2 to 5 inches wide.
	No. 4 key.....	88 bricks to circle 3 ft. inside diam. 9 x 2 1/2 thick x 4 1/2 to 2 1/4 inches wide.
	No. 1 wedge (or bullhead). 9 x 4 1/2 wide x 2 1/2 to 2 in. thick, tapering lengthwise.	25 bricks to circle 1 1/2 ft. inside diam.
	No. 2 wedge.....	98 bricks to circle 5 ft. inside diam. 9 x 4 1/2 x 2 1/2 to 1 1/2 in. thick.
	No. 1 arch.....	60 bricks to circle 2 1/4 ft. inside diam. 9 x 4 1/2 x 2 1/2 to 2 in. thick, tapering breadthwise.
	No. 2 arch.....	72 bricks to circle 4 ft. inside diam. 9 x 4 1/2 x 2 1/2 to 1 1/2.
	No. 1 skew.....	42 bricks to circle 2 ft. inside diam. 9 to 7 x 4 1/2 to 2 1/2. Bevel on one end.
	No. 2 skew.....	9 x 2 1/2 x 4 1/2 to 2 1/2. Equal bevel on both edges.
	No. 3 skew.....	9 x 2 1/2 x 4 1/2 to 1 1/2. Taper on one edge.
	24 inch circle.....	8 1/4 to 5 1/2 x 4 1/2 x 2 1/2. Edges curved, 9 bricks line a 24-inch circle.
	36-inch circle.....	8 1/4 to 6 1/2 x 4 1/2 x 2 1/2. 13 bricks line a 36-inch circle.
	48-inch circle.....	8 1/4 to 7 1/4 x 4 1/2 x 2 1/2. 17 bricks line a 48-inch circle.
	13 1/2-inch straight.....	13 1/2 x 2 1/2 x 6.
	13 1/2-inch key No. 1.....	13 1/2 x 2 1/2 x 6 to 5 inch. 90 bricks turn a 12-ft. circle.
	13 1/2-inch key No. 2.....	13 1/2 x 2 1/2 x 6 to 4 3/8 inch. 52 bricks turn a 6-ft. circle.
	Bridge wall, No. 1.....	13 x 6 1/2 x 6.
	Bridge wall, No. 2.....	13 x 6 1/2 x 3.
	Mill tile.....	18, 20, or 24 x 6 x 3.
	Stock-hole tiles.....	18, 20, or 24 x 9 x 4.
	18-inch block.....	18 x 9 x 6.
	Flat back.....	9 x 6 x 2 1/2.
	Flat back arch.....	9 x 6 x 3 1/2 to 2 1/2.
	Locomotive tile.....	22-inch radius, 56 bricks to circle. 32 x 10 x 3. 34 x 10 x 3. 34 x 8 x 3. 36 x 8 x 3. 40 x 10 x 3.

Tiles, slabs, and blocks, various sizes 12 to 30 inches long, 8 to 30 inches wide, 2 to 6 inches thick.

24-inch straight brick weighs 7 lbs. and contains 100 cubic inches. (=130 per cubic foot. Specific gravity 1.93.)

One cubic foot of wall requires 17 9-inch bricks, one cubic yard requires 27 here keys, wedges, and other " shapes " are used, add 10 estimating the number required.

stresses, the coefficient of elasticity is constant, but beyond the elastic it decreases rapidly.

In cast iron there is generally no apparent limit of elasticity, the deflections increasing at a faster rate than the stresses, and a permanent set produced by small loads. The coefficient of elasticity therefore is not constant during any portion of a test, but grows smaller as the load increases. The same is true in the case of timber. In wrought iron and steel, however, there is a well-defined elastic limit, and the coefficient of elasticity up to that limit is nearly constant.

Resilience, or Work of Resistance of a Material.—Up to the elastic limit, the resistance increasing uniformly from zero stress to the stress at the elastic limit, the work done by a load applied gradually is to one half the product of the final stress by the extension or other deflection. Beyond the elastic limit, the extensions increasing more rapidly than the loads, and the strain diagram approximating a parabolic form the work is approximately equal to two thirds the product of the maximum stress by the extension.

The amount of work required to break a bar, measured usually in pounds, is called its resilience; the work required to strain it to the elastic limit is called its elastic resilience.

Under a load applied suddenly the momentary elastic distortion is to be twice that caused by the same load applied gradually.

When a solid material is exposed to percussive stress, as when a weight falls upon a beam transversely, the work of resistance is measured by the product of the weight into the total fall.

Elevation of Ultimate Resistance and Elastic Limit was first observed by Prof. R. H. Thurston, and Commander L. A. Beardslee, U. S. N., independently, in 1873, that if wrought iron be subjected to stress beyond its elastic limit, but not beyond its ultimate resistance then allowed to "rest" for a definite interval of time, a considerable increase of elastic limit and ultimate resistance may be experienced. In other words, the application of stress and subsequent "rest" increases the strength of wrought iron.

This "rest" may be an entire release from stress or a simple holding test-piece at a given intensity of stress.

Commander Beardslee prepared twelve specimens and subjected them to an intensity of stress equal to the ultimate resistance of the material, then breaking the specimens. These were then allowed to rest, entirely free from stress, from 24 to 30 hours, after which period they were again strained until broken. The gain in ultimate resistance by the rest was found to be from 4.4 to 17 per cent.

This elevation of elastic and ultimate resistance appears to be peculiar to iron and steel; it has not been found in other metals.

Relation of the Elastic Limit to Endurance under Repeated Stresses (condensed from *Engineering*, August 7, 1890) When engineers first began to test materials, it was soon recognized that if a specimen was loaded beyond a certain point it did not recover its original dimensions on removing the load, but took a permanent set; this was called the elastic limit. Since below this point a bar appeared to recover completely its original form and dimensions on removing the load, it was presumed that it had not been injured by the load, and hence the safe working load might be deduced from the elastic limit by using a small factor of safety.

Experience showed, however, that in many cases a bar would not safely support a stress anywhere near the elastic limit of the material as determined by these experiments, and the whole theory of any connection between the elastic limit of a bar and its working load became almost discarded. Engineers employed the ultimate strength only in deducing the safe working load to which their structures might be subjected. Still, as experience multiplied it was observed that a higher factor of safety was required for a live load than for a dead one.

In 1871 Wöhler published the results of a number of experiments on iron and steel subjected to live loads. In these experiments the specimens were put on and removed from the specimens without impact, but nevertheless, found that the breaking stress of the materials was in some cases much below the statical breaking load. Thus, a bar of Krupp's steel having a tenacity of 49 tons per square inch broke with a stress of 24 tons per square inch, when the load was completely removed and replaced without impact three times. These experiments were made on a

rent brands of iron and steel, and the results were con-
 that a bar would break with an alternating stress of only
 e statical breaking strength of the material, if the repetitions
 sufficiently numerous. At the same time, however, it ap-
 general trend of the experiments that a bar would stand an
 er of alternations of stress, provided the stress was kept

nger defines the elastic limit as the point at which stress
 sibly proportional to strain, the latter being measured with
 atus reading to $\frac{1}{5000}$ th of a millimetre, or about $\frac{1}{10000}$ in.

ays below the yield-point, and may on occasion be zero. On
 ve the yield-point, this point rises with the stress, and the
 or weeks, months, and possibly for years if the bar is left at
 ad. On the other hand, when a bar is loaded beyond its true
 t below its yield-point, this limit rises, but reaches a maxi-
 id-point, is approached, and then falls rapidly, reaching even
 aving the bar at rest under a stress exceeding that of its
 ug-down point the elastic limit begins to rise again, and
 icient time, rise to a point much exceeding its previous

of the elastic limit of changing with the history of a bar has
 eredit it than anything else, nevertheless it now seems as if
 very property, were once more to take its former place in
 f engineers, and this time with fixity of tenure. It had long
 t the limit of elasticity might be raised, as we have said, to
 t within the breaking load of a bar. Thus, in some experi-
 sor Styffe, the elastic limit of a puddled-steel bar was raised
 bjecting the bar to a load exceeding its primitive elastic

imits of elasticity, one for tension and one for compression.
 ad a number of bars in tension until stress ceased to be
 donal to strain. The load was then removed and the bar
 ession until the elastic limit in this direction had been ex-
 ccess raises the elastic limit in compression, as would be
 g the bar in compression a second time. In place of this,
 now again tested in tension, when it was found that the
 t of the limit in compression had lowered that in tension be-
 value. By repeating the process of alternately testing in
 ession, the two limits took up points at equal distances
 f no load, both in tension and compression. These limits
 ll's natural elastic limits of the bar, which for wrought iron
 stress of about $8\frac{1}{2}$ tons per square inch, but this is practically
 d to which a bar of the same material can be strained alter-
 n and compression, without breaking when the loading is
 erty often, as determined by Wöhler's method.

rom the rolls the elastic limit of the bar in tension is above
 ic limit of the bar as defined by Bauschinger, having been
 d by the deformations to which it has been subjected in the
 ufacture. Hence, when subjected to alternating stresses,
 sion is immediately lowered, while that in compression is
 ery both correspond to equal loads. Hence, in Wöhler's ex-
 vich the bars broke at loads nominally below the elastic
 aterial, there is every reason for concluding that the loads
 ater than true elastic limits of the material. This is con-
 on the connecting-rods of engines, which of course work
 stresses of equal intensity. Careful experiments on old
 the elastic limit in compression is the same as that in ten-
 eth are far below the tension elastic limit of the material as
 he rolls.

opinion that straining a metal beyond its elastic limit injures
 ontrue. It is not the mere straining of a metal beyond one
 d injures it, but the straining, many times repeated, beyond
 its. Sir Benjamin Baker has shown that in bending a shell
 its. If the metal is of necessity strained beyond its elastic limit,
 of as much as 7 tons to 15 tons per square inch may obtain
 es from the rolls, and unless the plate is annealed, these
 exist after it has been built into the boiler. In such a case
 posed to the additional stress due to the pressure.

the boiler, the overstrained portions of the plate will relieve themselves stretching and taking a permanent set, so that probably after a year's use very little difference could be detected in the stresses in a plate bolt to the boiler as it came from the bending rolls, and in one which had been annealed, before riveting into place, and the first, in spite of its having strained beyond its elastic limits, and not subsequently annealed, would be as strong as the other.

Resistance of Metals to Repeated Shocks.

More than twelve years were spent by Wöhler at the instance of the Prussian Government in experimenting upon the resistance of iron and steel to repeated stresses. The results of his experiments are expressed in what is known as Wöhler's law, which is given in the following words in the translation of Weyrauch:

"Rupture may be caused not only by a steady load which exceeds the carrying strength, but also by repeated applications of stresses, not which are equal to the carrying strength. The differences of these stresses are measures of the disturbance of continuity, in so far as by their increase the minimum stress which is still necessary for rupture diminishes."

A practical illustration of the meaning of the first portion of this law is given thus: If 50,000 pounds once applied will just break a bar of iron, a stress very much less than 50,000 pounds will break it if repeated sufficiently often.

This is fully confirmed by the experiments of Fairbairn and Spangenberg as well as those of Wöhler; and, as is remarked by Weyrauch, it may be considered as a long-known result of common experience. It partially accounts for what Mr. Holley has called the "intrinsically ridiculous fact of safety of six."

Another "long-known result of experience" is the fact that rupture is caused by a succession of shocks or impacts, none of which alone would be sufficient to cause it. Iron axles, the piston-rods of steam hammers, and other pieces of metal subject to continuously repeated shocks, invariably break after a certain length of service. They have a "life" which is limited.

Several years ago Fairbairn wrote: "We know that in some cases wrought iron subjected to continuous vibration assumes a crystalline structure, that the cohesive powers are much deteriorated, but we are ignorant of the causes of this change." We are still ignorant, not only of the causes of change, but of the conditions under which it takes place. Who knows whether wrought iron subjected to very slight continuous vibration will endure forever? or whether to insure final rupture each of the continuous shocks must amount at least to a certain percentage of single heavy shocks (both measured in foot-pounds), which would cause rupture with one application? Wöhler found in testing iron by repeated stresses (not impacts) that in one case 400,000 applications of a stress of 500 centners to the square inch caused rupture, while a similar bar remained sound after 48,000,000 applications of a stress of 300 centners to the square inch (1 centner = 110.2 lbs.).

Who knows whether or not a similar law holds true in regard to repeated shocks? Suppose that a bar of iron would break under a single impact of 1000 foot-pounds, how many times would it be likely to bear the repetition of 100 foot-pounds, or would it be safe to allow it to remain for fifty years subjected to a continual succession of blows of even 10 foot-pounds each?

Mr. William Metcalf published in the *Metalurgical Review*, Dec. 1874, the results of some tests of the life of steel of different percentages of carbon under impact. Some small steel pitmans were made, the specifications of which required that the unloaded machine should run $4\frac{1}{2}$ hours at the rate of 1200 revolutions per minute before breaking.

The steel was all of uniform quality, except as to carbon. Here are the results: The

.30 C.	ran 1 h. 21 m.	Heated and bent before breaking.
.49 C.	" 1 h. 28 m.	" " " " " "
.43 C.	" 4 h. 57 m.	Broke without heating.
.65 C.	" 3 h. 50 m.	Broke at weld where imperfect.
.80 C.	" 5 h. 40 m.	
.84 C.	" 18 h.	
.87 C.	Broke in weld near the end.	
.94 C.	ran 4.55 m.,	and the machine broke down.

by Mr. Metcalf confirmed his conclusions.

iron steel was better adapted to resist repeated shocks and vibrations than low-carbon steel.

These results, however, would scarcely be sufficient to induce any one to use high-carbon steel in a car-axle or a bridge-rod. Further experiments are needed to confirm or overthrow them.

For a description of the proposed apparatus for such an investigation in the future see *Trans. A. I. M. E.*, vol. viii., p. 76, from which the above is taken.

Work Produced by Suddenly Applied Forces and Shocks.

Mansfield Merriman, *R. R. & Eng. Jour.*, Dec. 1889.)

Let a weight which is dropped from a height h upon the end of a bar of length l , W be the maximum elongation which is produced. The work done by the falling weight, then, is

$$W = P(h + y),$$

where W is equal to the internal work of the resisting molecular stresses, P is the weight of the bar, which is at first 0, increases up to a certain limit Q , and is then constant; h is the height from which the weight is dropped, y is the elongation under the load P ; and if the elastic limit is not exceeded the elongation is assumed to increase uniformly with the stress, so that the internal work is equal to $1/2 Qy$ multiplied by the total elongation y , or

$$W = 1/2 Qy.$$

Subtracting the work that may be dissipated in heat,

$$1/2 Qy = Ph + Py.$$

The elongation due to the static load P , within the elastic limit is $y = \frac{Pl}{E}$.

$$Q = P \left(1 + \sqrt{1 + 2 \frac{h}{e}} \right), \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

is the momentary maximum stress. Substituting this value of Q ,

$$y = e \left(1 + \sqrt{1 + 2 \frac{h}{e}} \right), \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

is the value of the momentary maximum elongation.

It is seen that the results are the same as if the force P , before its action on the bar, is moving with a velocity v , as is the case when a weight P falls from a height h . The above results show that this height h may be small if e is a small quantity, and very great stresses and deformations may be produced. For instance, if $h = 4e$, then $Q = 4P$ and $y = 4e$; also let $h = 12e$, then $Q = 6P$ and $y = 6e$.

Or take a wrought-iron bar 1 in. square and 5 ft. long; under a load of 5000 lbs. this will be compressed about 0.0012 in., supposing no flexure occurs; but if a weight of 5000 lbs. drops upon its end from a height of 0.0048 in. there will be produced the stress of 20,000 lbs. per sq. in.

The work done by a suddenly applied force is one which acts with the uniform intensity P over the length l of the bar, but which has no velocity before acting upon it, and is therefore the same as the case of $h = 0$ in the above formulas, and gives $Q = P$ for the maximum stress and maximum deformation. The production of a rapidly-moving train upon a bridge produces stresses of this nature.

Twisting the Tensile Strength of Iron Bars by Twisting.

Ernest L. Ransome of San Francisco has obtained an English patent in 1888, for an "improvement in strengthening and testing of iron and steel rods or bars, consisting in twisting the same in a certain direction." Any defect in the lamination of the metal which would be concealed is revealed by twisting, and imperfections are shown by the treatment. This treatment may be applied to bolts, suspension-rods or bars of any tensile strength of any description.

Tests of this process were reported by Lieutenant F. P. Gilmore, in a paper read before the Technical Society of the Pacific Coast, in the Transactions of the Society for the month of December,

1889, also made in 1889 in the University of California. The experiments were made with thirty-nine bars, twenty-nine of which were

riously twisted, from three-eighths of one turn to six turns per foot. The test-pieces were cut from one and the same bar, and accurately measured and numbered. From each lot two pieces without twist were tested for tensile strength and ductility. One group of each set was twisted until five pieces broke, as a guide for the amount of twist to be given those to be tested for tensile strain.

The following is the result of one set of Lieut. Gilmore's tests, on iron bars 8 in. long, .719 in. diameter.

No. of Bars.	Conditions.	Twists in Turns.	Twists per ft.	Tensile Strength.	Tensile per sq. in.	Gain per cent.
2	Not twisted.	0	0	22,000	54,180	
2	Twisted cold.	$\frac{1}{8}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	23,900	59,020	9
2	" "	1	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	25,800	63,500	17
2	" "	2	3	26,300	64,750	19
1	" "	2 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{3}{4}$	26,400	65,000	20

TENSILE STRENGTH.

The following data are usually obtained in testing by tension in a testing machine a sample of a material of construction:

The load and the amount of extension at the elastic limit.

The maximum load applied before rupture.

The elongation of the piece, measured between gauge-marks placed a stated distance apart before the test; and the reduction of area at the point of fracture.

The load at the elastic limit and the maximum load are recorded in pounds per square inch of the original area. The elongation is recorded as a percentage of the stated length between the gauge-marks, and the reduced area as a percentage of the original area. The coefficient of elasticity is calculated from the ratio the extension within the elastic limit per inch length bears to the load per square inch producing that extension.

On account of the difficulty of making accurate measurements of the fractured area of a test-piece, and of the fact that elongation is more valuable than reduction of area as a measure of ductility and of resilience or work of resistance before rupture, modern experimenters are abandoning the custom of reporting reduction of area. The "strength per square inch of fractured section" formerly frequently used in reporting tests is now almost entirely abandoned. The data now calculated from the results of a tensile test for commercial purposes are: 1. Tensile strength in pounds per square inch of original area. 2. Elongation per cent of a stated length between gauge-marks, usually 8 inches. 3. Elastic limit in pounds per square inch of original area.

The short or grooved test specimen gives with most metals, especially with wrought iron and steel, an apparent tensile strength much higher than the real strength. This form of test-piece is now almost entirely abandoned.

The following results of the tests of six specimens from the same $\frac{1}{4}$ " bar illustrate the apparent elevation of elastic limit and the change in other properties due to change in length of stems which were turned down in each specimen to .798" diameter. (Jas. E. Howard, Eng. Congress 1898, Section G.)

Description of Stem.	Elastic Limit, Lbs. per Sq. In.	Tensile Strength, Lbs. per Sq. In.	Contraction of Area, per cent.
1.00" long.....	64,900	94,400	49.0
.50 "	65,320	97,800	43.4
.25 "	68,000	102,420	39.6
Semicircular groove, 4" radius.....	75,000	116,380	31.6
Semicircular groove, $\frac{1}{2}$ " radius.....	86,000, about	134,960	23.0
V-shaped groove.....	90,000, about	117,000	Indeterminate

made by the author in 1879 of straight and grooved test-pieces of steel cut from the same gave the following results:

eight pieces, 56,605 to 59,012 lbs. T. S. Aver. 57,566 lbs.

grooved " 64,341 to 67,400 " " " 65,452 "

of the short or grooved specimen, 21 per cent, or 12,114 lbs.

Method of Elongation.—In order to be able to compare elongation, it is necessary not only to have a uniform length of gauge-marks (say 8 inches), but to adopt a uniform method of measuring the elongation to compensate for the difference between the elongation when the piece breaks near one of the gauge-marks, or breaks midway between them. The following method is recommended. A. S. M. E., vol. xi., p. 622:

Divide the specimen into divisions of $1\frac{2}{3}$ inch each. After fracture measure the length of 8 of the marked spaces on each side (or 7 + on one side and 8 + on the other if the fracture is between the marks). The sum of these measurements, less 8 inches, is the elongation of 8 inches of the original length. If the fracture is so near one of the marks that 7 + spaces are not left on the shorter portion of the specimen take the measurement of as many spaces (with the fractional part of the space after the fracture) as are left, and for the spaces lacking add the measurement of as many corresponding spaces of the longer portion as are left to make the 7 + spaces.

Shapes of Specimens for Tensile Tests.—The shapes shown are recommended by the author in 1882 when he was connected

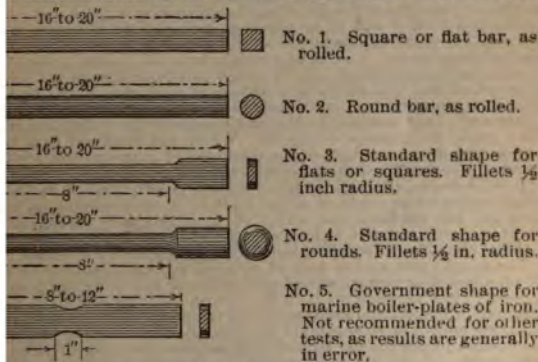


FIG. 75.

with the Burgh Testing Laboratory. They are now in most general use, with 5 inches or less in length between shoulders, and are entirely abandoned.

Precautions Required in making Tensile Tests.—The specimen itself should be tested, to determine whether its weighing is accurate, and whether it is so made and adjusted that in the process of making the specimen the line of strain of the testing-machine is in line with the axis of the specimen.

The specimen should be so shaped that it will not give an incorrect record of elongation, and should be of uniform minimum section for not less than five inches of length.

It must be had to the time occupied in making tests of certain materials, as wrought iron and soft steel can be made to show a higher than their true tensile strength by keeping them under strain for a great length of time.

Some alloys, copper, tin, zinc, and the like, which flow under continued strain, their highest apparent strength is obtained by testing them after they have been under strain for a long time. In such cases the length of time occupied in making the test should be stated.

For very accurate measurements of elongation, corresponding to moments of load during the tests, the electric contact micrometer, described in *Trans. A. S. M. E.*, vol. vi., p. 479, will be found convenient. Weighings of elongation are then taken during the test, a strain diagram is plotted from the reading, which is useful in comparing the qualities of different specimens. Such strain diagrams are made automatically by the Olsen testing-machine, described in *Jour. Frank. Inst.* 1891.

The coefficient of elasticity should be deduced from measurements between fixed increments of load per unit section, say between 12,000 and 12,000 pounds per square inch or between 1000 and 11,000 pounds of between 0 and 10,000 pounds.

COMPRESSIVE STRENGTH.

What is meant by the term "compressive strength" has not been settled by the authorities, and there exists more confusion in regard to the term than in regard to any other used by writers on strength of materials. The reason of this may be easily explained. The effect of a compressive stress upon a material varies with the nature of the material, and with the shape and size of the specimen tested. While the effect of a tensile stress is to produce rupture or separation of particles in the direction of the strain, the effect of a compressive stress on a piece of material may be to cause it to fly into splinters, to separate into two or more wedge-shaped pieces and fly apart, to bulge, buckle, or bend, or to flatten out and resist rupture or separation of particles. A piece of speculum metal under compressive stress will exhibit no change of appearance until rupture takes place, and then it will fly to pieces as suddenly as if blown apart by powder. A piece of cast iron or of stone will generally split into irregular shaped fragments. A piece of wrought iron will buckle or bend. A piece of wood or zinc may bulge, but its action will depend upon its shape and size. A piece of lead will flatten out and resist compression till the last, that is, the more it is compressed the greater becomes its resistance.

Air and other gaseous bodies are compressible to any extent as long as they retain the gaseous condition. Water not confined in a vessel is pressed by its own weight to the thickness of a mere film, while when confined in a vessel it is almost incompressible.

It is probable, although it has not been determined experimentally, that solid bodies when confined are at least as incompressible as water. If they are not confined, the effect of a compressive stress is not to shorten them, but also to increase their lateral dimensions or bulge them. Lateral strains are therefore induced by compressive stresses.

The weight per square inch of original section required to produce a given amount or percentage of shortening of any material is not a constant quantity, but varies with both the length and the sectional area, with the shape of this sectional area, and with the relation of the area to the length. The "compressive strength" of a material, if this term be supposed to mean the weight in pounds per square inch necessary to cause rupture, may vary with every size and shape of specimen experimented upon. Still more difficult would it be to state what is the "compressive strength" of a material which does not rupture at all, but flattens out. Suppose we are to test a cylinder of a soft metal like lead, two inches in length and one inch in diameter, a certain weight will shorten it one per cent, another weight ten per cent, another fifty per cent, but no weight that we can place upon it will rupture it, for it will flatten out to a thin sheet. What, then, is its compressive strength? Again, a similar cylinder of soft wrought iron would not only compress a few per cent, bulging evenly all around; it would commence to bend, but at first the bend would be imperceptible to the eye, and too small to be measured. Soon this bend would be great enough to be noticed, and finally the piece might be bent nearly double, or otherwise. What is the "compressive strength" of this piece of iron? Is it the weight per square inch which compresses the piece one per cent, that which causes the first bending (impossible to be detected), or that which causes a perceptible bend?

As showing the confusion concerning the definitions of compressive strength, the following statements from different authorities on the strength of wrought iron are of interest.

Wood's *Resistance of Materials* states, "comparatively few experiments have been made to determine how much wrought iron will sustain a weight of 100,000 lbs. per square inch." Rankine's *Applied Mechanics* gives 65,000, Rondelet 70,000, Weisbach

the diameter, does not vary much, provided the length of the specimen is less than one and does not exceed four or five diameters, and that which will just crush a short prism whose base equals one and whose height is not less than 1 to $1\frac{1}{2}$ and does not exceed 2, is called the crushing strength of the material. It would be desirable if experimenters would all agree upon some such definition of the term "crushing strength," and insist that all experiments which are made for the purpose of testing the relative values of different materials in compression should be made on specimens of exactly the same shape and size. An arbitrary size and shape should be assumed and agreed upon for this purpose. The size mentioned by Stoney is definite as regards area of section, but is indefinite as regards length, viz., from one to five diameters. In some metals a specimen five diameters long would bend, and in others would show a lower apparent strength than a specimen having a length of one diameter. The words "will just crush" are also indefinite for ductile materials, in which the resistance increases without limit if the piece tested is sufficiently long. In such cases the weight which causes a certain percentage reduction, as five, ten, or fifty per cent, should be assumed as the crushing strength.

In making experiments on crushing strength three things are desirable: first, a uniform and arbitrary standard shape and size of test specimen for comparison with other materials. Secondly, a standard limit of compression for ductile materials shall be considered equivalent to fracture in brittle materials. Thirdly, an accurate knowledge of the relation of the crushing strength of a specimen of standard shape and size to the crushing strength of specimens of all other shapes and sizes. The latter can only be obtained by a very extensive and accurate series of experiments upon all materials, and on specimens of a great number of different shapes

and sizes. It is proposed, as a standard shape and size, for a compressive test on all metals, a cylinder one inch in length, and one half square inch in cross-sectional area, or 0.798 inch diameter; and for the limit of compression to fracture, ten per cent of the original length. The term "limit of crushing strength," or "compressive strength of standard specimen," shall mean the weight per square inch required to fracture by compression a cylinder one inch long and 0.798 inch diameter, or to reduce its length to 0.9 inch if fracture does not take place before that reduction.

The Committee on Standard Tests of the American Society of Mechanical Engineers say (vol. xi., p. 624):

"Although compression tests have heretofore been made on dining sample pieces, it is highly desirable that tests be also made on long pieces from 10 to 20 diameters in length, corresponding more nearly with actual practice, in order that elastic strain and change of shape may be determined by using proper measuring apparatus.

The elastic limit, modulus or coefficient of elasticity, maximum and ultimate resistances, should be determined, as well as the increase of section at various points, viz., at bearing surfaces and at crippling point.

The use of long compression-test pieces is recommended, because the investigation of short cubes or cylinders has led to no direct application of the constants obtained by their use in computation of actual stresses which have always been and are now designed according to empirical formulæ obtained from a few tests of long columns."

COLUMNS, PILLARS, OR STRUTS.

Hodgkinson's Formula for Columns.

P = crushing weight in pounds; d = exterior diameter in inches; d_i = interior diameter in inches; L = length in feet,

Kind of Column.	Both ends rounded, the length of the column exceeding 15 times its diameter.	Both ends flat, length of the column exceeding 30 times its diameter.
Solid cylindrical columns of cast iron.....	$P = 33,380 \frac{d^{3.76}}{L^{1.7}}$	$P = 98,920 \frac{d^{3.33}}{L^{1.7}}$
Hollow cylindrical columns of cast iron.....	$P = 29,120 \frac{d^{3.76} - d_i^{3.76}}{L^{1.7}}$	$P = 99,320 \frac{d^{3.33} - d_i^{3.33}}{L^{1.7}}$
Solid cylindrical columns of wrought iron.	$P = 95,850 \frac{d^{3.76}}{L^2}$	$P = 299,600 \frac{d^{3.33}}{L^2}$
Solid square pillar of Dantzic oak (dry)....	$P = 24,540 \frac{d^4}{L^3}$
Solid square pillar of red deal (dry).....	$P = 17,510 \frac{d^4}{L^3}$

The above formulæ apply only in cases in which the length is so great the column breaks by bending and not by simple crushing. If the column is shorter than that given in the table, and more than four or five times diameter, the strength is found by the following formula:

$$W = \frac{PCK}{P + \frac{3}{4}CK}$$

in which P = the value given by the preceding formulæ, K = the transverse section of the column in square inches, C = the ultimate compressive resistance of the material, and W = the crushing strength of the column.

Hodgkinson's experiments were made upon comparatively short columns the greatest length of cast-iron columns being $60\frac{1}{2}$ inches, of wrought-iron $90\frac{3}{4}$ inches.

The following are some of his conclusions:

1. In all long pillars of the same dimensions, when the force is applied in the direction of the axis, the strength of one which has flat ends is three times as great as one with rounded ends.

2. The strength of a pillar with one end rounded and the other flat is an arithmetical mean between the two given in the preceding case of the same dimensions.

3. The strength of a pillar having both ends firmly fixed is the same as one of half the length with both ends rounded.

4. The strength of a pillar is not increased more than one seventh by

Formulas deduced from Hodgkinson's experiments are more or less Hodgkinson's own. They are:

When both ends fixed or flat, $P = \frac{fS}{1 + a \frac{l^2}{r^2}}$;

When one end flat, the other end round, $P = \frac{fS}{1 + 1.8a \frac{l^2}{r^2}}$;

When both ends round, or hinged, $P = \frac{fS}{1 + 4a \frac{l^2}{r^2}}$;

r = radius of cross-section in inches;

f = resistance of column, in pounds;

S = strength of the material in lbs. per square inch;

r = radius of gyration, in inches, $r^2 = \frac{\text{Moment of inertia}}{\text{area of section}}$;

l = length of column in inches;

a = constant depending upon the material;

f and S are usually taken as constants; they are really empirical variables, depending upon the dimensions and character of the column as well as upon the material.

For iron columns, values commonly taken are: $f = 36,000$ to $40,000$.

For mild steel columns, $f = 80,000$, $a = \frac{1}{6400}$.

For wrought iron columns, fixed ends, $p = \frac{80,000}{1 + \frac{1}{800} \frac{l^2}{d^2}}$, l = length and p = strength in lbs. per square inch.

d = diameter in same unit, and p = strength in lbs. per square inch.

For mild steel, $f = 67,000$ lbs., $a = \frac{1}{22,400}$.

For strong steel, $f = 114,000$ lbs., $a = \frac{1}{14,400}$.

These are only loose approximations for the ultimate resistance.

For Rankine's formula, $f = 7300$ lbs., $a = 1/3000$.

INERTIA AND RADIUS OF GYRATION.

Moment of inertia of a section is the sum of the products of the area of the section into the square of its distance from an axis of rotation, as the neutral axis.

Radius of gyration of the section equals the square root of the moment of inertia divided by the area of the section. If I = moment of inertia and A = area,

$$R = \sqrt{\frac{I}{A}}. \quad \frac{I}{A} = R^2.$$

Moments of inertia of various sections are as follows:

d = outside diameter; d_1 = inside diameter; b = breadth; h = inside breadth and diameter;

$I = 1/12bh^3$; Hollow rectangle $I = 1/12(bh^3 - b_1h_1^3)$;

$I = 1/12b^4$; Hollow square $I = 1/12(b^4 - b_1^4)$;

$I = 1/64\pi d^4$; Hollow cylinder $I = 1/64\pi(d^4 - d_1^4)$.

Moment of Inertia and Radius of Gyration for Various Sections and their Use in the Formulas for Strength of Columns.

The strength of sections to resist strains, as columns, depends not only on the area but also on the moment of inertia, and the property of the section which forms the basis of the formulas for strength of girders and columns is its moment of inertia about the axis of resistance of any section to transverse strain.

is its moment of inertia divided by the distance from the neutral axis to the fibres farthest removed from that axis; or

$$\text{Moment of resistance} = \frac{\text{Moment of inertia}}{\text{Distance of extreme fibre from axis}}$$

Moment of Inertia of Compound Shapes. (Pence Works).—The moment of inertia of any section about any axis is equal to I about a parallel axis passing through its centre of gravity + (the section \times the square of the distance between the axes).

By this rule, the moments of inertia or radii of gyration of any sections being known, corresponding values may be obtained for any combination of these sections.

Radius of Gyration of Compound Shapes.—In the case of any shape without a web the value of R can always be found out considering the moment of inertia.

The radius of gyration for any section around an axis parallel to the axis passing through its centre of gravity is found as follows:

Let r = radius of gyration around axis through centre of gravity; R = radius of gyration around another axis parallel to above; d = distance between axes:

$$R = \sqrt{d^2 + r^2}$$

When r is small, R may be taken as equal to d without material error.

Graphical Method for Finding Radius of Gyration. F. La Rue, *Eng. News*, Feb. 2, 1893, gives a short graphical method for finding the radius of gyration of hollow, cylindrical, and rectangular columns, as follows:

For cylindrical columns:

Lay off to a scale of 4 (or 40) a right-angled triangle, in which the outer diameter, and the altitude equals the inner diameter column, or *vice versa*. The hypotenuse, measured to a scale of 10, will be the radius of gyration sought.

This depends upon the formula

$$G = \sqrt{\frac{\text{Mom. of Inertia}}{\text{Area}}} = \frac{\sqrt{D^2 + d^2}}{4}$$

in which A = area and D = diameter of outer circle, a = area and diameter of inner circle, and G = radius of gyration. $\sqrt{D^2 + d^2}$ is the hypotenuse of a right-angled triangle, in which D is the base and altitude.

The sectional area of a hollow round column is $.7854(D^2 - d^2)$. Constructing a right-angled triangle in which D equals the hypotenuse equals the altitude, the base will equal $\sqrt{D^2 - d^2}$. Calling the value expression for the base B , the area will equal $.7854B^2$.

Value of G for square columns:

Lay off as before, but using a scale of 10, a right-angled triangle in which the base equals D or the side of the outer square, and the altitude equals the side of the inner square. With a scale of 3 measure the hypotenuse which will be, approximately, the radius of gyration.

This process for square columns gives an excess of slightly more than 4% from the result, a close approximation will be obtained.

A very close result is also obtained by measuring the hypotenuse to the same scale by which the base and altitude were laid off, and multiplying by the decimal 0.29; more exactly, the decimal is 0.28867.

The formula is

$$G = \sqrt{\frac{\text{Mom. of inertia}}{\text{Area}}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{12}} \sqrt{D^2 + d^2} = 0.28867 \sqrt{D^2 + d^2}$$

This may also be applied to any rectangular column by using the diameters of an unsupported column, and the greater diameters if the column is supported in the direction of its least dimensions.

ELEMENTS OF USUAL SECTIONS.

Moments refer to horizontal axis through centre of gravity. This is intended for convenient application where extreme accuracy is not required. Some of the terms are only approximate; those marked * are values for radius of gyration in flanged beams apply to standard sections only. A = area of section; b = breadth; h = depth; D =

Section.	Moment of Inertia.	Moment of Resistance.	Square of Least Radius of Gyration.	Least Radius of Gyration.
Rectangle.	$\frac{bh^3}{12}$	$\frac{bh^2}{6}$	$\frac{(\text{Least side})^2}{12}$	$\frac{\text{Least side}}{3.46}$
Rectangular Section.	$\frac{bh^3 - b_1h_1^3}{12}$	$\frac{bh^2 - b_1h_1^2}{6h}$	$\frac{h^2 + h_1^2}{12}$	$\frac{h + h_1}{4.89}$
Circle.	$\frac{AD^2}{16}$	$\frac{AD}{8}$	$\frac{D^2}{16}$	$\frac{D}{4}$
Annular Circle. Area of section; Area of hole section.	$\frac{AD^2 - ad^2}{16}$	$\frac{AD^2 - ad^2}{8D}$	$\frac{D^2 + d^2}{16}$	$\frac{D + d}{5.64}$
Triangle.	$\frac{bh^3}{36}$	$\frac{bh^2}{24}$	The least of of the two: $\frac{h^2}{18}$ or $\frac{b^2}{24}$	The least of the two: $\frac{h}{4.24}$ or $\frac{b}{4.9}$
Angle.	$\frac{Ah^2}{10.2}$	$\frac{Ah}{7.2}$	$\frac{b^2}{25}$	$\frac{b}{5}$
Right Angle.	$\frac{Ah^2}{9.5}$	$\frac{Ah}{6.5}$	$\frac{(hb)^2}{13(h^2 + b^2)}$	$\frac{hb}{2.6(h + b)}$
Cross.	$\frac{Ah^2}{19}$	$\frac{Ah}{9.5}$	$\frac{h^2}{22.5}$	$\frac{h}{4.74}$
Tee.	$\frac{Ah^2}{11.1}$	$\frac{Ah}{8}$	$\frac{b^2}{22.5}$	$\frac{b}{4.74}$
Channel.	$\frac{Ah^2}{6.66}$	$\frac{Ah}{3.2}$	$\frac{b^2}{21}$	$\frac{b}{4.58}$
Equal Angle.	$\frac{Ah^2}{7.34}$	$\frac{Ah}{3.07}$	$\frac{b^2}{12.5}$	$\frac{b}{3.54}$
Beam.	$\frac{Ah^2}{6.9}$	$\frac{Ah}{4}$	$\frac{b^2}{36.5}$	$\frac{b}{6}$

from centre of gravity, solid triangle, $\frac{h}{3}$; even angle, $\frac{h}{3.3}$;
even tee, $\frac{h}{3.3}$; deck beam, $\frac{h}{2.3}$; all other shapes given in

Solid Cast-iron Columns.

Worst gives the following table, based on Hodgkinson's formula (see p. 12).

The figures are the safe load or $\frac{1}{2}$ of the breaking weight in tons, if columns, ends flat and fixed.

Diam. in Inches.	Length of Column in Feet.							
	6.	8.	10.	12.	14.	16.	18.	20.
1½	.82	.50	.34	.25	.19	.15	.13	.11
2	1.43	.87	.60	.44	.34	.27	.22	.19
2½	2.21	1.41	.97	.71	.55	.44	.36	.30
3	3.22	2.10	1.48	1.09	.83	.67	.54	.46
3½	4.55	3.10	2.15	1.58	1.22	.97	.80	.69
4	6.22	4.25	3.05	2.23	1.72	1.37	1.12	.94
4½	8.23	5.69	4.17	3.06	2.35	1.87	1.53	1.29
5	10.59	7.30	5.22	3.82	2.92	2.30	1.90	1.61
5½	13.32	9.00	6.41	4.70	3.58	2.82	2.32	1.97
6	16.44	11.00	7.85	5.73	4.41	3.48	2.87	2.43
6½	19.97	13.30	9.55	6.91	5.31	4.20	3.50	2.94
7	23.91	15.90	11.53	8.26	6.36	5.00	4.12	3.41
7½	28.26	18.80	13.80	9.80	7.58	6.00	4.90	4.00
8	33.01	22.00	16.37	11.63	8.98	7.00	5.70	4.60
8½	38.16	25.50	19.25	13.77	10.57	8.00	6.60	5.30
9	43.71	29.30	22.45	16.23	12.37	9.10	7.60	6.10
9½	49.66	33.40	25.95	19.03	14.40	10.30	8.70	7.00
10	56.01	37.80	29.77	22.08	16.68	11.70	9.90	8.00
10½	62.76	42.50	33.93	25.40	19.23	13.30	11.20	9.10
11	69.91	47.50	38.43	28.99	22.06	15.10	12.70	10.30
11½	77.46	52.80	43.27	32.87	25.18	17.10	14.30	11.60
12	85.41	58.40	48.45	37.16	28.59	19.30	16.10	13.10

The correction for short columns should be applied where the length is less than 30 diameters.

$$\text{Strength in tons of short columns} = \frac{SC}{10S + \frac{3}{4}C}$$

S being the strength for long columns given in the above table, and C times the sectional area of the metal in inches.

Hollow Columns.—The strength nearly equals the difference between that of two solid columns the diameters of which are equal external and internal diameters of the hollow one.

Ultimate Strength of Hollow, Cylindrical Wrought Cast-iron Columns, when fixed at the ends.

(Pottsville Iron and Steel Co.)

$$\text{Computed by Gordon's formula, } p = \frac{f}{1 + C \left(\frac{l}{d} \right)^2}$$

p = Ultimate strength in lbs. per square inch;

l = Length of column, { both in same units;

d = Diameter of column, {

f = { 40,000 lbs. for wrought-iron; {

{ 80,000 lbs. for cast-iron; {

C = $1/3000$ for wrought-iron, and $1/800$ for cast-iron.

$$\text{For cast-iron, } p = \frac{80000}{1 + \frac{1}{800} \left(\frac{l}{d} \right)^2}$$

$$\text{For wrought-iron, } p = \frac{40000}{1 + \frac{1}{3000} \left(\frac{l}{d} \right)^2}$$

HOLLOW CYLINDRICAL COLUMNS.

Maximum Load per sq. in.		Safe Load per square inch.	
Cast Iron.	Wrought Iron.	Cast Iron. Factor of 6.	Wrought Iron, Factor of 4.
74075	39164	12946	9791
71110	38710	11851	9677
67796	38168	11399	9542
64256	37546	10709	9386
60606	36854	10101	9213
56938	36100	9489	9025
53332	35294	8889	8823
49845	34442	8307	8610
46510	33556	7751	8389
43360	32642	7226	8161
40404	31712	6734	7928
37646	30768	6274	7692
35088	29820	5848	7455
32718	28874	5453	7218
30584	27932	5097	6983
28520	27002	4753	6750
26666	26086	4444	6522
24962	25188	4160	6297
23396	24310	3899	6077
21946	23454	3658	5863
20618	22620	3436	5655
19392	21818	3232	5454
18282	21036	3047	5259
17222	20284	2870	5071
16260	19556	2710	4889
15368	18856	2561	4714
14544	18180	2424	4545

Ultimate Strength of Wrought-iron Columns.

p = ultimate strength per square inch;

l = length of column in inches;

r = least radius of gyration in inches.

one end-bearing,

$$p = \frac{40000}{1 + \frac{1}{40000} \left(\frac{l}{r} \right)^2}$$

one pin and one square bearing,

$$p = \frac{40000}{1 + \frac{1}{30000} \left(\frac{l}{r} \right)^2}$$

two pin-bearings,

$$p = \frac{40000}{1 + \frac{1}{20000} \left(\frac{l}{r} \right)^2}$$

In working load on these columns use a factor of 4 when used in tension, or when subjected to dead load only; but when used in compression should be 5.

WROUGHT-IRON COLUMNS.

$\frac{l}{r}$	Ultimate Strength in lbs. per square inch.			$\frac{l}{r}$	Safe Strength in lbs. square inch—Factor	
	Square Ends.	Pin and Square End.	Pin Ends.		Square Ends.	Pin and Square End.
10	39944	39866	39800	10	7989	7973
15	39776	39702	39554	15	7955	7940
20	39604	39472	39214	20	7921	7894
25	39384	39182	38788	25	7877	7836
30	39118	38834	38278	30	7821	7767
35	38810	38430	37690	35	7762	7696
40	38460	37974	37036	40	7692	7595
45	38072	37470	36322	45	7614	7494
50	37646	36928	35525	50	7529	7386
55	37186	36396	34744	55	7437	7267
60	36697	35714	33898	60	7339	7143
65	36182	34978	33024	65	7236	6996
70	35634	34184	32128	70	7127	6877
75	35076	33382	31218	75	7015	6736
80	34482	32466	30288	80	6896	6593
85	33883	32286	29384	85	6777	6447
90	33264	31496	28470	90	6653	6299
95	32636	30750	27562	95	6527	6150
100	32000	30000	26666	100	6400	6000
105	31357	29250	25786	105	6271	5850

Maximum Permissible Stresses in columns used in buildings (Building Ordinances of City of Chicago, 1893.)

Maximum permissible loads:
For cast-iron round columns:

$$S = \frac{10000a}{1 + \frac{l^2}{600d^2}}$$

l = length of column in inches;
 d = diameter of column in inches;
 a = area of column in square inches.

For cast-iron rectangular columns:

$$S = \frac{10000a}{1 + \frac{l^2}{800d^2}}$$

l and a as before;
 d = least horizontal dimension of column

For riveted or other forms of wrought-iron columns:

$$S = \frac{12000a}{1 + \frac{l^2}{36000r^2}}$$

l = and a as before;
 r = least radius of gyration in inches.

For riveted or other steel columns, if more than $60r$ in length:

$$S = 17,000 - \frac{60l}{r}, \quad l \text{ and } r \text{ as before.}$$

If less than $60r$ in length:

$$S = 13,500a, \quad a \text{ as before.}$$

For wooden posts:

$$S = \frac{nc}{1 + \frac{l^2}{250d^2}}$$

a = area of post in square inches;
 d = least side of rectangular post in inches;
 l = length of post in inches;
 c = $\begin{cases} 600 \text{ for white or Norway pine;} \\ 800 \text{ for oak;} \\ 900 \text{ for long-leaf yellow pine.} \end{cases}$

LOAD OF HOLLOW CYLINDRICAL CAST-IRON COLUMNS. (New Jersey Steel Iron Co.)

(One fifth the breaking weight.)

Following tables give the safe load in tons of 2,000 lbs., for columns with capitals and bases accurately turned to a true plane, and having a fair bearing on these surfaces. In the case of columns having rounded ends, but set only with the degree of care usual in ordinary building, half of these loads should be taken; and for columns not turned at all, one third of these amounts should be taken for the safe load. Columns having one end accurately turned to a true plane, and the other rounded, may be loaded to two thirds the amount given in the

Load, in Tons of 2000 lbs. for Cast-iron Columns with Turned Capitals and Bases.

Outside Diameter, inches.	Outside Diameter, 3 inches.				Outside Diameter, 4 inches.				Outside Diameter, 4 inches.					
	Length in ft.	Thickness in inches.			Length in ft.	Thickness in inches.			Length in ft.	Thickness in inches.				
		1/4	3/8	1		1/4	3/8	1		1 1/4	1/4	3/8	1	1 1/4
17.2	17	3.0	3.6	3.9	7	24.0	32.0	38.3	41.7	17	7.0	8.9	10.1	10.7
14.0	18	2.8	3.3	3.5	8	21.7	28.4	33.0	35.8	18	6.4	8.1	9.1	9.7
11.4	19	2.5	3.0	3.2	9	19.0	24.8	28.7	31.0	19	5.8	7.4	8.3	8.8
9.6	20	2.3	2.7	2.9	10	17.4	22.0	24.9	26.3	20	5.3	6.8	7.6	8.1
8.1	21	2.1	2.5	2.7	11	14.8	18.7	21.1	22.4	21	4.9	6.2	7.0	7.5
7.0	22	1.9	2.3	2.5	12	12.7	16.2	18.2	19.3	22	4.6	5.8	6.5	6.9
6.1	23	1.8	2.1	2.3	13	11.1	14.1	15.9	16.8	23	4.2	5.3	6.0	6.4
5.4	24	1.7	2.0	2.1	14	9.8	12.4	14.0	14.9	24	3.9	5.0	5.6	5.9
4.8	25	1.6	1.9	2.0	15	8.7	11.1	12.5	13.2	25	3.7	4.6	5.2	5.5
4.3					16	7.8	9.9	11.2	11.8					

Outside Diameter, 5 inches.	Outside Diameter, 6 inches.				Outside Diameter, 7 inches.							
	Length in ft.	Thickness in inches.			Length in ft.	Thickness in inches.			Length in ft.	Thickness in inches.		
		1/4	1	1 1/4		1 1/4	3/4	1		1 1/4	1 1/4	
65.0	73.3	77.3	95.5	110.3	132.1	102.4	128.7	150.7	169.4			
57.3	61.4	69.7	85.7	98.7	108.8	93.6	117.0	136.9	153.5			
50.7	56.8	62.8	77.1	88.5	97.3	85.6	106.7	124.0	139.3			
45.1	50.4	56.9	69.0	79.6	87.4	78.4	97.5	113.5	126.6			
40.3	44.9	51.6	63.0	71.9	78.7	71.8	89.2	103.0	115.3			
36.2	40.3	46.9	57.2	65.2	71.2	66.0	81.7	94.8	105.3			
32.3	35.2	42.9	52.1	59.3	64.6	60.7	75.1	87.0	96.5			
28.3	31.0	39.3	47.6	54.1	58.9	56.0	69.2	80.0	88.6			
25.2	27.6	36.8	43.9	49.0	52.6	51.8	63.9	73.8	81.6			
22.6	24.7	33.0	39.4	44.0	47.2	48.1	59.2	68.2	75.4			
20.4	22.3	29.8	35.5	39.7	42.5	44.6	54.9	63.2	69.8			
18.5	20.2	27.0	32.2	36.0	38.6	42.0	50.9	57.8	63.0			
16.9	18.4	24.6	29.4	32.8	35.2	38.3	46.4	52.7	57.4			
15.4	16.9	22.6	26.9	30.1	32.3	35.1	42.5	48.3	52.6			
14.2	15.5	20.3	24.8	27.7	29.7	32.3	39.1	44.5	48.4			
13.1	14.4	19.3	23.9	25.6	27.4	29.8	36.2	41.1	44.7			
12.3	13.4	18.3	22.2	23.7	25.4	27.7	33.5	38.1	41.5			
11.3	12.3	17.8	21.2	22.1	23.7	25.7	31.2	35.4	38.6			
10.7	11.3	16.6	19.7	21.1	23.7	25.7	29.1	33.4	36.6			
10.0	10.6	15.5	18.4	20.6	22.1	24.0	28.1	33.1	36.0			

**Safe Load, in Tons of 2000 lbs. for Cast-Iron C
with Turned Capitals and Bases.**

Length in ft.	Outside Diameter, 8 inches.				Outside Diameter, 9 inches.				Outside Dia 10 inches		
	Thickness in inches.				Thickness in inches.				Thickness in		
	¾	1	1¼	1½	¾	1	1¼	1½	¾	1	1¼
7	138.3	162.6	193.0	219.5	154.8	197.7	236.6	271.4	181.6	233.4	280.0
8	118.7	150.1	177.7	201.6	144.7	184.5	220.2	252.0	171.1	219.5	260.0
9	109.8	138.5	163.6	185.2	135.0	171.8	204.7	233.9	160.9	206.2	246.0
10	101.5	127.8	150.7	170.2	126.0	160.0	190.3	217.0	151.2	193.4	233.0
11	94.0	118.0	139.0	156.7	117.5	149.0	177.0	201.4	142.0	181.4	221.0
12	87.0	109.2	128.2	144.3	109.6	138.8	164.5	187.0	133.4	170.1	209.0
13	80.7	101.1	118.5	133.2	102.4	129.4	153.2	173.9	125.3	159.6	197.0
14	75.0	93.8	109.8	123.2	95.7	120.8	142.8	161.9	117.8	149.8	185.0
15	69.8	87.1	101.9	114.2	89.5	112.9	133.3	150.9	110.8	140.7	173.0
16	65.0	81.1	94.7	106.1	83.9	105.7	124.6	140.9	104.3	132.4	161.0
17	60.7	75.7	88.3	98.7	78.7	99.0	116.7	131.8	98.3	124.6	149.0
18	56.8	70.7	82.4	92.1	73.9	92.9	109.4	123.5	92.7	117.4	138.0
19	53.2	66.2	77.1	86.1	69.6	87.4	102.7	115.9	87.5	110.8	128.0
20	51.1	62.7	72.1	79.5	65.5	82.3	96.7	108.9	82.7	104.6	121.0
21	47.0	57.7	66.4	73.2	61.8	75.5	91.0	102.6	78.3	99.0	113.0
22	43.5	53.3	61.3	67.6	58.4	73.2	85.9	96.7	74.2	93.7	110.0
23	40.3	49.4	56.8	62.7	55.9	69.3	80.4	89.5	70.4	88.9	107.0
24	37.5	46.0	52.9	58.3	52.0	64.4	74.8	83.3	66.9	84.3	99.0
25	35.0	42.9	49.3	54.4	48.5	60.1	69.8	77.7	64.9	81.0	93.0

Length in ft.	Outside Diameter, 11 inches.				Outside Diameter, 12 inches.				Outside Dia 13 inches		
	Thickness in inches.				Thickness in inches.				Thickness in		
	1	1¼	1½	2	1	1¼	1½	2	1	1¼	1½
7	260.4	325.9	377.6	469.5	305.3	370.8	431.7	540.9	341.5	414.4	483.0
8	255.1	308.1	356.8	442.2	290.9	352.8	410.2	512.8	327.0	396.3	466.0
9	241.2	290.8	336.3	415.6	276.6	335.0	389.1	485.0	312.4	378.4	444.0
10	227.8	274.2	316.7	390.3	262.7	317.7	368.6	458.3	298.0	360.6	426.0
11	214.9	258.4	298.1	366.3	249.2	301.0	348.8	432.9	284.0	344.4	402.0
12	202.7	243.5	280.5	343.9	236.3	285.1	330.0	408.6	270.5	326.7	383.0
13	191.2	229.4	264.0	322.8	223.9	270.0	312.2	385.7	257.5	310.8	363.0
14	180.5	216.2	248.5	303.3	212.3	255.6	295.3	364.1	245.0	295.5	343.0
15	170.3	203.9	234.1	285.1	201.2	242.1	279.4	343.9	233.2	281.1	323.0
16	160.9	192.4	220.7	268.3	190.8	229.4	264.5	325.0	222.0	267.3	311.0
17	152.1	181.7	208.2	252.7	181.1	217.5	250.6	307.4	211.3	254.4	299.0
18	143.9	171.7	196.7	238.3	171.9	206.3	237.5	290.9	201.3	242.1	288.0
19	136.2	162.5	185.9	225.0	163.3	195.8	225.3	275.6	191.8	230.6	276.0
20	129.1	153.9	176.0	212.6	155.2	186.0	213.9	261.3	182.8	219.7	264.0
21	122.4	145.9	166.7	201.2	147.7	176.9	203.2	247.9	174.4	209.5	254.0
22	116.3	138.4	158.1	190.6	140.6	168.3	193.3	235.5	166.5	199.9	243.0
23	110.5	131.5	150.1	180.7	134.0	160.3	184.0	224.0	159.0	190.8	233.0
24	105.2	125.1	142.7	171.6	127.8	152.8	175.3	213.2	152.0	182.3	221.0
25	100.2	119.1	135.7	163.1	122.0	145.8	167.1	203.1	145.4	174.3	210.0

Safe Load of Cast-Iron Columns—(Continued).

Diameter, inches.	Outside Diameter, 15 inches.				Outside Diameter, 16 inches.					
	Thickness in inches.				Thickness in inches.					
	1½	2	1	1¼	1½	2	1	1¼	1½	2
1	539.0	684.6	413.7	506.1	594.0	756.7	449.8	551.1	648.0	828.6
2	518.0	655.9	399.3	487.9	572.2	727.7	435.3	532.8	626.3	799.8
3	496.3	627.0	384.4	469.5	550.1	698.4	420.5	514.4	604.1	770.4
4	474.6	598.5	369.7	451.0	528.2	669.3	405.6	496.0	581.8	740.9
5	453.4	570.7	355.1	433.0	506.3	640.9	390.6	477.4	559.8	711.7
6	432.6	543.6	340.6	415.0	485.0	612.8	376.0	459.3	538.0	683.4
7	412.7	517.7	326.6	397.6	464.5	585.9	361.6	441.2	516.7	655.1
8	393.6	493.0	313.0	380.7	444.4	559.7	347.6	423.2	495.9	628.0
9	375.3	469.4	299.9	364.5	425.2	534.9	333.9	406.9	475.9	601.8
10	357.9	446.9	287.2	348.9	406.7	510.9	320.7	390.6	456.6	576.6
11	341.4	425.7	275.1	334.0	389.1	488.1	308.0	374.9	438.0	552.5
12	325.6	405.5	263.6	319.7	372.3	466.5	295.8	359.9	420.1	529.4
13	310.8	386.5	252.5	306.2	356.2	445.9	284.1	345.4	403.0	507.3
14	296.7	368.6	242.0	293.3	341.0	426.8	272.9	331.6	386.8	486.3
15	283.5	351.8	232.0	281.0	326.5	407.8	262.1	318.4	371.2	466.2
16	270.9	335.9	222.5	269.3	312.8	390.2	251.9	305.9	356.4	447.2
17	259.1	320.9	213.4	258.3	299.8	373.7	242.2	293.9	342.3	429.1
18	248.0	306.8	204.9	247.8	287.5	358.1	232.9	282.5	328.8	411.9
19	237.5	294.1	196.7	237.8	275.9	343.2	224.0	271.6	316.1	395.6

ECCENTRIC LOADING OF COLUMNS.

When a load is applied to a column having a given rectangular cross-section, such as a masonry joint under pressure, the stress will be distributed uniformly over the section only when the load passes through the centre of the section; any deviation from such a central position will bring a maximum unit pressure to one edge and a minimum to the other; when the distance of the resultant from one edge is equal to the entire width of the joint, the pressure at the nearer edge is equal to the mean pressure, while that at the farther edge is zero, and that at the nearer edge approaches still nearer to the edge the pressure at the farther edge becomes less than zero; in fact, becomes a tension, if the material (mortar, etc.), there is capable of resisting tension. Or, if, as usual in masonry joints, the material is practically incapable of resisting tension, the pressure at the nearer edge, when the resultant approaches it nearer than one-third of the width, increases very rapidly and dangerously, becoming theoretically infinite when the resultant reaches the edge.

In any position of the resultant relatively to one edge of the joint or section, a similar redistribution of the pressures throughout the section may be brought about by simply adding to or diminishing the width of the section.

P = the total pressure on any section of a bar of uniform thickness.
 w = the width of that section = the area of the section, when thickness = 1.

$\frac{P}{w}$ = the mean unit pressure on the section.

p = the maximum unit pressure on the section.

m = the minimum unit pressure on the section.

e = the eccentricity of the resultant = its distance from the centre of the section.

$$\text{then } M = p \left(1 + \frac{6d}{w} \right) \text{ and } m = p \left(1 - \frac{6d}{w} \right).$$

When $d = \frac{1}{6}w$ then $M = 2p$ and $m = 0$.

When d is greater than $1/6w$, the resultant in that case being less than half of the width from one edge, p becomes negative. (J. C. Trautwine, *Pr. Engineering News*, Nov. 23, 1892.)

BUILT COLUMNS.

From experiments by T. D. Lovett, discussed by Burr, the values of f at a in several cases are determined, giving empirical forms of Gordon's formula as follows: p = pounds crushing strength per square inch of section l = length of column in inches, r = radius of gyration in inches.

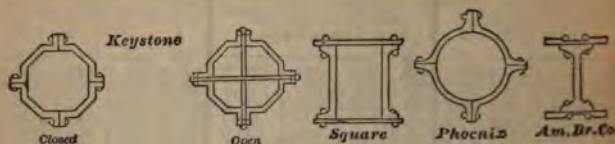


FIG. 76.

Flat Ends.

Keystone Columns.	Square Columns.	Phoenix Columns.	American Bridge Co. Columns.
$p = \frac{39,500}{1 + \frac{1}{18,300} \frac{l^2}{r^2}} \quad (1)$	$p = \frac{39,000}{1 + \frac{1}{35,000} \frac{l^2}{r^2}} \quad (4)$	$p = \frac{42,000}{1 + \frac{1}{50,000} \frac{l^2}{r^2}} \quad (6)$	$p = \frac{36,000}{1 + \frac{1}{46,000} \frac{l^2}{r^2}}$

Flat Ends, Swelled.

$p = \frac{36,000}{1 + \frac{1}{18,300} \frac{l^2}{r^2}} \quad (2)$
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Pin Ends.

$p = \dots\dots\dots$	$\frac{39,000}{1 + \frac{1}{17,000} \frac{l^2}{r^2}} \quad (5)$	$\frac{42,000}{1 + \frac{1}{22,700} \frac{l^2}{r^2}} \quad (7)$	$\frac{36,000}{1 + \frac{1}{21,500} \frac{l^2}{r^2}} \quad (8)$
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Pin Ends, Swelled.

$p = \frac{36,000}{1 + \frac{1}{15,000} \frac{l^2}{r^2}} \quad (3)$
---	-------	-------	-------

Round Ends.

$p = \dots\dots\dots$	$\frac{42,000}{1 + \frac{1}{12,500} \frac{l^2}{r^2}} \quad (8)$	$\frac{36,000}{1 + \frac{1}{11,500} \frac{l^2}{r^2}} \quad (11)$
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With great variations of stress a factor of safety of as high as 6 or 8 may be used, or it may be as low as 3 or 4, if the condition of stress is uniform or essentially so.

Burr gives the following general principles which govern the resistance of built columns:

The material should be disposed as far as possible from the neutral axis of the cross-section, thereby increasing r ;

There should be no initial internal stress;

The individual portions of the column should be mutually supporting;

The individual portions of the column should be so firmly secured to each other that no relative motion can take place, in order that the column fail as a whole, thus maintaining the original value of r .

Stoney says: "When the length of a rectangular wrought iron tube column does not exceed 30 times its least breadth, it fails by the bulging or buckling of a short portion of the plates, not by the flexure of the pillar as a whole."

In *Trans. A. S. C. E.*, Oct. 1880, are given the following formulae for the ultimate resistance of wrought-iron columns designed by C. Shales Smith

Flat Ends.

ce in.	Phoenix Column.	American Bridge Co. Column.	Common Column.
60	$\frac{42,500}{1 + \frac{1}{4500} \frac{l^2}{d^2}}$ (12)	$\frac{36,500}{1 + \frac{1}{3750} \frac{l^2}{d^2}}$ (15)	$\frac{36,500}{1 + \frac{1}{2700} \frac{l^2}{d^2}}$ (21)

One Pin End.

500	$\frac{40,000}{1 + \frac{1}{2250} \frac{l^2}{d^2}}$ (13)	$\frac{36,500}{1 + \frac{1}{2250} \frac{l^2}{d^2}}$ (16)	$\frac{36,500}{1 + \frac{1}{1500} \frac{l^2}{d^2}}$ (22)
-----	--	--	--

Two Pin Ends.

500	$\frac{36,000}{1 + \frac{1}{1500} \frac{l^2}{d^2}}$ (14)	$\frac{36,500}{1 + \frac{1}{1750} \frac{l^2}{d^2}}$ (20)	$\frac{36,500}{1 + \frac{1}{1200} \frac{l^2}{d^2}}$ (23)
-----	--	--	--

Common "column consists of two channels, opposite, with flanges with a plate on one side and a lattice on the other.

Formula for "square" columns may be used without much error for an chord section composed of two channel-bars and plates, with the pin passing through the centre of gravity of the cross-section.

Iron members composed of two channels connected by zigzag may be treated by formulæ 4 and 5, using $f = 36,000$ instead of

results on full-sized Phoenix columns in 1873 showed a close agreement with formulæ 6-8. Experiments on full-sized Phoenix (the Watertown testing-machine in 1881 showed considerable difference when the value of $l+r$ became comparatively small. The modified form of Gordon's formula gave tolerable results through a range of experiments :

columns, flat end,
$$p = \frac{40,000 \left(1 + \frac{2r}{l}\right)}{1 + 50,000 \frac{l^2}{r^2}} \dots \dots \dots (24)$$

results of three series of experiments on Phoenix columns, a better formula than Gordon's is reached as follows :

columns, flat ends,
$$p = 39,640 - 46 \frac{l}{r}, \text{ when } l+r \text{ is from 30 to 140;}$$

$$p = 64,700 - 4600 \sqrt{\frac{l}{r}} \text{ when } l+r \text{ is less than 30.}$$

Dimensions of Phoenix Columns.

(Phoenix Iron Co.)

Dimensions are subject to slight variations, which are unavoidable in cast-iron shapes.

Dimensions of columns given are those of the 4, 6, or 8 segments of which they are composed. The rivet-heads add from 2 to 5 per cent to the weight. Rivets are spaced 3, 4, or 6 inches apart from centre to centre, somewhat more closely at the ends than towards the centre of the column.

Columns A have 8 segments, E columns 6 segments, C, B², B¹, and A have 4. Least radius of gyration = $D \times .3938$.

One Segment.		Diameters in inches.			One Column.		
Thickness in inches.	Weight in lbs. per yard.	d Inside.	D Outside.	D ¹ Over Flanges.	Area of Cross-section, sq. inches	Weight per ft. in pounds.	Least Radius of Gyration, in inches.
3-16	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	A 3 $\frac{5}{8}$	4	6 1-16	3.8	12.6	1.45
$\frac{1}{4}$	12		4 $\frac{1}{8}$	6 3-16	4.8	16.0	1.50
5-16	14 $\frac{1}{2}$		4 $\frac{1}{4}$	6 5-16	5.8	19.3	1.55
$\frac{3}{8}$	17		4 $\frac{3}{8}$	6 7-16	6.8	22.6	1.59
$\frac{1}{4}$	16	B ¹ 4 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 5-16	8 1-16	6.4	31.3	1.92
5-16	19 $\frac{1}{2}$		5 7-16	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	7.8	36.0	1.96
$\frac{3}{8}$	23		5 9-16	8 $\frac{3}{4}$	9.2	30.6	2.02
7-16	26 $\frac{1}{2}$		5 11-16	8 $\frac{5}{8}$	10.6	35.3	2.07
$\frac{1}{2}$	30		5 13-16	8 7-16	12.0	40.0	2.11
$\frac{3}{8}$	33 $\frac{1}{2}$		5 15-16	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	13.4	44.6	2.16
$\frac{1}{2}$	37	6 1-16	8 $\frac{3}{8}$	14.8	49.3	2.20	
$\frac{1}{4}$	18 $\frac{1}{2}$	B ₂ 5 $\frac{1}{8}$	6 7-16	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	7.4	24.6	2.34
5-16	22 $\frac{1}{2}$		6 9-16	9 $\frac{1}{4}$	9.0	30.0	2.39
$\frac{3}{8}$	26 $\frac{1}{2}$		6 11-16	9 5-16	10.6	35.3	2.43
7-16	30 $\frac{1}{2}$		6 13-16	9 $\frac{3}{8}$	12.2	40.6	2.48
$\frac{1}{2}$	34 $\frac{1}{2}$		6 15-16	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	13.8	46.0	2.52
$\frac{3}{8}$	38 $\frac{1}{2}$		7 1-16	9 $\frac{3}{8}$	15.4	51.3	2.57
$\frac{1}{2}$	42 $\frac{1}{2}$	7 3-16	9 11-16	17.0	56.6	2.61	
$\frac{1}{4}$	25 $\frac{1}{2}$	C 7 $\frac{1}{8}$	7 11-16	11 9-16	10.2	34.	2.80
5-16	31		7 13-16	11 $\frac{1}{8}$	12.4	41.3	2.85
$\frac{3}{8}$	36		7 15-16	11 11-16	14.4	48.0	2.90
7-16	41		8 1-16	11 $\frac{3}{4}$	16.4	54.6	2.94
$\frac{1}{2}$	46		8 3-16	11 13-16	18.4	61.3	2.98
$\frac{3}{8}$	51		8 5-16	11 $\frac{5}{8}$	20.4	68.	3.03
9-16	56		8 7-16	12	22.4	74.6	3.08
$\frac{1}{2}$	61		8 9-16	12 1-16	24.8	82.6	3.12
11-16	68		8 11-16	12 3-16	27.2	90.6	3.16
$\frac{3}{4}$	73		8 13-16	12 5-16	29.2	97.3	3.21
$\frac{1}{2}$	78		8 15-16	12 7-16	31.2	104.	3.25
1	89		9 3-16	12 9-16	35.6	118.6	3.34
$\frac{1}{8}$	99		9 7-16	13 $\frac{1}{4}$	39.6	132.	3.43
$\frac{1}{4}$	109		9 11-16	12 15-16	43.6	145.3	3.52
$\frac{1}{4}$	28	E 11	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	15 7-16	16.8	56.	4.18
5-16	32 $\frac{1}{2}$		11 $\frac{3}{8}$	15 9-16	19.5	65.	4.23
$\frac{3}{8}$	37		11 $\frac{1}{4}$	15 11-16	22.2	74.	4.28
7-16	42		11 $\frac{3}{8}$	15 13-16	25.2	84.	4.32
$\frac{1}{2}$	47		12	15 $\frac{1}{2}$	28.2	94.	4.36
9-16	52		12 $\frac{1}{8}$	16	31.2	104.	4.40
$\frac{5}{8}$	57		12 $\frac{1}{4}$	16 1-16	34.2	114.	4.45
11-16	62		12 $\frac{3}{8}$	16 3-16	37.2	124.	4.50
$\frac{3}{4}$	68		12 $\frac{1}{2}$	16 5-16	40.2	136.	4.55
13-16	73		12 $\frac{3}{4}$	16 7-16	43.2	146.	4.60
$\frac{7}{8}$	78		13 $\frac{1}{8}$	16 $\frac{5}{8}$	46.8	156.	4.64
1	88		13 $\frac{1}{4}$	16 $\frac{3}{4}$	50.8	170.	4.78
$\frac{1}{8}$	98		13 $\frac{1}{2}$	17	58.8	196.	4.82
$\frac{1}{4}$	108		13 $\frac{3}{8}$	17 3-16	64.8	216.	4.91
5-16	31	G 14 $\frac{3}{8}$	15	19 $\frac{1}{2}$	24.8	82.6	6.43
$\frac{3}{8}$	36		15 $\frac{1}{4}$	19 $\frac{1}{4}$	28.8	96.	5.50
7-16	41		15 $\frac{3}{8}$	19 $\frac{3}{8}$	32.8	109.3	5.55
$\frac{1}{2}$	46		15 $\frac{1}{2}$	19 7-16	36.8	122.6	5.59
			15 $\frac{3}{4}$	19 $\frac{1}{2}$	40.8	136.	5.63
			15 $\frac{7}{8}$	19 $\frac{3}{4}$	44.8	149.3	5.68

Segment.	Diameters in inches.			One Column.			Safe Load in tons for 16-feet Lengths.	
	Weight in lbs. per yard.	<i>d</i> inside.	<i>D</i> Outside.	<i>D</i> Over Flanges.	Area of Cross-Section, sq. inches.	Weight per ft. in pounds.		Least Radius of Gyration, in inches.
G	61	14 7/8	15 3/4	19 3/4	48.8	162.6	5.72	335.21
	66		15 7/8	19 7/8	52.8	176.	5.77	352.03
	71		16	20	56.8	189.3	5.82	378.85
	76		16 1/8	20 1/4	60.8	202.6	5.87	405.70
	86		16 3/8	20 3/8	68.8	229.3	5.95	464.38
	96		16 5/8	20 5/8	76.8	256.	6.04	513.17
	105		16 7/8	20 7/8	84.8	282.6	6.14	567.06
	116		17 1/8	21	92.8	309.3	6.23	620.98

Working Formulae for Wrought-iron and Steel Struts of Various Forms.—Burr gives the following practical formulæ, which heaves to possess advantages over Gordon's:

Kind of Strut.	<i>p</i> = Ultimate Strength, lbs. per sq. in. of Section.	<i>p</i> , = Working Strength = 1/5 Ultimate, lbs. per sq. in. of Section.
Fixed end iron angles and tees	$44000 - 140 \frac{l}{r}$ (1)	$8800 - 28 \frac{l}{r}$ (2)
Free end iron angles and tees.....	$46000 - 175 \frac{l}{r}$ (3)	$9200 - 35 \frac{l}{r}$ (4)
Iron channels and I beams....	$40000 - 110 \frac{l}{r}$ (5)	$8000 - 22 \frac{l}{r}$ (6)
Mild-steel angles.....	$53000 - 180 \frac{l}{r}$ (7)	$10400 - 36 \frac{l}{r}$ (8)
High-steel angles.....	$76000 - 290 \frac{l}{r}$ (9)	$15200 - 58 \frac{l}{r}$ (10)
Solid wrought iron columns....	$33000 - 80 \frac{l}{r}$ (11)	$6400 - 16 \frac{l}{r}$ (12)
	$33000 - 277 \frac{l}{d}$	

Equations (1) to (4) are to be used only between $\frac{l}{r} = 40$ and $\frac{l}{r} = 200$

" (5) and (6) " " " " " " " " " = 20 " " = 200
 " (7) to (10) " " " " " " " " " = 40 " " = 200
 " (11) and (12) " " " " " " " " " = 20 " " = 200

or $\frac{l}{d} = 6$ and $\frac{l}{d} = 65$

Steel columns, properly made, of steel ranging in specimens from 65,000 to 115,000 lbs. per square inch should give a resistance 35 to 33 per cent in excess of that of wrought-iron columns with the same value of $l + r$, provided the slenderness ratio does not exceed 140.

The unsupported width of a plate in a compression member should not exceed 33 times its thickness.

The distance between centre lines of rivets in lacing plates to angles or channels, etc., should not exceed 35 times the thickness. If this width is exceeded, longitudinal buckling of the

plate takes place, and the column ceases to fail as a whole, but detail.

The same tests show that the thickness of the leg of an angle latticing is riveted should not be less than $1/9$ of the length of the side if the column is purely and wholly a compression member. This limit may be passed somewhat in stiff ties and compression members designed to carry transverse loads.

The panel points of latticing should not be separated by a greater than 60 times the thickness of the angle-leg to which the latticing if the column is wholly a compression member.

The rivet pitch should never exceed 16 times the thickness of the metal pierced by the rivet, and if the plates are very thick it should be nearly equal that value.

Merriman's Rational Formula for Columns (*July 19, 1894*).

$$C = \frac{B}{1 - \frac{nB}{\pi^2 E} \frac{l^2}{r^2}} \dots \dots \dots$$

$$B = \frac{C}{1 + \frac{nC}{\pi^2 E} \frac{l^2}{r^2}} \dots \dots \dots$$

B = unit-load on the column = total load P ÷ area of cross-section
 C = maximum compressive unit-stress on the concave side of the column
 l = length of column; r = least radius of gyration of the cross-section
 E = coefficient of elasticity of the material; $n = 1$ for both ends fixed; $n = 4/9$ for one end round and one fixed; $n = 1/4$ for both ends free. This formula is for use with strains within the elastic limit only; it does not hold good when the strain C exceeds the elastic limit.

Prof. Merriman takes the mean value of E for timber = 1,500,000; for iron = 15,000,000, for wrought-iron = 25,000,000, and for steel = 30,000,000, and $\pi^2 = 10$ as a close enough approximation. With these values he publishes the following tables from formula (1):

I.—Wrought-iron Columns with Round Ends

Unit-load. $\frac{P}{A}$ or B .	Maximum Compressive Unit-stress C .						
	$\frac{l}{r} = 20$	$\frac{l}{r} = 40$	$\frac{l}{r} = 60$	$\frac{l}{r} = 80$	$\frac{l}{r} = 100$	$\frac{l}{r} = 120$	$\frac{l}{r} = 140$
5,000	5,040	5,170	5,390	5,730	6,250	6,980	8,220
6,000	6,055	6,340	6,560	7,090	7,890	9,090	11,280
7,000	7,080	7,330	7,780	8,530	9,730	11,610	13,510
8,000	8,100	8,430	9,040	10,060	11,660	14,640	21,460
9,000	9,130	9,550	10,340	11,690	14,060	18,380
10,000	10,160	10,680	11,680	13,440	16,670	23,090
11,000	11,200	11,750	13,070	15,310	19,640
12,000	12,240	13,000	14,500	17,330	23,080
13,000	13,280	14,180	15,990	19,480

6,010	6,060	6,130	6,240	6,380	6,570	6,800	7,090
7,020	7,080	7,180	7,330	7,530	7,780	8,110	8,530
8,025	8,100	8,240	8,430	8,700	9,040	9,490	10,060
9,030	9,130	9,300	9,550	9,890	10,340	10,930	11,690
10,040	10,160	10,370	10,710	11,110	11,680	12,440	13,440
11,050	11,300	11,450	11,830	12,360	13,070	14,020	15,310
12,060	12,340	12,540	13,000	13,640	14,510	15,690	17,320
13,070	13,380	13,640	14,210	14,940	15,990	17,440	19,480
14,080	14,320	14,740	15,380	16,280	17,530	19,290	21,820

III.—Steel Columns with Round Ends.

Maximum Compressive Unit-stress C .

$\frac{l}{r} = 20$	$\frac{l}{r} = 40$	$\frac{l}{r} = 60$	$\frac{l}{r} = 80$	$\frac{l}{r} = 100$	$\frac{l}{r} = 120$	$\frac{l}{r} = 140$	$\frac{l}{r} = 160$
6,050	6,200	6,470	6,880	7,500	8,430	9,870	12,300
7,070	7,370	7,650	8,230	9,130	10,540	12,900	17,400
8,090	8,380	8,770	9,650	10,970	12,990	16,760	24,590
9,110	9,450	10,060	11,140	12,850	15,850	20,990
10,130	10,560	11,360	12,710	15,000	19,230	28,850
11,160	11,690	12,670	14,370	17,370	23,300
12,200	12,820	14,030	16,190	20,000	28,300
13,330	13,970	15,400	18,000	22,940
14,350	15,130	16,830	19,960	26,250

IV.—Steel Columns with Fixed Ends.

Maximum Compressive Unit-stress C .

$\frac{l}{r} = 20$	$\frac{l}{r} = 40$	$\frac{l}{r} = 60$	$\frac{l}{r} = 80$	$\frac{l}{r} = 100$	$\frac{l}{r} = 120$	$\frac{l}{r} = 140$	$\frac{l}{r} = 160$
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computing C by formula (1). If the agreement between the spect computed values is not sufficiently close, new dimensions must be and the computation be repeated. By the use of the above tables it will be shortened.

The formula (1) may be put in another form which in some cases brieve the numerical work. For B substitute its value $P \div A$, Ar^2 write I , the least moment of inertia of the cross-section; then

$$I - \frac{P}{C}r^2 = \frac{nPl^2}{\pi^2 E}, \dots \dots \dots$$

in which I and r^2 are to be determined.

For example, let it be required to find the size of a square oak with fixed ends when loaded with 24,000 lbs. and 16 ft. long, so maximum compressive stress C shall be 1000 lbs. per square inch $I = 24,000$, $C = 1000$, $n = \frac{1}{4}$, $\pi^2 = 10$, $E = 1,500,000$, $l = 16 \times 12$, as comes

$$I - 24r^2 = 14.75.$$

Now let x be the side of the square; then

$$I = \frac{x^4}{12} \quad \text{and} \quad r^2 = \frac{x^2}{12},$$

so that the equation reduces to $x^4 - 24x^2 = 177$, from which x^2 is fou 29.92 sq. in., and the side $x = 5.47$ in. Thus the unit-load B is a lbs. per square inch.

WORKING STRAINS ALLOWED IN BRIDGE MEMBERS.

Theodore Cooper gives the following in his Bridge Specifications: Compression members shall be so proportioned that the maxim shall in no case cause a greater strain than that determined by the ing formula:

$$P = \frac{8000}{1 + \frac{l^2}{40,000r^2}} \text{ for square-end compression members;}$$

$$P = \frac{8000}{1 + \frac{l^2}{30,000r^2}} \text{ for compression members with one pin and one squ}$$

$$P = \frac{8000}{1 + \frac{l^2}{20,000r^2}} \text{ for compression members with pin-bearings;}$$

(These values may be increased in bridges over 150 ft. span. See Specifications.)

P = the allowed compression per square inch of cross-section;

l = the length of compression member, in inches;

r = the least radius of gyration of the section in inches.

No compression member, however, shall have a length exceeding its least width.

The Phoenix Bridge Company give the following:

The greatest working stresses in wrought-iron compression mem spans 150 feet in length and under shall be the following:

	Flat Ends.	Pin En
Phoenix column.....	$P = \frac{8400}{1 + \frac{l^2}{50,000r^2}}$	$P = \frac{8400}{1 + \frac{l^2}{30,000r^2}}$
Latticed or common column.....	$P = \frac{8000}{1 + \frac{l^2}{40,000r^2}}$	$P = \frac{7500}{1 + \frac{l^2}{30,000r^2}}$
.....	$P = 9000 - 30 \frac{l}{v}$	$P = 2000 -$

ords shall be proportioned by the flat-end formula.
 etween flat-end and pin-end results shall be used for one pin end
 end.
 nd transverse struts shall be designed by taking working stresses
 e and four tenths those given by the preceding formulæ.

Stresses allowed in Bridge Tension Members.

(Theodore Cooper's Specifications.)

of the structure shall be so proportioned that the maximum
 in no case cause a greater tension than the following (except in
 ding 150 feet) :

	Pounds per sq. in.
ral bracing	15,000
l rolled beams, used as cross floor-beams and stringers.	9,000
om chords and main diagonals (forged eye-bars)	10,000
om chords and main diagonals (plates or shapes), net ion	8,000
ater rods and long verticals (forged eye-bars)	8,000
ter and long verticals (plates or shapes), net section..	6,500
om flange of riveted cross-girders, net section	8,000
om flange of riveted longitudinal plate girders over t. long, net section	8,000
om flange of riveted longitudinal plate girders under t. long, net section	7,000
r-beam hangers, and other similar members liable to den loading (bar iron with forged ends)	6,000
r beam hangers, and other similar members liable to den loading (plates or shapes), net section	5,000

subject to alternate strains of tension and compression shall be
 ed to resist each kind of strain. Both of the strains shall, how-
 sidered as increased by an amount equal to 8/10 of the least of
 rains, for determining the sectional area by the above allowed

enix Bridge Company specify : The greatest working stresses in
 it-iron tensile members of railway spans 150 feet in length and
 ll be as follows:

	Pounds per sq. in.
ater web members	8,000
r verticals	8,000
n-web and lower-chord members (eye-bars)	10,000
ension loops	7,000
ension plates (net section)	7,000
ion members of lateral and transverse bracing	15,000
ter rods and long verticals of lattice girders (net sec- tion)	7,000
er chords and main tension members o' lattice girders (t section)	8,000
om flange of plate girders (net section)	8,000
om flange of rolled beams	8,000
e-iron lateral ties (net section)	12,000

over 150 feet in length, the greatest working tensile stresses per
 a of wrought iron, lower-chord and end main-web eye-bars, shall

$$8000 \left(1 + 0.9 \times \frac{\text{min. total stress}}{\text{max. total stress}} \right)$$

this quantity exceeds 10,000.

Working Stresses for Steel.

test allowed working stresses for steel tension members, for
 0 feet in length and less, shall be as follows :

	Pounds sq. ft.
In counter web members.....	10.0
In long verticals	10.0
In all main-web and lower-chord eye-bars.....	12.2
In plate hangers (net section).....	9.0
In tension members of lateral and transverse bracing.....	13.0
In steel-angle lateral ties (net section).....	15.0

For spans over 200 feet in length the greatest allowed working stress per square inch, in lower-chord and end main-web eye-bars, shall be taken

$$10,000 \left(1 + \frac{\text{min. total stress}}{\text{max. total stress}} \right)$$

whenever this quantity exceeds 13,200.

The greatest allowable stress in the main-web eye-bars nearest the ends of such spans shall be taken at 13,200 pounds per square inch; and for the intermediate eye-bars shall be found by direct interpolation between the preceding values.

The greatest allowable working stresses in steel plate and lattice girders and rolled beams shall be taken as follows:

	Pounds sq. ft.
Upper flange of plate girders (gross section).....	10.0
Lower flange of plate girders (net section).....	10.0
In counters and long verticals of lattice girders (net section).....	9.0
In lower chords and main diagonals of lattice girders (net section).....	10.0
In bottom flanges of rolled beams.....	10.0
In top flanges of rolled beams.....	10.0

RESISTANCE OF HOLLOW CYLINDERS TO COLLAPSE.

Fairbairn's empirical formula (*Phil. Trans.* 1858) is

$$p = 9,675,600 \frac{t^{2.19}}{ld}$$

where p = pressure in lbs. per square inch, t = thickness of cylinder diameter, and l = length, all in inches; or,

$$p = 806,600 \frac{t^{2.19}}{Ld}, \text{ if } L \text{ is in feet.}$$

He recommends the simpler formula

$$p = 9,675,600 \frac{t^2}{ld}$$

as sufficiently accurate for practical purposes, for tubes of considerable diameter and length.

The diameters of Fairbairn's experimental tubes were 4", 6", 8", 10", 12", and their lengths, between the cast-iron ends, ranged between 19 ft. and 50 inches.

His formula (3) has been generally accepted as the basis of rule ascertaining the strength of boiler flues. In some cases, however, risk fixed to its application by a supplementary formula.

Lloyd's Register contains the following formula for the strength of cast boiler-flues, viz.,

$$P = \frac{89,000t^2}{Ld}$$

The English Board of Trade prescribes the following formula for cast flues, when the longitudinal joints are welded, or made with riveted straps, viz.,

$$P = \frac{90,000t^2}{(L+1)d}$$

For superior workmanship and for inferior workmanship the numerical factor is reduced to 60,000.

Lloyd's Register, as well as those of the Board of Trade, pre- that in no case the value of P must exceed the amount given by the equation, viz.,

$$P = \frac{8000t}{d} \dots \dots \dots (6)$$

(4), (5), (6) P is the highest working pressure in pounds per square inch, and d are the thickness and diameter in inches, L is the length in feet measured between the strengthening rings, in case of such. Formula (4) is the same as formula (3), with a factor of 1. In formula (5) the length L is increased by 1; the influence of this condition has on the value of P is, of course, greater for short than for long ones.

As deduced from Fairbairn's experiments the following formula gives the strength of flues:

$$p = \frac{4Tl^2}{d\sqrt{L}} \dots \dots \dots (7)$$

where d have the same meaning as in formula (1), L is the length in feet, T the tensile strength of the metal in pounds per square inch, and l to T the value 50,000, and express the length of the flue in feet. Equation (7) assumes the following form, viz.,

$$p = 692,800 \frac{l^2}{d\sqrt{l}} \dots \dots \dots (8)$$

Clark considers a factor of safety of 4 sufficient in applying his formula. ("Treatise on Steam Engineering," by J. W. Nystrom, p. 106.) Equations (4), (5), (6), (7), (8) have the common defect that they make the pressure decrease indefinitely with increase of length, and vice versa. As deduced from Fairbairn's experiments an equation of the same form, which, reduced to English measures, is as follows, viz.,

$$p = 5,358,150 \frac{l^2}{d} + 41,906 \frac{l^2}{d} + 1323 \frac{l}{d} \dots \dots \dots (9)$$

Clark's equation is the same as in formula (1). Clark, in his "Manual of Rules," etc., p. 696, gives the dimensions of flues selected from the reports of the Manchester Steam-Users Association, which collapsed while in actual use in boilers. These flues were from 21 to 60 inches in diameter, and from 3-16 to 5/8 inch in thickness, and consisted of rings of plates riveted together, with one or two longitudinal flanges, all of them unfortified by intermediate flanges or strengthening rings. At the collapsing pressures the flues experienced compressions of 1.53 to 2.17 tons, or a mean compression of 1.82 tons per square inch. From these data Clark deduced the following formula for the average resisting force of common boiler-flues, viz.,

$$p = l^2 \left(\frac{50,000}{d} - 500 \right) \dots \dots \dots (10)$$

where p is the collapsing pressure in pounds per square inch, and d and l are the diameter and thickness expressed in inches. Clark, in *Van Nostrand's Magazine*, March, 1881, discussing the above formula, shows that experimental data are as yet insufficient to confirm the value of any of the formulae. He says that Nystrom's formula gives a closer agreement of the calculated with the actual collapses in experiments on flues of every description than any of the other formulae.

Strength of Pressure of Plain Iron Tubes or Flues.

(Clark, S. E., vol. i. p. 643.)

The resistance to collapse of plain-riveted flues is directly as the square of the diameter of the plate, and inversely as the square of the diameter. The distance between the two ends of the flue does not practically extend over a length greater than twice or three times the diameter. The collapsing pressure of long flues is therefore practically independent of the length.

Instances of collapsed flues of Cornish and Lancashire boilers coll. Clark, showed that the resistance to collapse of flues of $\frac{3}{8}$ -inch plate 43 feet long, and 30 to 50 inches diameter, varied as the $\frac{1}{75}$ power diameter. Thus,

for diameters of.....	30	35	40	45	50	inches,
the collapsing pressures were.....	76	58	45	37	30	lbs. per sq.
for 7-16-inch plates the collapsing pressures were.....	60	49	42	" "

For collapsing pressures of plain iron fine-tubes of Cornish and shire steam-boilers, Clark gives:

$$P = \frac{200,000t^2}{d^{1.75}}$$

P = collapsing pressure, in pounds per square inch;
 t = thickness of the plates of the furnace tube, in inches.
 d = internal diameter of the furnace tube, in inches.

For short lengths the longitudinal tensile resistance may be effecting the resistance to collapse. Flues efficiently fortified by joints or hoops at intervals of 3 feet may be enabled to resist from 60 lbs. or 70 lbs. pressure per square inch more than plain tubes, according to the thickness of the plates.

Strength of Small Tubes.—The collapsing resistance of drawn tubes of small diameter, and from .134 inch to .109 inch in thickness has been tested experimentally by Messrs. J. Russell & Sons. The results for wrought-iron tubes varied from 14.33 to 20.07 tons per square inch of the metal, averaging 18.30 tons, as against 17.57 to 24.38 tons, including 22.40 tons, for the bursting pressure.

(For strength of Segmental Crowns of Furnaces and Cylinders see S. E., vol. I, pp. 649-651 and pp. 627, 628.)

Formula for Corrugated Furnaces (*Eng'g.*, July 31, 1902).—As the result of a series of experiments on the resistance to collapse of Fox's corrugated furnaces, the Board of Trade and Lloyd's Board altered their formula for these furnaces in 1891 as follows:

Board of Trade formula is altered from

$$\frac{12,500 \times T}{D} = WP \text{ to } \frac{14,000 \times T}{D} = WP.$$

T = thickness in inches;
 D = mean diameter of furnace;
 WP = working pressure in pounds per square inch.
 Lloyd's formula is altered from

$$\frac{1000 \times (T^2)}{D} = WP \text{ to } \frac{1234 \times (T^2)}{D} = WP.$$

T = thickness in sixteenths of an inch;
 D = greatest diameter of furnace;
 WP = working pressure in pounds per square inch.

TRANSVERSE STRENGTH.

In transverse tests the strength of bars of rectangular section is found to vary directly as the breadth of the specimen tested, as the square of the depth, and inversely as its length. The deflection under any load is directly as the length, and inversely as the breadth and as the cube of the depth. Represented algebraically, if S = the strength and D the deflection, l the length, b the breadth, and d the depth,

$$S \text{ varies as } \frac{bd^2}{l} \text{ and } D \text{ varies as } \frac{l^3}{bd^3}.$$

For the purpose of reducing the strength of pieces of various sizes to a standard, the term modulus of rupture (represented by R) value is obtained by experiment on a bar of rectangular

ed at the ends and loaded in the middle and substituting numerical values in the following formula :

$$R = \frac{3}{2} \frac{Pl}{bd^3}$$

where P = the breaking load in pounds, l = the length in inches, b the breadth, and d the depth.

The *modulus of rupture* is sometimes defined as the strain at the instant of rupture upon a unit of the section which is most remote from the neutral axis on the side which first ruptures. This definition, however, is based upon a theory which is yet in dispute among authorities, and it is better to use it as a numerical value, or experimental constant, found by the application of the formula above given.

Using the above formula, making l 12 inches, and b and d each 1 inch, it is found that the modulus of rupture is 18 times the load required to break a beam of 1 inch square, supported at two points one foot apart, the load being applied in the middle.

The coefficient of transverse strength = $\frac{\text{span in feet} \times \text{load at middle in lbs.}}{\text{breadth in inches} \times (\text{depth in inches})^2}$
 $= \frac{1}{18}$ th of the modulus of rupture.

Fundamental Formulae for Flexure of Beams (Merriman).

Vertical shear = vertical shear;

Bending moment = bending moment;

Sum of tensile stresses = sum of compressive stresses;

Vertical shear = algebraic sum of all the vertical components of the internal stresses at any section of the beam.

A = the area of the section and S_v the shearing unit stress, then resistance = AS_v , and if the vertical shear = V , then $V = AS_v$.

Vertical shear is the algebraic sum of all the external vertical forces on one side of the section considered. It is equal to the reaction of one support considered as a force acting upward, minus the sum of all the vertical downward forces acting between the support and the section.

Bending moment = algebraic sum of all the moments of the internal stresses at any section with reference to a point in that section.

$M = \frac{SI}{c}$, in which S = the horizontal unit stress, tensile or compressive stress.

c = the distance may be, upon the fibre most remote from the neutral axis, c = the shortest distance from that fibre to said axis, and I = the moment of inertia of the cross-section with reference to that axis.

Bending moment M is the algebraic sum of the moment of the external forces on one side of the section with reference to a point in that section = moment of the reaction of one support minus sum of moments of all the forces between the support and the section considered.

$$M = \frac{SI}{c}$$

Bending moment is a compound quantity = product of a force by the distance of its point of application from the section considered, the distance being measured on a line drawn from the section perpendicular to the line of the action of the force.

Concerning the above formula, Prof. Merriman, *Eng. News*, July 21, 1894.

The formula just quoted is true when the unit-stress S on the part of the beam farthest from the neutral axis is within the elastic limit of the material. It is not true when this limit is exceeded, because then the neutral axis does not pass through the centre of gravity of the cross-section, and hence also the different longitudinal stresses are not proportional to their distances from that axis, these two requirements being involved in the derivation of the formula. But in all cases of design the permissible unit-stresses should not exceed the elastic limit, and hence the formula applies generally, without regarding the ultimate strength of the material or any other circumstances regarding rupture. Indeed so great reliance is placed upon this formula that the practice of testing beams by rupture has been almost entirely abandoned, and the allowable unit-stresses are mainly determined from tensile and compressive tests.

GENERAL FORMULÆ FOR TRANSVERSE STRENGTH OF BEAMS OF UNIFORM CROSS-SECTION.

Beam.	Rectangular Beam.		Beam of any Section.		
	Breaking Load.	Deflection for Load P or W .	Maximum Moment of Stress.	Moment of Rupture.	Deflection. Δ
Fixed at one end, load at the other.....	$P = \frac{1}{6} \frac{Ebd^2}{l}$	$\frac{4Pl^3}{Ebd^3}$	$Pl =$	$\frac{EI}{c}$	$\frac{1}{3} \frac{Pl^3}{EI}$
Same with load distributed uniformly.....	$W = \frac{1}{8} \frac{Ebd^2}{l}$	$\frac{3Wl^3}{2Ebd^3}$	$\frac{1}{2} Wl =$	$\frac{EI}{c}$	$\frac{1}{8} \frac{Wl^3}{EI}$
Supported at ends, loaded in middle.....	$P = \frac{2}{3} \frac{Ebd^2}{l}$	$\frac{Pl^3}{4Ebd^3}$	$\frac{1}{4} Pl =$	$\frac{EI}{c}$	$\frac{1}{48} \frac{Pl^3}{EI}$
Same loaded uniformly.....	$W = \frac{4}{3} \frac{Ebd^2}{l}$	$\frac{5Wl^3}{32Ebd^3}$	$\frac{1}{8} Wl =$	$\frac{EI}{c}$	$\frac{5}{384} \frac{Wl^3}{EI}$
Same, loaded at middle, and also } with uniform load, }	$2P + W = \frac{4}{3} \frac{Ebd^2}{l}$	$\frac{1}{4} \left(P + \frac{1}{8} W \right) l^3 =$	$\left(\frac{1}{4} P + \frac{1}{8} W \right) l =$	$\frac{EI}{c}$	$\frac{1}{48} \left(P + \frac{5}{8} W \right) \frac{l^3}{EI}$
Fixed at both ends, loaded in middle.....	$P = \frac{4}{8} \frac{Ebd^2}{l}$	$\frac{1}{16} \frac{Pl^3}{Ebd^3}$	$\frac{1}{8} Pl =$	$\frac{EI}{c}$	$\frac{1}{192} \frac{Pl^3}{EI}$
Same, Barlow's Experiments.....	$P = \frac{Ebd^2}{l}$		$\frac{1}{6} Pl =$	$\frac{EI}{c}$	Wl^3
Same, uniformly loaded.....	$W = \frac{2}{l} \frac{Ebd^2}{l}$	$\frac{1}{32} \frac{Wl^3}{Ebd^3}$	$\frac{1}{12} Wl =$	$\frac{EI}{c}$	$\frac{384}{EI}$
Fixed at one end, supported at the } other, loaded at .684l from fixed end, }		$\frac{.1148 Pl^3}{Ebd^3}$	$\frac{3}{8} \left(2 \sqrt[3]{3-3} \right) Pl =$	$\frac{EI}{c}$	$\frac{105}{EI}$ (nearly).
Same uniformly loaded.....	$W = \frac{4}{3} \frac{Ebd^2}{l}$	$\frac{.0648 Wl^3}{Ebd^3}$	$\frac{1}{5} Wl =$	$\frac{EI}{c}$	Wl^3 $\frac{156}{EI}$ (nearly).

Rule for Transverse Strength of Beams.—Referring to preceding page,
 ad at middle;
 total load, distributed uniformly;
 length, b = breadth, d = depth, in inches;
 modulus of elasticity;
 modulus of rupture, or stress per square inch of extreme fibre;
 moment of inertia;
 distance between neutral axis and extreme fibre,
 working load of circular section, replace bd^2 by $0.59d^3$.
 For wrought iron the value of R is about 80,000, for steel about 120,000,
 percentage of carbon apparently having no influence. (Thurston, Iron
 l. p. 491).
 For cast iron the value of R varies greatly according to quality. Thurston
 7,340 and 67,980 in No. 2 and No. 4 cast iron, respectively.
 Beams fixed at both ends and loaded in the middle, Barlow, by experiment
 and the maximum moment of stress = $1/6Pl$ instead of $1/8Pl$, the
 phenomena are of too complex a character to admit of a thorough and
 analysis, and it is probably safer to accept the results of Mr. Barlow
 than to depend upon theoretical results.

APPROXIMATE GREATEST SAFE LOADS IN LBS. ON STEEL BEAMS. (Pencey's Iron Works.)

For iron fibre strains of 16,800 lbs. for steel. (For iron the loads should be
 less, corresponding to a fibre strain of 14,000 lbs. per square inch).
 l = length in feet between supports; a = interior area in square
 inches;
 d = interior depth in inches.
 w = working load in net tons.

of in.	Greatest Safe Load in Pounds		Deflection in Inches.	
	Load in Middle.	Load Distributed.	Load in Middle.	Load Distributed.
rect.	$\frac{940AD}{L}$	$\frac{1880AD}{L}$	$\frac{wL^3}{32AD^2}$	$\frac{wL^3}{52AD^2}$
rect.	$\frac{940(AD-ad)}{L}$	$\frac{1880(AD-ad)}{L}$	$\frac{wL^3}{32(AD^2-ad^2)}$	$\frac{wL^3}{52(AD^2-ad^2)}$
lin.	$\frac{700AD}{L}$	$\frac{1400AD}{L}$	$\frac{wL^3}{24AD^2}$	$\frac{wL^3}{38AD^2}$
lin.	$\frac{700(AD-ad)}{L}$	$\frac{1400(AD-ad)}{L}$	$\frac{wL^3}{24(AD^2-ad^2)}$	$\frac{wL^3}{38(AD^2-ad^2)}$
tri.	$\frac{930AD}{L}$	$\frac{1860AD}{L}$	$\frac{wL^3}{32AD^2}$	$\frac{wL^3}{52AD^2}$
tri.	$\frac{1600AD}{L}$	$\frac{3200AD}{L}$	$\frac{wL^3}{53AD^2}$	$\frac{wL^3}{85AD^2}$
tri.	$\frac{1450AD}{L}$	$\frac{2900AD}{L}$	$\frac{wL^3}{50AD^2}$	$\frac{wL^3}{80AD^2}$
tri.	$\frac{1780AD}{L}$	$\frac{3560AD}{L}$	$\frac{wL^3}{58AD^2}$	$\frac{wL^3}{93AD^2}$
	II	III	IV	V

The above formulæ for the strength and stiffness of rolled beams in various sections are intended for convenient application in cases where strict accuracy is not required.

The rules for rectangular and circular sections are correct, while the flanged sections are approximate, and limited in their application to standard shapes as given in the Pencoyd tables. When the section of a beam is increased above the standard minimum dimensions, the flange remaining unaltered, and the web alone being thickened, the tendency is for the load as found by the rules to be in excess of the actual; but the limits that it is possible to vary any section in the rolling, the will apply without any serious inaccuracy.

The calculated safe loads will be approximately one half of loads that would injure the elasticity of the materials.

The rules for deflection apply to any load below the elastic limit, and should be doubled the greatest safe load by the rules.

If the beams are long without lateral support, reduce the loads to ratios of width to span as follows:

Length of Beam.	Proportion of Calculated Load forming Greatest Safe Load.
20 times flange width.	Whole calculated load.
30 " " "	9-10 " "
40 " " "	8-10 " "
50 " " "	7-10 " "
60 " " "	6-10 " "
70 " " "	5-10 " "

These rules apply to beams supported at each end. For beams supported otherwise, alter the coefficients of the table as described below, referring to the respective columns indicated by number.

Changes of Coefficients for Special Forms of Beam

Kind of Beam.	Coefficient for Safe Load.	Coefficient for Deflection.
Fixed at one end, loaded at the other.	One fourth of the coefficient, col. II.	One sixteenth of the coefficient of col. IV.
Fixed at one end, load evenly distributed.	One fourth of the coefficient of col. III.	Five forty-eighths of the coefficient of col. V.
Both ends rigidly fixed, or a continuous beam, with a load in middle.	Twice the coefficient of col. II.	Four times the coefficient of col. IV.
Both ends rigidly fixed, or a continuous beam, with load evenly distributed.	One and one-half times the coefficient of col. III.	Five times the coefficient of col. V.

ELASTIC RESILIENCE.

In a rectangular beam tested by transverse stress, supported at the ends and loaded in the middle,

$$P = \frac{2}{3} \frac{Rbd^2}{l};$$

$$\Delta = \frac{1}{4} \frac{Pl^3}{Ebd^3};$$

in which, if P is the load in pounds at the elastic limit, R is the modulus of transverse strength, or the strain on the extreme fibre, at the elastic limit, E = modulus of elasticity, Δ = deflection, l , b , and d = length, breadth and depth in inches. Substituting for P in (2) its value in (1), we have

$$\Delta = \frac{1}{6} \frac{Rl^3}{Ebd}.$$

resilience = half the product of the load and deflection = $\frac{1}{2}P\Delta$,
 resilience per cubic inch

$$= \frac{1}{2} \frac{P\Delta}{bd}$$

the values of P and Δ , this reduces to elastic resilience per
 $\frac{1}{18} \frac{R^2}{E}$, which is independent of the dimensions; and therefore
 resilience per cubic inch for transverse strain may be used as a
 measuring one valuable quality of a material.

or tension;

elastic stress in pounds per square inch at the elastic limit;

elongation per unit of length at the elastic limit;

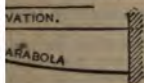
modulus of elasticity = $P \div e$; whence $e = P \div E$.

resilience per cubic inch = $\frac{1}{2}Pe = \frac{1}{2} \frac{P^2}{E}$.

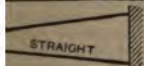
OF UNIFORM STRENGTH THROUGHOUT THEIR LENGTH.

is supposed in all cases to be rectangular throughout. The
 in plan are of uniform depth throughout. Those shown in
 of uniform breadth throughout.

B = breadth of beam. D = depth of beam.



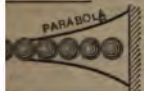
Fixed at one end, loaded at the other;
 curve parabola, vertex at loaded end; BD^2
 proportional to distance from loaded end.
 The beam may be reversed, so that the
 upper edge is parabolic, or both edges may be
 parabolic.



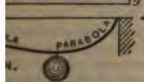
Fixed at one end, loaded at the other;
 triangle, apex at loaded end; BD^2 propo-
 rtional to the distance from the loaded end.



Fixed at one end; load distributed; tri-
 angle, apex at unsupported end; BD^2 propo-
 rtional to square of distance from un-
 supported end.



Fixed at one end; load distributed; curves
 two parabolas, vertices touching each other
 at unsupported end; BD^2 proportional to
 distance from unsupported end.



Supported at both ends; load at any one
 point; two parabolas, vertices at the points
 of support, bases at point loaded; BD^2 pro-
 portional to distance from nearest point of
 support. The upper edge or both edges
 may also be parabolic.



Supported at both ends; load at any one
 point; two triangles, apices at points of
 support, bases at point loaded; BD^2 propo-
 rtional to distance from the nearest point of
 support.



Supported at both ends; load distributed;
 curves two parabolas, vertices at the middle
 of the beam; bases centre line of beam; BD^2
 proportional to product of distances from
 points of support.



Supported at both ends; load distributed;
 curve semi-ellipse; BD^2 proportional to the
 product of the distances from the points of
 support.

PROPERTIES OF ROLLED STRUCTURAL SH.**Explanation of Tables of the Properties of Carnegie Beams, Channels, and Z Bars.**

The tables of I beams are calculated for the minimum weight each pattern can be rolled. The tables of channels are calculated for minimum and maximum weights of the various shapes, while the tables of Z bars are given for thicknesses differing by 1/16 inch.

Columns 11 and 13, in the tables for I beams and channels, give coefficients by the help of which the safe uniformly-distributed load may readily be determined. To do this, divide the coefficient given by the span or between supports in feet. If the weight of the section is intermediate between the minimum and maximum weights given, add to the coefficient for the minimum weight the value given in columns 12 or 14 (for an increase of weight), multiplied by the number of pounds the weight is heavier than the minimum.

If a section is to be selected (as will usually be the case) to carry a certain load, for a length of span already determined on, the coefficient which this load and span will require, and refer to the table for a section having a coefficient of this value. The coefficient is then multiplied by the load, in pounds uniformly distributed, by the length in feet.

In case the load is not uniformly distributed, but is concentrated in the middle of the span, multiply the load by 2 and then consider it as uniformly distributed. The deflection will be 8/10 of the deflection for the latter load.

For other cases of loading obtain the bending moment in foot-pounds, multiplied by 8 will give the coefficient required.

If the loads are quiescent, the coefficients for a fibre strain of 10,000 lbs. per square inch for steel and 12,000 lbs. for iron may be used. For moving loads are to be provided for, the coefficients for 12,500 and 15,000 lbs., respectively, should be taken. Inasmuch as the effects of impact are very considerable (the strains produced in an unyielding material by a load suddenly applied being double those produced by the same load in a quiescent state), it will sometimes be advisable to take smaller fibre strains than those given in the tables. In such cases the coefficients can readily be determined by proportion. Thus, for a fibre strain of 8000 lbs. per square inch the coefficient will equal the coefficient for 10,000 lbs. fibre strain, from the table, multiplied by 8/10.

The moments of resistance given in column 9 are used to determine the fibre strain per square inch in a beam, or other shape, subjected to a bending moment, or transverse strains, by dividing the same into the bending moment, expressed in inch-pounds.

For Carnegie Z bars, complete tables of moments of inertia, moments of resistance, radii of gyration, and values of the coefficients (C) are given for thicknesses varying by 1/16 inch. These coefficients may be applied as explained above, for cases where the Z bars are subjected to a bending moment, as, for example, in the case of roof-purlins.

For more complete and detailed information concerning structural steel, consult the pocket-books and circulars issued by the manufacturer.

[A more correct term for what is called "moment of resistance" and also in the tables on pages 274-277, is "moment of resisting area." Johnson, *Eng'g News*, Feb. 27, 1896. Reuleaux calls it "section factor".]

PROPERTIES OF ROLLED STRUCTURAL SHAPES. 273

SPECIAL.
 Proper Distance in Feet, Centres to Centres of Holes.

Distance be- tween Ripp- ports in Feet	33" L.		15" L.			12" L.			10" L.		9" L.		8" L. lbs.	7" L. lbs.	6" L. lbs.	5" L. lbs.	4" L. lbs.		
	80 lbs.	64 lbs.	80 lbs.	60 lbs.	50 lbs.	41 lbs.	40 lbs.	32 lbs.	25½ lbs.	27 lbs.	31 lbs.								
	107.3	84.9	57.6	63.6	52.3	41.9	34.7	27.4	23.9	18.3	18.2	13.9							
12	21.5	73.3	66.1	54.2	44.6	35.7	29.5	23.4	20.4	15.6	15.5	11.8	6	32	18	10	10	7½	
13	18.8	62.4	57.0	46.7	38.4	30.8	25.5	20.2	17.5	13.5	13.4	10.2	7	33.1	16	13	13	10	8.4
14	17.8	62.4	57.0	46.7	38.4	30.8	25.5	20.2	17.5	13.5	13.4	10.2	7	33.1	16	13	13	10	8.4
15	16.8	54.3	50.0	40.7	33.5	26.8	22.2	17.6	15.3	11.7	11.7	8.9	8	29.9	14	11	11	8	6.4
16	16.0	47.7	43.7	35.8	29.4	23.6	19.5	15.4	13.4	10.3	10.2	7.8	9	23.7	12	10	10	8	6.4
17	15.3	42.3	38.7	31.7	26.1	20.9	17.3	13.7	11.9	9.1	9.1	6.9	10	19.2	11	11	11	8	5.1
18	14.7	37.7	34.5	28.3	23.3	18.6	15.4	12.2	10.5	8.1	8.1	6.2	11	15.8	12	12	12	8	4.1
19	14.2	33.9	31.0	25.4	20.9	16.7	13.9	10.9	9.5	7.3	7.3	5.5	12	13.8	12	12	12	7	3.1
20	13.6	30.6	28.0	23.9	18.8	15.1	12.5	9.9	8.6	6.6	6.6	5.0	13	11.8	11	11	11	6	2.4
21	13.0	27.7	25.3	20.8	17.1	13.7	11.3	8.9	7.8	6.0	6.0	4.5	14	9.8	9	9	9	5	1.6
22	12.5	25.3	23.1	18.9	15.6	12.5	10.3	8.2	7.1	5.5	5.4	4.1	15	8.5	8	8	8	4	1.4
23	12.0	23.1	21.1	17.3	14.2	11.4	9.5	7.5	6.5	5.0	5.0	3.8	16	7.5	7	7	7	3	1.2
24	11.5	21.2	19.4	15.9	13.1	10.5	8.7	6.9	6.0	4.6	4.6	3.5	17	6.6	6	6	6	2	1.1
25	11.0	19.6	17.9	14.7	12.1	9.6	8.0	6.3	5.5	4.2	4.2	3.2	18	5.9	5	5	5	2	1.0
26	10.5	18.1	16.5	13.5	11.1	8.9	7.4	5.8	5.1	3.9	3.9	3.0	19	5.3	4	4	4	2	1.0
27	10.0	16.8	15.3	12.6	10.3	8.3	6.9	5.4	4.7	3.6	3.6	2.7	20	4.8	3	3	3	2	1.0
28	9.5	15.6	14.3	11.7	9.6	7.7	6.4	5.0	4.4	3.4	3.4	2.6	21	4.3	3	3	3	2	1.0
29	9.0	14.5	13.3	10.9	9.0	7.3	5.9	4.7	4.1	3.1	3.1	2.4	22	4.0	3	3	3	2	1.0
30	8.5	13.6	12.4	10.2	8.4	6.7	5.6	4.4	3.8	2.9	2.9	2.2	23	3.8	3	3	3	2	1.0

For any other load than 100 lbs. per square foot, divide the spacing given by the ratio the given load per square foot bears to 100.
 For a load of 150 lbs. per square foot divide by 1.5. Maximum fibre strain, 16,000 lbs. per square inch.
 Apply figures above the cross lines should be used for plastered ceilings, so that the deflection will not cause cracking of the plaster.

Properties of Carnegie I Beams—Steel.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Section Index.	Depth of Beam.	Weight per foot.	Area of Section.	Thickness of Web.	Width of Flange.	Thickness of Web for each Increase of Flange.	Moment of Inertia, Neutral Axis Perpendicular to Web at Centre.	Moment of Resistance, Neutral Axis as before.	r Radius of Gyration, Neutral Axis as before.	C Coefficient of Strength for Fibre Strain of 16,000 lbs. per sq. inch. Buildings.	Add to Coeff. for every lb. increase in Wt. of Beam.	C Coefficient of Strength for Fibre Strain of 12,500 lbs. per sq. inch. Used for Bridges.	Add to Coeff. for every lb. increase in Wt. of Beam.	T Moment of Inertia, Neutral Axis, with Cent Line of Web.	r' Radius of Gyration, Neutral Axis as before.
B 1	18	35	10.5	1.50	6.95	.0123	205.0	171.6	9.42	189050	12800	1430100	10000	41.6	1.34
B 2	20	80	22.5	1.60	7.00	.015	144.9	144.0	7.85	154560	10450	1307500	8500	45.6	1.39
B 3	20	64	18.8	1.50	6.25	.015	146.0	114.6	7.80	122600	7800	955000	6100	27.3	1.30
B 4	15	90	23.5	1.77	6.41	.020	178.0	101.9	6.82	111750	7800	873500	6100	42.3	1.35
B 5	15	60	17.6	1.54	6.04	.020	63.0	85.9	6.64	73380	7800	718500	6100	30.4	1.32
B 6	15	50	14.7	1.45	5.75	.020	59.7	76.6	6.00	60380	6800	588500	6100	21.0	1.30
B 7	15	41	12.0	1.40	5.50	.025	43.1	56.6	5.94	50010	6800	507000	4900	16.0	1.28
B 8	12	39	11.7	1.39	5.50	.025	38.1	46.9	4.80	39320	5200	398500	4900	16.0	1.30
B 9	10	32	9.4	1.27	5.25	.025	22.3	37.0	4.88	34400	5200	298800	4100	10.8	1.04
B 10	10	25.5	7.5	1.22	4.75	.029	15.3	32.3	4.08	26380	4600	205100	4100	7.83	1.00
B 11	9	27	7.9	1.31	4.75	.033	11.6	24.7	4.06	22280	4600	164000	3800	5.10	1.07
B 12	9	21	6.2	1.27	4.50	.037	8.4	18.7	3.70	19940	4200	156100	3300	4.56	0.95
B 13	8	18	5.3	1.27	4.50	.037	7.0	18.0	3.35	19160	4200	149700	3300	4.62	1.01
B 14	8	22	6.5	1.35	4.25	.043	5.8	14.4	3.30	15400	3600	119300	2800	3.82	0.97
B 15	7	20	5.9	1.27	4.25	.043	4.9	14.2	2.91	15140	3600	118900	2800	3.47	0.87
B 16	6	15.5	4.6	1.23	4.00	.049	3.6	11.0	2.47	10180	3100	91900	2400	2.87	0.83
B 17	6	16	4.7	1.26	3.63	.049	2.6	9.54	2.45	8350	2600	70500	2100	2.54	0.83
B 18	5	13	3.8	1.23	3.50	.059	2.5	7.83	2.45	6700	2600	63500	2000	2.27	0.77
B 19	5	13	3.8	1.23	3.13	.059	15.7	6.28	2.05	52900	2100	41900	1600	1.99	0.72
B 20	4	10	3.0	1.24	2.75	.074	7.7	4.96	2.05	41200	1600	32500	1300	1.69	0.69
B 21	4	10	3.0	1.24	2.58	.074	3.8	3.86	1.62	31400	1600	24600	1300	1.33	0.65
B 22	4	6.5	2.1	1.18	2.58	.074	9.0	2.50	1.51	24950	1600	19650	1000	1.07	0.58
B 23	4	6.5	2.1	1.18	2.58	.074	3.0	2.30	1.51	24950	1600	19650	1000	0.88	0.54

Section Ind	Depth of Ch	Weight per	Area of Sec	Thickness of	Width of Fl	Increase of	Moment of In	<i>I</i>	Moment of In	Radius of Gy	<i>r</i>	Coefficient of	Strength of	C	Add to Coeff	C	For every	Strain of	Add to Coeff	Distance of
		lbs.	sq. in.	Inches.	Inches.	of Weight	Neutral Ax	pendicular	at Centre.	of Flange, Neu	Axis as be	Neutral A	before.	Flange Strai	16,000 lbs.	square Inc	For Buildin	Inch, used	For every	of Gravity
C1	15"	51	15.0	.78	3.78	.020	390.0	390.0	52.0	5.12	554700	6100	433400	7800	6100	433400	7800	12,500 lbs.	6100	0.77
C2	15"	32	9.4	.40	3.40	.020	384.5	384.5	37.9	5.53	404700	4000	316300	4000	4000	316300	4000	12,500 lbs.	4000	0.75
C3	12"	30	8.9	.35	3.15	.025	159.9	159.9	25.7	4.17	273600	4000	218900	6900	4000	218900	6900	12,500 lbs.	4000	0.62
C4	12"	30	8.9	.30	2.90	.025	117.9	117.9	19.7	4.49	209600	4000	168900	6900	4000	168900	6900	12,500 lbs.	4000	0.62
C5	10"	23 $\frac{1}{2}$	7.0	.31	2.81	.029	84.6	84.6	16.9	3.50	180500	4000	141000	5200	4100	141000	5200	12,500 lbs.	4100	0.61
C6	10"	23 $\frac{1}{2}$	7.0	.26	2.66	.029	63.5	63.5	12.8	3.80	136100	4000	108400	5200	4100	108400	5200	12,500 lbs.	4100	0.63
C7	9"	20 $\frac{1}{2}$	6.0	.49	2.69	.033	58.5	58.5	13.0	3.14	138700	4000	86200	4600	3000	86200	4600	12,500 lbs.	3000	0.56
C8	9"	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	3.7	.24	2.44	.037	43.3	43.3	9.6	3.42	102700	4000	62900	4600	3000	62900	4600	12,500 lbs.	3000	0.58
C9	8"	17 $\frac{1}{2}$	5.0	.47	2.47	.037	38.9	38.9	9.7	2.78	103700	4000	81000	4900	3900	81000	4900	12,500 lbs.	3900	0.52
C10	8"	10	2.9	.30	2.29	.042	37.4	37.4	6.8	3.07	73100	4000	57100	4900	3900	57100	4900	12,500 lbs.	3900	0.54
C11	7"	15 $\frac{1}{2}$	4.3	.45	2.35	.042	34.5	34.5	7.0	2.42	75000	4000	58600	4900	3900	58600	4900	12,500 lbs.	3900	0.48
C12	7"	17	4.5	.40	2.00	.049	17.4	17.4	5.0	3.67	53100	4000	41500	3600	2800	41500	3600	12,500 lbs.	2800	0.40
C13	6"	17	3.6	.43	2.14	.049	15.6	15.6	3.7	2.69	55400	4000	43900	3100	2400	43900	3100	12,500 lbs.	2400	0.47
C14	6"	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	2.1	.48	2.03	.059	11.1	11.1	3.2	2.31	39400	4000	30500	3100	2400	30500	3100	12,500 lbs.	2400	0.48
C15	5"	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.7	.48	1.78	.059	9.1	9.1	2.6	1.73	39000	4000	30500	2600	2000	30500	2600	12,500 lbs.	2000	0.47
C16	4"	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.4	.41	1.41	.074	4.8	4.8	2.4	1.94	27900	4000	21800	2600	2000	21800	2600	12,500 lbs.	2000	0.48
C17	4"	8	1.4	.37	1.37	.074	3.3	3.3	1.8	1.57	18700	4000	14600	2100	1600	14600	2100	12,500 lbs.	1600	0.48

$L =$ Safe load in lbs. uniformly distributed; $l =$ span in feet.
 $M =$ Moment of forces in foot-lbs.; C and C' = coefficients given above. $I = \frac{C \text{ or } C'}{l}$; $M = \frac{C \text{ or } C'}{8}$; $C \text{ or } C' = Ll = 8M$.

PROPERTIES OF CARNEGIE Z BARS.

Properties of Carnegie Z Bars—(Continued)

Section Index.	Depth of Web.	Width of Flange.	Thickness of Metal.	Weight per Foot, Iron.	Weight per Foot, Steel.	Area of Section.	Moments of Inertia, I			Moments of Resistance, R			Radii of Gyration, r			Coefficient of Strength, U	
							Neutral Axis through Web.	Centre of Gravity Perpendicular to Web.	Neutral Axis through Coincident with Web.	Neutral Axis through Centre of Gravity Perpendicular to Web.	Centre of Gravity through Coincident with Web.	Neutral Axis through Coincident with Web.	Centre of Gravity through Coincident with Web.	Neutral Axis through Coincident with Web.	Centre of Gravity through Coincident with Web.	Least Radius, Neutral Axis Diagonal.	For 16,000 lbs. per square inch, Axis Perpendicular to Web at Centre.
Z 2	1 1/4	3 3/8	13-16	27.8	28.3	8.33	29.31	14.86	11.44	4.84	1.88	1.31	0.74	125000	91500		
Z 3	1 1/2	3 3/4	1 3/4	8.0	8.2	2.41	6.38	4.33	3.14	1.44	1.02	1.39	0.57	33500	25100		
Z 4	1 3/4	3 7/8	1 1/2	10.1	10.3	3.03	7.94	5.46	3.91	1.84	1.32	1.34	0.68	41700	31900		
Z 5	2	4 1/4	1 1/4	12.4	12.4	3.86	9.63	6.77	4.67	2.36	1.62	1.36	0.69	49800	37400		
Z 6	2 1/4	4 7/8	1 1/4	13.8	13.8	4.05	9.69	6.73	4.83	2.37	1.55	1.39	0.66	51500	38600		
Z 7	2 3/4	5 1/4	1 3/8	15.3	15.3	4.66	11.18	7.96	5.50	2.79	1.55	1.31	0.67	58700	44000		
Z 8	3	5 7/8	1 3/8	17.9	17.9	5.37	12.74	9.26	6.18	3.17	1.55	1.33	0.69	65900	49400		
Z 9	3 1/4	6 1/4	1 3/8	18.9	18.9	5.55	13.11	8.73	6.05	3.18	1.48	1.25	0.66	64500	48100		
Z 10	3 3/4	6 7/8	1 3/8	20.9	20.9	6.14	13.52	9.95	6.65	3.58	1.48	1.27	0.67	70900	53500		
Z 11	4	7 1/4	1 1/2	22.9	22.9	6.75	14.97	11.24	7.26	4.00	1.49	1.29	0.69	77400	58100		
Z 12	4 1/4	7 3/4	1 3/4	6.7	6.7	1.97	4.87	2.81	1.92	1.10	1.21	1.19	0.53	29500	15400		
Z 13	4 1/2	8 1/4	1 3/4	8.4	8.4	2.48	3.64	3.64	2.36	1.40	1.21	1.21	0.56	33400	19000		
Z 14	4 3/4	8 7/8	1 3/4	9.7	9.7	2.86	3.85	3.92	2.57	1.57	1.16	1.17	0.55	37400	20600		
Z 15	5	9 1/4	1 3/4	11.4	11.4	3.38	4.57	4.75	2.96	1.88	1.17	1.19	0.56	41800	23800		
Z 16	5 1/4	9 7/8	1 3/4	12.5	12.5	3.69	4.59	4.85	3.04	1.99	1.12	1.15	0.55	39500	24500		
Z 17	5 3/4	10 1/4	1 3/4	13.9	14.2	4.18	5.26	5.70	3.43	2.31	1.12	1.17	0.56	36000	27400		

TRENTON IRON BEAMS AND CHANNELS

(New Jersey Steel and Iron Co.)

Height in inches.	Least Weight per Yard, in pounds.	Width of Flange, in inches.	Thickness of Web, in inches.	Coefficient in lbs. for Transverse Strength.	Height in inches.	Least Weight per Yard, in pounds.	Width of Flange, in inches.	Thickness of Web, in inches.	
I Beams.					Channels.				
20	272	6 $\frac{3}{4}$	11-16	1,320,000	15	190	4 $\frac{3}{4}$	3 $\frac{3}{4}$	
20	300	6	$\frac{3}{4}$	990,000	15	130	4	$\frac{3}{4}$	
15 $\frac{1}{4}$	300	5 $\frac{3}{4}$.6	748,000	12 $\frac{1}{4}$	140	4	11-16	
15 3-16	150	5	$\frac{3}{4}$	551,000	12 $\frac{1}{4}$	70	3	.33	
15 $\frac{1}{4}$	125	5	.42	460,000	10 $\frac{1}{4}$	60	2 $\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{3}{8}$	
12 5-16	170	5 $\frac{1}{2}$.6	511,000	10	48	2 $\frac{3}{4}$	5-16	
12 $\frac{1}{4}$	125	4.8	.47	377,000	9	70	3 $\frac{1}{4}$	7-16	
12	130	5 $\frac{1}{4}$.39	375,000	9	50	2 $\frac{1}{2}$.33	
12	96	5 $\frac{1}{4}$.32	306,000	8	45	2 $\frac{1}{2}$.26	
10 $\frac{1}{4}$	135	5	.47	360,000	8	33	2 $\frac{1}{2}$.20	
10 $\frac{1}{4}$	105	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{8}$	286,000	7	36	2 $\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	
10 $\frac{1}{8}$	90	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	5-16	250,000	7	25 $\frac{1}{2}$	2	.20	
9	125	4 $\frac{1}{2}$.57	268,000	6	45	2 $\frac{1}{2}$.40	
9	85	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{8}$	199,000	6	33	2 $\frac{1}{4}$.28	
9	70	4	.3	167,000	6	22 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 $\frac{7}{8}$.18	
8	80	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{8}$	168,000	5	19	1 $\frac{5}{8}$.20	
8	65	4	.3	135,000	4	16 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 $\frac{1}{2}$.20	
7	55	3 $\frac{3}{4}$.3	101,000	3	15	1 $\frac{1}{2}$.20	
6	120	5 $\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{5}{8}$	172,000	Deck Beams.				
6	90	5	$\frac{1}{2}$	132,000					
6	50	3 $\frac{1}{2}$.3	76,800	8	65	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{5}{8}$	
6	40	3	$\frac{1}{4}$	62,600	7	55	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	5-16	
5	40	3	5-16	49,100					
5	30	2 $\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	38,700					
4	37	3	5-16	36,800					
4	30	2 $\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	30,100					
4	18	2	3-16	18,000					

Trenton Beams and Channels.

To find which beam, supported at both ends, will be required to with safety a given uniformly distributed load:

Multiply the load in pounds by the span in feet, and take the best "Coefficient for Strength" is nearest to and exceeds the number. The weight of the beam itself should be included in the load.

The deflection in inches, for such distributed load, will be found by taking the square of the span taken in feet, by 70 times the depth of it taken in inches, for iron beams, and by 53.5 times the depth for steel.

EXAMPLE.—Which beam will be required to support a uniformly distributed load of 12 tons (= 24,000 lbs.) on a span of 15 feet?

$24,000 \times 15 = 360,000$, which is less than the coefficient of the 12 $\frac{1}{4}$ -lb. iron beam. The weight of the beam itself would be 635 lbs., which added to the load and multiplied by the span, would still give a product than the coefficient; thus,

$$24,635 \times 15 = 369,525.$$

The deflection will be

$$\frac{15 \times 15}{70 \times 12\frac{1}{4}} = 0.26 \text{ inch.}$$

—40—

For each beam can be found by dividing and subtracting the weight of the beam

TRENTON TEE BARS.

Designation of Bar.	Approximate Weight, in pounds per yard, for each thickness in inches.		Coefficient for Transverse Strength.
Table. Leg.			Thinnest Bar
4" x 4"		1 1/2" 37.5 lbs.	15,800 lbs.
3 1/2" x 3 1/2"	7-16" 28.7 lbs.	1 1/2" 32.5 "	10,550 "
3" x 3"	3/8" 21.1 "	1 1/2" 27.5 "	6,850 "
2 1/2" x 2 1/2"	5-16" 14.7 "	3/8" 17.3 "	3,850 "
2 1/4" x 2 1/4"	5-16" 13.09 "		3,087 "
2" x 2"	1/4" 9.4 "	5-16" 11.5 "	1,970 "
1 3/4" x 1 3/4"	1/4" 6.68 "		1,033 "
1 1/2" x 1 1/2"	7-32" 4.87 "	1/4" 5.5 "	596 "
1 1/4" x 1 1/4"	5-32" 2.80 "	3-16" 3.3 "	308 "
5" x 2 1/2"		1 1/2" 35.0 "	6,344 "
3" x 2"	5-16" 14.6 lbs.	3/8" 17.3 "	2,540 "
2 1/2" x 3"	3/8" 19.3 "		6,404 "
2" x 3"	3/8" 17.3 "		6,173 "
2" x 1 3/4"	9-32" 9.1 "		1,355 "
2 1/4" x 1 3/4"	1/4" 7.4 "		604 "
2" x 1 1/2"	1/4" 6.5 "		457 "
1 1/2" x 1"	1/4" 5.6 "		421 "

SIZE OF BEAMS, AND THEIR DISTANCE APART,
Suitable for Floors having Loads per square
foot from 100 lbs. to 300 lbs.
 (New Jersey Steel and Iron Co.)

Clear Span in feet.	Load per sq. ft. 100 lbs.			Load per sq. ft. 150 lbs.			Load per sq. ft. 200 lbs.			Load per sq. ft. 250 lbs.			Load per sq. ft. 300 lbs.		
	Size and Weight per yard.		Distance from Centre to Centre.	Size and Weight per yard.		Distance from Centre to Centre.	Size and Weight per yard.		Distance from Centre to Centre.	Size and Weight per yard.		Dist. from Centre to Centre.	Size and Weight per yard.		Dist. from Centre to Centre.
	in.	lb.	feet	in.	lb.	feet	in.	lb.	feet	in.	lb.	feet	in.	lb.	feet
8	4	30	4.6	4	30	3.1	5	30	3.0	6	40	3.9	6	40	3.2
	5	30	5.9	5	30	4.0	6	40	4.8	6	50	4.7	5	50	3.9
10	5	30	3.8	6	40	4.1	6	40	3.0	6	50	3.0	7	55	3.3
	5	40	4.8	6	50	5.0	6	50	3.7	7	55	4.0	8	65	4.4
12	6	40	4.2	6	50	3.4	7	55	3.4	8	65	3.6	8	65	3.0
	6	50	5.2	7	55	4.6	8	65	4.5	9	70	4.5	9	70	3.8
14	7	55	5.0	7	55	3.3	8	65	3.3	9	70	3.3	9	85	3.3
	8	65	6.7	8	65	4.5	9	70	4.1	10 1/2	90	5.0	10 1/2	90	4.2
16	8	65	5.0	8	65	3.3	9	85	3.7	10 1/2	90	3.8	10 1/2	105	3.6
	9	70	6.3	9	70	4.2	10 1/2	90	4.7	10 1/2	105	4.3	12 1/2	125	4.8
18	9	70	4.9	9	85	3.9	10 1/2	105	4.2	10 1/2	105	3.4	10 1/2	135	3.6
	9	85	5.9	10 1/2	90	4.9	12	96	4.6	12 1/2	125	4.5	12 1/2	125	3.7
20	10 1/2	90	6.0	10 1/2	105	4.5	10 1/2	105	3.4	12 1/2	125	3.6	12 1/2	125	3.0
				12 1/2	125	6.0	12 1/2	125	4.5	12 1/2	170	4.9	15	150	4.4
22	10 1/2	90	4.9	12	96	4.0	12 1/2	125	3.7	12 1/2	125	3.0	12 1/2	170	3.3
	10 1/2	105	5.6	12 1/2	125	4.9	15	125	4.5	15	125	3.6	15	150	3.6
24	12	96	5.0	12 1/2	125	4.1	12 1/2	125	3.0	12 1/2	170	3.3	15	150	3.0
	12 1/2	125	6.1	15	125	5.0	15	150	4.5	15	150	3.6	15	200	4.1
26	12 1/2	125	5.1	15	125	4.3	15	150	3.8	15	150	3.0	15	200	3.5
				15	150	5.1	15	200	5.2	15	200	4.2	20	200	4.7
28	15	125	5.5	15	150	4.3	15	200	4.4	15	200	3.5	20	200	3.9
				15	200	5.9	20	200	6.0	20	200	4.8	20	275	5.3
30	15	150	5.6	15	150	3.7	15	200	3.8	20	200	4.1	20	200	4.4
				15	200	5.1	20	200	5.2	20	275	5.3	20	275	4.8

FLOORING MATERIAL.

re-proof flooring, the space between the floor-beams may be spanned with brick arches, or with hollow brick made especially for the purpose, the latter being much lighter than ordinary brick.

Brick arches 8 1/2 inches deep of solid brick weigh about 70 lbs. per square foot, and the concrete levelling material, and substantial floors are thus supported by a 6 feet span of arch, or much greater span if the skew backs at the springing of the arch are made deeper, the rise of the arch being preferably less than 1/10 of the span. Hollow brick for floors are usually in arches about 3/4 of the span, and are used up to, and even exceeding, spans of 12 feet. The weight of the latter material will vary from 20 lbs. per square foot for 3-foot spans up to 60 lbs. per square foot for spans of 10 feet. Particulars of this construction are given by the manufacturers. For brick floors the beams should be securely tied with rods to resist lateral pressure.

Following cases the loads, in addition to the weight of the floor, may be assumed as:

street bridges for general public traffic.....	80 lbs. per sq. ft.
floors of dwellings	40 lbs. " "
churches, theatres, and ball-rooms.....	80 lbs. " "
hay-lofts	80 lbs. " "
storage of grain	100 lbs. " "
warehouses and general merchandise.....	250 lbs. " "
factories.....	400 lbs. " "
snow thirty inches deep.....	200 to 300 lbs. " "
maximum pressure of wind	16 lbs. " "
brick walls	50 lbs. " "
masonry walls	112 lbs. per cu. ft.
allowing thirty pounds per square foot for wind and snow:	
corrugated iron laid directly on the purlins...	37 lbs. per sq. ft.
corrugated iron laid on boards.....	40 lbs. " "
slate nailed to laths	43 lbs. " "
slate nailed on boards.....	46 lbs. " "

When the floor is supported by a truss, the weight will be about ten pounds per square foot in addition.

E-RODS FOR BEAMS SUPPORTING BRICK ARCHES.

The horizontal thrust of brick arches is as follows:

$$\frac{1.5WS^2}{R} = \text{pressure in pounds, per lineal foot of arch:}$$

W = load in pounds, per square foot;

S = span of arch in feet;

R = rise in inches.

The tie-rods are run through the webs of the beams as possible and so that the pressure of arches as obtained above will not produce a stress greater than 15,000 lbs. per square inch of the least section of the bolt.

TORSIONAL STRENGTH.

A horizontal shaft of diameter = d be fixed at one end, and at the other end, at a distance = l from the fixed end, let there be fixed a horizontal lever arm with a weight = P acting at a distance = a from the fixed end. Let the shaft so as to twist it; then Pa = moment of the applied force.

The twisting moment = twisting moment = $\frac{SJ}{c}$, in which S = unit shearing stress, J = polar moment of inertia of the section with respect to the axis, c = distance of the most remote fibre from the axis, in a cross-section.

For a circle with diameter d ,

$$J = \frac{\pi d^4}{32}; \quad c = \frac{1}{2}d;$$

$$Pa = \frac{SJ}{c} = \frac{\pi d^3 S}{16} = \frac{d^3 S}{5.1} = .1963 d^3 S; \quad d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{5.1 Pa}{S}}$$

For hollow shafts of external diameter d and internal diameter d_1 ,

$$Pa = .1963 \frac{d^4 - d_1^4}{d} S; \quad d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{5.1Pa}{\left(1 - \frac{d_1^4}{d^4}\right) S}}$$

For a square whose side = d ,

$$J = \frac{d^4}{6}; \quad c = d \sqrt{\frac{3}{2}}; \quad \frac{SJ}{c} = Pa = \frac{d^3 S}{4.2426} = 0.236d^3 S.$$

For a rectangle whose sides are b and d ,

$$J = \frac{bd^3}{12} + \frac{b^3d}{12}; \quad c = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{b^2 + d^2}; \quad \frac{SJ}{c} = Pa = \frac{(bd^3 + b^3d)S}{6 \sqrt{b^2 + d^2}}.$$

The above formulæ are based on the supposition that the shearing resistance at any point of the cross-section is proportional to its distance from the axis; but this is true only within the elastic limit. In materials capable of flow, while the particles near the axis are strained within the elastic limit those at some distance within the circumference may be strained nearly to the ultimate resistance, so that the total resistance is something greater than that calculated by the formulæ. (See Thurston, "Mats. of Eng.," Part II, p. 527.) Saint Venant finds for square shafts $Pa = 0.281d^3 S$ (Rankine, "Mach. and Millwork," p. 504). For working strength, however, the formula may be used, with S taken at the safe working unit resistance.

The ultimate torsional shearing resistance S is about the same as the direct shearing resistance, and may be taken at 30,000 to 25,000 lbs. per square inch for cast iron, 45,000 lbs. for wrought iron, and 50,000 to 150,000 lbs. for steel, according to its carbon and temper. Large factors of safety should be taken, especially when the direction of stress is reversed, as in reversing engines, and when the torsional stress is combined with other stresses, as is usual in shafting. (See "Shafting.")

Elastic Resistance to Torsion.—Let l = length of bar being twisted, d = diameter, P = force applied at the extremity of a lever arm of length = a , Pa = twisting moment, G = torsional modulus of elasticity, θ = angle through which the free end of the shaft is twisted, measured in arc of radius = 1.

For a cylindrical shaft

$$Pa = \frac{\pi \theta G d^4}{32l}; \quad \theta = \frac{32Pal}{\pi d^4 G}; \quad G = \frac{32Pal}{\theta \pi d^4}; \quad \frac{32}{\pi} = 10.186.$$

If a = angle of torsion in degrees,

$$\theta = \frac{\pi a}{180}; \quad a = \frac{180\theta}{\pi} = \frac{180 \times 32Pal}{\pi^2 d^4 G} = \frac{583.6Pal}{d^4 G}.$$

The value of G is given by different authorities as from $\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{2}{5}$ of E , the modulus of elasticity for tension.

COMBINED STRESSES.

(From Merriman's "Strength of Materials.")

Combined Tension and Flexure.—Let A = the area of a bar subjected to both tension and flexure, P = tensile stress applied at the ends, $P \div A$ = unit tensile stress, S = unit stress at the fibre on the tensile side most remote from the neutral axis, due to flexure alone, then maximum tensile unit stress = $(P \div A) + S$. A beam to resist combined tension and flexure should be designed so that $(P \div A) + S$ shall not exceed the proper allowable working unit stress.

Combined Compression and Flexure.—If $P \div A$ = unit stress due to compression alone, and S = unit compressive stress at fibre most remote from neutral axis, due to flexure alone, then maximum compressive unit stress

$$= \frac{P}{A} + S.$$

Combined Tension (or Compression) and Shear.—If

tension (or compression) unit stress = p , applied shearing unit stress h from the combined action of the two forces

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Max. } S &= \pm \sqrt{v^2 + \frac{1}{4}p^2}, & \text{Maximum shearing unit stress;} \\ &= \frac{1}{2}p + \sqrt{v^2 + \frac{1}{4}p^2}, & \text{Maximum tensile (or compressive) unit stress.} \end{aligned}$$

Combined Flexure and Torsion.—If S = greatest unit stress flexure alone, and S_s = greatest torsional shearing unit stress due to t alone, then for the combined stresses

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Max. tension or compression unit stress } t &= \frac{1}{2}S + \sqrt{S_s^2 + \frac{1}{4}S^2}; \\ \text{Max. shear } s &= \pm \sqrt{S_s^2 + \frac{1}{4}S^2}. \end{aligned}$$

Formula for diameter of a round shaft subjected to transverse load while fitting a given horse-power (see also Shafts of Engines):

$$d^3 = \frac{16M}{\pi t} + \frac{16}{t} \sqrt{\frac{M^2}{\pi^2} + \frac{402,500,000H^2}{n^2}},$$

M = maximum bending moment of the transverse forces in pound-feet; H = horse-power transmitted, n = No. of revs. per minute, and t = allowable tensile or compressive working strength of the material.

Combined Compression and Torsion.—For a vertical round shaft carrying a load and also transmitting a given horse-power, the resultant compressive unit stress

$$t = \frac{4P}{\pi d^2} + \sqrt{321,000^2 \frac{H^2}{\pi^2 d^6} + \frac{16P^2}{\pi^2 d^4}},$$

where P is the load. From this the diameter d may be found when t and H data are given.

Stress due to Temperature.—Let l = length of a bar, A = its section, c = coefficient of linear expansion for one degree, t = rise or fall of temperature in degrees, E = modulus of elasticity, λ the change of length due to the rise or fall t ; if the bar is free to expand or contract, $\lambda =$

if the bar is held so as to prevent its expansion or contraction the stress S due to the change of temperature = $S = ActE$. The following are the values of the coefficients of linear expansion for a change in temperature one degree Fahrenheit:

For brick and stone	$a = 0.000050,$
For cast iron	$a = 0.000062,$
For wrought iron	$a = 0.000067,$
For steel	$a = 0.000065.$

Stress due to temperature should be added to or subtracted from the stress caused by other external forces according as it acts to increase or to decrease the existing stress.

What stress will be caused in a steel bar 1 inch square in area by a change of temperature of 100° F. ? $S = ActE = l \times .000065 \times 100 \times 30,000,000 = 19,500$ lbs. Suppose the bar is under tension of 19,500 lbs. between rigid abutments before the change in temperature takes place, a cooling of 100° F. will reduce the tension, and a heating of 100° will reduce the tension to zero.

STRENGTH OF FLAT PLATES.

Circular plate supported at the edge, uniformly loaded, according to Rankine's theory,

$$f = \frac{5}{6} \frac{r^2}{t^2} p; \quad t = \sqrt{\frac{5r^2 p}{6f}}; \quad p = \frac{6ft^2}{5r^2}.$$

Circular plate fixed at the edge, uniformly loaded,

$$f = \frac{3}{8} \frac{r^2}{t^2} p; \quad t = \sqrt{\frac{3}{8} \frac{r^2 p}{f}}; \quad p = \frac{8ft^2}{3r^2};$$

where f denotes the working stress; r , the radius in inches; t , the thickness in inches; and p , the pressure in pounds per square inch.

For mathematical discussion, see Lanza, "Applied Mechanics," p. 600.
Lanza gives the following table, using a factor of safety of 8, with test strength of cast iron 30,000, of wrought iron 40,000, and of steel 80,000:

	Supported.	Fixed.
Cast iron.....	$t = .0182570r \sqrt{p}$	$t = .0163300r \sqrt{p}$
Wrought iron.....	$t = .0117850r \sqrt{p}$	$t = .0105410r \sqrt{p}$
Steel.....	$t = .0091287r \sqrt{p}$	$t = .0081649r \sqrt{p}$

For a circular plate supported at the edge, and loaded with a concentrated load P applied at a circumference the radius of which is r_0 :

$$f = \left(\frac{4}{3} \log \frac{r}{r_0} + 1 \right) \frac{P}{\pi t^2} = c \frac{P}{\pi t^2};$$

$$\text{for } \frac{r}{r_0} = 10 \quad 20 \quad 30 \quad 40 \quad 50;$$

$$c = 4.07 \quad 5.00 \quad 5.53 \quad 5.92 \quad 6.22;$$

$$t = \sqrt{\frac{cP}{\pi f}}; \quad P = \frac{\pi t^2 f}{c}.$$

The above formulæ are deduced from theoretical considerations, and thicknesses much greater than are generally used in steam-engine cylinder heads. (See empirical formulæ under Dimensions of Parts of Engines.) Theoretical formulæ seem to be based on incorrect or incomplete hypotheses, but they err in the direction of safety.

The Strength of Unstayed Flat Surfaces.—Robert W. (Eng'g, Sept. 24, 1877) draws attention to the apparent discrepancy between the results of theoretical investigations and of actual experiments on strength of unstayed flat surfaces of boiler-plate, such as the unstayed crowns of domes and of vertical boilers.

Rankine's "Civil Engineering" gives the following rules for the stress of a circular plate supported all round the edge, prefaced by the remark that "the formula is founded on a theory which is only approximately true but which nevertheless may be considered to involve no error of practical importance:"

$$M = \frac{Wb}{6\pi} = \frac{Pb^2}{24}.$$

Here

M = greatest bending moment ;

W = total load uniformly distributed = $\frac{Pb^2\pi}{4}$;

b = diameter of plate in inches ;

P = bursting pressure in pounds per square inch.

Calling t the thickness in inches, for a plate supported round the edge

$$M = \frac{1}{8} 42,000bt^2; \quad \therefore \frac{Pb^2}{24} = 7000t^2.$$

For a plate fixed round the edges,

$$\frac{3}{8} \frac{Pb^2}{24} = 7000t^2; \quad \text{whence } P = \frac{t^2 \times 63,000}{r^2},$$

where r = radius of the plate.

Dr. Grashof gives a formula from which we have the following rule:

$$P = \frac{t^2 \times 72,000}{r^2}.$$

This formula of Grashof's has been adopted by Professor Unwin in "Elements of Machine Design." These formulæ by Rankine and Grashof may be regarded as being practically the same.

When attempting to make the rules given by these authorities agree with the experience of the strength of unstayed flat ends of cylinder domes that had given way after long use, Mr. Wilson was of the opinion that the above rules give the breaking strength much lower than

specially when aided by the action of the corrosive acids in the steam, will in time reduce the thickness of the plate, and bring about the destruction of an unstayed surface at a very low pressure.

As flat plates commence to deflect at very low pressures, they should be used without stays; but it is better to dish the plates when they are used by flues, tubes, etc.

Just the commonly accepted opinion that the limit of elasticity is never reached in testing a boiler or other structure, these experiments show that an exception should be made in the case of an unstayed plate of a boiler, which will be safer when it has assumed a permanent deflection that will prevent its becoming grooved by the continual variation in working. The hydraulic pressure in this case simply does what would have been done before the plate was fixed, that is, dishes it.

These experiments appear to show that the mode of attaching by flange inside or outside angle-iron exerts an important influence on the strain in which the plate is strained by the pressure.

When the plate is secured to an angle-iron, the stretching under pressure is, to a certain extent, concentrated at the line of rivet-holes, and the plate farther from the angle-iron is strained less than fixed round the edge. Instead of the strength increasing as the square of the thickness, when the plate is attached to angle-iron, it is probable that the strength does not increase even as the thickness, since the plate gives way simply by stretching at the rivet-holes, and the thicker the plate, the less uniformly is the strain distributed through the different layers of which the plate may be considered to be composed.

When the plate is flanged, the flange becomes compressed by the pressure against the body of the plate, and near the rim, as shown by the experiments. In flexure, the inside of the plate is stretched more than the outside, and the failure may be by a kind of shearing action that the plate gives way along the line where the crushing and stretching meet.

These tests appear to show that the rules deduced from the theoretical calculations of Lamé, Rankine, and Grashof are not confirmed by experiment, and are therefore not trustworthy.

Unstayed Wrought-Iron Heads of Boilers, etc. (*The Locomotive*, Feb. 1890).—Few experiments have been made on the strength of unstayed heads, and our knowledge of them comes largely from theory. Experiments have been made on small plates 1-16 of an inch thick, yet the data so far obtained cannot be considered satisfactory when we consider the far thicker plates that are used in practice, although the results agreed well with Rankine's formula. Mr. Nichols has made experiments on larger heads, and from them he has deduced the following rule: "To find the proper thickness of a flat unstayed head, multiply the area of the head by the pressure

3. Head $26\frac{1}{4}$ inches in diameter, and $\frac{3}{8}$ inch thick. The area 54 inches. Then, $\frac{3}{8} \times 44,800 \times 10 = 168,000$, and $168,000 \div 541 = 311$. This head burst at 370 pounds.

4. Head $28\frac{1}{2}$ inches in diameter and $\frac{3}{8}$ inch thick. The area square inches; then, $\frac{3}{8} \times 44,800 \times 10 = 168,000$, and $168,000 \div 6$ pounds. The actual bursting pressure was 300 pounds.

In the third experiment, the amount the plate bulged under pressures was as follows:

At pounds per sq. in.	10	20	40	80	120	140	170
Plate bulged	1/32	1/16	3/8	3/4	3/2	3/4	3/2

The pressure was now reduced to zero, "and the end sprang 1/2 inch, leaving it with a permanent set of 9-16 inch. The pressure of was again applied on 36 separate occasions during an interval of 17 1/2 the bulging and permanent set being noted on each occasion, but any appreciable difference from that noted above.

The experiments described were confined to plates not widely different their dimensions, so that Mr. Nichols's rule cannot be relied upon but that depart much from the proportions given in the examples.

Thickness of Flat Cast-iron Plates to resist Bu Pressures.—Capt. John Ericsson (Church's Life of Ericsson) the following rules: The proper thickness of a square cast-iron plate obtained by the following: Multiply the side in feet (or decimals of a 1/4 of the pressure in pounds and divide by 850 times the side in inch quotient is the square of the thickness in inches.

For a circular plate, multiply 11-14 of the diameter in feet by 1/2 pressure on the plate in pounds. Divide by 850 times 11-14 of the d in inches. [Extract the square root.]

Prof. Wm. Harkness, *Eng'g News*, Sept. 5, 1895, shows that these r be put in a more convenient form, thus:

$$\text{For square plates } T = 0.00495S \sqrt{p},$$

and

$$\text{For circular plates } T = 0.00493D \sqrt{p},$$

where T = thickness of plate, S = side of the square, D = diameter circle, and p = pressure in lbs. per sq. in. Professor Harkness, h doubts the value of the rules, and says that no satisfactory theoretic tion has yet been obtained.

Strength of Stayed Surfaces.—A flat plate of thickness t ported uniformly by stays whose distance from centre to centre is a , load p lbs. per square inch. Each stay supports pa^2 lbs. The stress on the plate is

$$f = \frac{2}{9} \frac{a^2}{t^2} p. \text{ (Unwin).}$$

SPHERICAL SHELLS AND DOMED BOILER-HE

To find the Thickness of a Spherical Shell to r given Pressure.—Let d = diameter in inches, and p the intern ure per square inch. The total pressure which tends to produce around the great circle will be $\frac{1}{4}\pi d^2 p$. Let S = safe tensile str square inch, and t the thickness of metal in inches; then the resistanc pressure will be $\pi d t S$. Since the resistance must be equal to the pr

$$\frac{1}{4}\pi d^2 p = \pi d t S. \text{ Whence } t = \frac{pd}{4S}.$$

The same rule is used for finding the thickness of a hemispheri to a cylinder, as of a cylindrical boiler.

Thickness of a Domed Head of a boiler.—If S = saf stress per square inch, d = diameter of the shell in inches, and t = t of the shell, $t = pd \div 4S$; but the thickness of a hemispherical he same diameter is $t = pd \div 4S$. Hence if we make the radius of c of a domed head equal to the diameter of the boiler, we shall h

$\frac{2pd}{4S} = \frac{pd}{2S}$ or the thickness of such a domed head will be equal to th

ness of the s

Stresses in Steel Plating due to Water-pressure, as in fitting of vessels and bulkheads (*Engineering*, May 22, 1891, page 629).

Mr. J. A. Yates has made calculations of the stresses to which steel plates subjected by external water-pressure, and arrives at the following conclusions:

Assume $2a$ inches to be the distance between the frames or other rigid supports, and let d represent the depth in feet, below the surface of the water, of the plate under consideration, t = thickness of plate in inches, the deflection from a straight line under pressure in inches, and P = stress in square inch of section.

For outer bottom and ballast tank plating, $\alpha = 430 \frac{t}{d}$. D should not be less than $.05 \frac{2a}{12}$, and $\frac{P}{2}$ not greater than 2 to 3 tons; while for bulkheads,

$\alpha = 2352 \frac{t}{d}$. D should not be greater than $.1 \frac{2a}{12}$, and $\frac{P}{2}$ not greater than 10 tons. To illustrate the application of these formulæ the following cases have been taken:

For Outer Bottom, etc.			For Bulkheads, etc.		
Depth below Water.	Spacing of Frames should not exceed	Thick-ness of Plating	Depth of Water.	Maximum Spacing of Rigid Stiffeners.	
	in.	in.	ft.	ft.	in.
20	About 21	$\frac{1}{2}$	20	9	10
10	" 42	$\frac{3}{8}$	20	7	4
18	" 18	$\frac{3}{8}$	10	14	8
9	" 36	$\frac{1}{4}$	20	4	10
10	" 20	$\frac{1}{4}$	10	9	8
5	" 40	$\frac{3}{8}$	10	4	10

It would appear that the course which should be followed in stiffening bulkheads is to fit substantially rigid stiffening frames at comparatively wide intervals, and only work such light angles between as are necessary in making a fair job of the bulkhead.

THICK HOLLOW CYLINDERS UNDER TENSION.

Mr. "Elasticity and Resistance of Materials," p. 36, gives

$$\left\{ \left(\frac{h+p}{h-p} \right)^2 - 1 \right\} \cdot \begin{matrix} t = \text{thickness; } r = \text{interior radius;} \\ h = \text{maximum allowable hoop tension at the} \\ \text{interior of the cylinder;} \\ p = \text{intensity of interior pressure.} \end{matrix}$$

Striman gives

$$\begin{matrix} s = \text{unit stress at inner edge of the annulus;} \\ r = \text{interior radius; } t = \text{thickness;} \\ l = \text{length.} \end{matrix}$$

The total stress over the area $2tl = 2sl \frac{rt}{r+t}$ (1)

The total interior pressure which tends to rupture the cylinder is $2rl \times p$.

If p be the unit pressure, then $p = \frac{st}{r+t}$, from which one of the quantities r , or t can be found when the other three are given.

$$s = \frac{p(r+t)}{t}; \quad r = \frac{(s-p)t}{p}; \quad t = \frac{rp}{s-p}.$$

In eq. (1), if t be neglected in comparison with r , it reduces to $2st$ is the same as the formula for thin cylinders. If $t = r$, it becomes only half the resistance of the thin cylinder.

The formulæ given by Burr and by Merriman are quite different, be seen by the following example: Let maximum unit stress at the edge of the annulus = 8000 lbs. per square inch, radius of cylinder = 4 interior pressure = 4000 lbs. per square inch. Required the thickness

$$\text{By Burr, } t = 4 \left\{ \left(\frac{8000 + 4000}{8000 - 4000} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} - 1 \right\} = 4 (\sqrt{3} - 1) = 2.928 \text{ in}$$

$$\text{By Merriman, } t = \frac{4 \times 4000}{8000 - 4000} = 4 \text{ inches.}$$

Limit to Useful Thickness of Hollow Cylinders
Jan. 4, 1884).—Professor Barlow lays down the law of the resisting of thick cylinders as follows:

"In a homogeneous cylinder, if the metal is incompressible, the on every concentric layer, caused by an internal pressure, varies in as the square of its distance from the centre."

Suppose a twelve-inch gun to have walls 15 inches thick.

$$\frac{\text{Pressure on exterior}}{\text{Pressure on interior}} = \frac{6^2}{21^2} = 1 : 12.25.$$

So that if the stress on the interior is $12\frac{1}{4}$ tons per square inch, th on the exterior is only 1 ton.

Let s = the stress on the inner layer, and s_1 that at a distance x fr axis; r = internal radius, R = external radius.

$$s_1 : s :: r^2 : x^2, \text{ or } s_1 = s \frac{r^2}{x^2}.$$

The whole stress on a section 1 inch long, extending from the int the exterior surface, is $S = sr \times \frac{R-r}{R}$.

In a 12-inch gun, let $s = 40$ tons, $r = 6$ in., $R = 21$ in.

$$S = 40 \times 6 \times \frac{21-6}{21} = 172 \text{ tons.}$$

Suppose now we go on adding metal to the gun outside: then R come so large compared with r , that $R - r$ will approach the val that the fraction $\frac{R-r}{R}$ becomes nearly unity.

Hence for an infinitely thick cylinder the useful strength coul exceed Sr (in this case 240 tons).

Barlow's formula agrees with the one given by Merriman.

Another statement of the gun problem is as follows: Using the

$$p = \frac{st}{r+t}$$

$s = 40$ tons, $t = 15$ in., $r = 6$ in., $p = \frac{40 \times 15}{21} = 28\frac{4}{7}$ tons per sq. in radius = 172 tons, the pressure to be resisted by a section 1 inch lo thickness of the gun on one side. Suppose thickness were doubled, $t = 30$ in.: $p = \frac{40 \times 30}{36} = 33\frac{1}{3}$ tons, or an increase of only 16 per ce

For short cast-iron cylinders, such as are used in hydraulic pre doubtful if the above formulæ hold true, since the strength of the cal portion is reinforced by the end. In that case the bursting would be higher than that calculated by the formula. A rule practice for such presses is to make the thickness = $1/10$ of the l circumference, for pressures of 3000 to 4000 lbs. per square inch. T pressure would bring a stress upon the inner layer of 10,350 lbs. pe inch, as calculated by the formula; which would necessitate the u best charcoal to be the press reasonably safe.

THIN CYLINDERS UNDER TENSION.

p working pressure in lbs. per sq. in.;
 d diameter in inches;
 f tensile strength of the material, lbs. per sq. in.;
 t thickness in inches;
 c factor of safety;
 T ratio of strength of riveted joint to strength of solid plate.

$$f p d = 2 T t c; \quad p = \frac{2 T t c}{d f}; \quad t = \frac{f p d}{2 T c}$$

If $f = 5$, and $c = 0.7$; then

$$p = \frac{14000 t}{d}; \quad t = \frac{d p}{14000}$$

T represents the strength resisting rupture along a longitudinal seam, the resistance to rupture in a circumferential seam, due to pressure of the cylinder, we have $\frac{p \pi d^2}{4} = \frac{T \pi d c}{f}$;

$$\text{whence } p = \frac{4 T t c}{d f}$$

T is the strength to resist rupture around a circumference is twice as great as longitudinal rupture; hence boilers are commonly single-circumferential seams and double-riveted in the longitudinal

HOLLOW COPPER BALLS.

Copper balls are used as floats in boilers or tanks, to control feed valves, and regulate the water-level. They are spun up in halves from sheet copper, and a rib is formed on one side. The other half fits, and the two are then soldered together. In order to facilitate the brazing, a hole is left on one side to allow air to pass freely in or out; and this hole is made use of to secure the float to its stem. The original thickness of the metal is anything up to about 1-16 of an inch, if the spinning is done by hand, though thicker metal may be used when special machinery is used for forming it. In the process of spinning, the metal is thinned by stretching; but the thinnest place is neither at the equator, nor along the rib, but at the poles. The thinnest points lie along a line passing around the ball parallel to the rib, one on each side of it, and at a half of the way to the poles. Along these lines the thickness is 10, 15, or 20 per cent less than elsewhere, the reduction depending on the skill of the workman.

Mr. W. Wright, for October, 1891, gives two empirical rules for determining the thickness of a copper ball which is to work under an external pressure:

$$t = \frac{\text{diameter in inches} \times \text{pressure in pounds per sq. in.}}{16,000}$$

$$t = \frac{\text{diameter} \times \sqrt{\text{pressure}}}{1240}$$

These give the same result for a pressure of 166 lbs. only. Example: thickness of a 5-inch copper ball to sustain

t	50	100	150	166	200	250	lbs. per sq. in.
first rule...	.0156	.0312	.0469	.0519	.0625	.0781	inch.
second rule	.0285	.0403	.0494	.0518	.0570	.0637	"

STRENGTH-POWER OF NAILS, SPIKES, AND SCREWS.

W. W. Wright, Western Society of Engineers, 1881.)

Spikes driven into dry cedar (cut 18 months):

.....	$5 \times \frac{1}{4}$ in. sq.	$6 \times \frac{1}{4}$	$6 \times \frac{1}{8}$	$5 \times \frac{3}{8}$
.....	$4\frac{1}{4}$ in.	5 in.	5 in.	$4\frac{1}{4}$ in.
Resistance to drawing	Average, lbs.	857	821	1691
	Max. "	1159	923	2129
	Min. "	766	766	1120
				687

A. M. Wellington found the force required to draw spikes $9/16 \times 4\frac{1}{2}$ driven $4\frac{1}{4}$ inches into seasoned oak, to be 4281 lbs.; same spikes, etc., into seasoned oak, 6523 lbs.

"Professor W. R. Johnson found that a plain spike $\frac{1}{2}$ inch square driven $3\frac{3}{4}$ inches into seasoned Jersey yellow pine or unseasoned oak required about 2000 lbs. force to extract it; from seasoned white oak 4000 and from well-seasoned locust 6000 lbs."

Experiments in Germany, by Funk, give from 2465 to 3940 lbs. (some many experiments about 3000 lbs.) as the force necessary to extract a $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch square iron spike 6 inches long, wedge-pointed for one inch driven $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches into white or yellow pine. When driven 5 inches the required was about $1/10$ part greater. Similar spikes $9/16$ inches square inches long, driven 6 inches deep, required from 3700 to 6745 lbs. to extract them from pine; the mean of the results being 4873 lbs. In all cases twice as much force was required to extract them from oak. The results were all driven across the grain of the wood. When driven with the spikes or nails do not hold with more than half as much force.

Boards of oak or pine nailed together by from 4 to 16 tenpenny common nails and then pulled apart in a direction lengthwise of the boards across the nails, tending to break the latter in two by a shearing averaged about 300 to 400 lbs. per nail to separate them, as the result of many trials.

Resistance of Drift-bolts in Timber.—Tests made by Runge and Coolidge, in 1878.

1st Test.	1 in. square iron drove	30 in. in white pine,	15/16-in. hole.....
2d "	1 in. round "	" " 34 "	" " " 13/16-in. "
3d "	1 in. square "	" " 18 "	" " " 15/16-in. "
4th "	1 in. round "	" " 22 "	" " " 13/16-in. "
5th "	1 in. round "	" " 34 "	" " " Norw'y pine, 13/16-in. "
6th "	1 in. square "	" " 30 "	" " " 15/16-in. "
7th "	1 in. square "	" " 18 "	" " " 15/16-in. "
8th "	1 in. round "	" " 22 "	" " " 13/16-in. "

NOTE.—In test No. 6 drift-bolts were not driven properly, holes not in line, and a piece of timber split out in driving.

Force required to draw Screws out of Norway Pine

$\frac{1}{2}$ " diam. drive screw	4 in. in wood.	Power required, average	24
" " 4 threads per in.	5 in. in wood.	" " "	25
" " D'ble thr'd, 3 per in.	4 in. in "	" " "	25
" " Lag-screw, 7 per in.	$1\frac{1}{2}$ " " "	" " "	18
" " " " 6 " "	$2\frac{1}{2}$ " " "	" " "	23
$\frac{1}{4}$ inch R.R. spike	5 " " "	" " "	21

Force required to draw Wood Screws out of Dry W

—Tests made by Mr. Bevan. The screws were about two inches in diameter at the exterior of the threads, .15 diameter at the bottom depth of the worm or thread being .035 and the number of threads per inch equal 12. They were passed through pieces of wood half an inch thick and drawn out by the weights stated: Beech, 460 lbs.; oak, 760 lbs.; mahogany, 770 lbs.; elm, 665 lbs.; sycamore, 830 lbs.

Tests of Lag-screws in Various Woods were made by Cox, University of Iowa, 1891:

Kind of Wood.	Size Screw.	Size Hole bored.	Length in Tie.	Max. Resist. lbs.
Seasoned white oak.....	$\frac{5}{8}$ in.	$\frac{1}{2}$ in.	$4\frac{1}{2}$ in.	2037
" " ".....	$9/16$ "	$7/16$ "	3 "	6480
" " ".....	$\frac{1}{2}$ "	$\frac{3}{8}$ "	$4\frac{1}{2}$ "	8780
Yellow-pine stick.....	$\frac{5}{8}$ "	$\frac{1}{2}$ "	4 "	2800
White cedar, unseasoned.....	$\frac{5}{8}$ "	$\frac{1}{2}$ "	4 "	3405

In figuring area for lag-screws, the surface of a cylinder whose diameter is equal to that of the screw was taken. The length of the screw part in case was 4 inches.—*Engineering News*, 1891.

Cut versus Wire Nails.—Experiments were made at the Watertown Arsenal in 1863 on the comparative direct tensile adhesion, in pine spruce, of wire nails. The results are stated by Prof. W. H. as follows:

HOLDING-POWER OF NAILS, SPIKES, AND SCREWS. 291

A series of tests, two pairs of nails (a cut and a wire nail in each) making a total of 1160 nails drawn. The tests were made in wood in most instances, but some extra ones were made in white "box nails." The nails were of all sizes, varying from 1½ inches in length. In every case the cut nails showed the superior holding power a large percentage. In spruce, in nine different sizes of nails, hard and light weight, the ratio of tenacity of cut to wire nail was 2 to 2, or, as he terms it, "a superiority of 47.4% of the former." "finishing" nails the ratio was roughly 2.5 to 2; superiority 75%. Nails (1½ to 4 inches long) the ratio was roughly 3 to 2; superiority 50%. In white pine, cut nails, tapered along the grain, showed a superiority of 100%, and with a taper against the grain of 136%. Also when the nails were driven in the end of the wood, i.e., along the grain, the superiority of cut nails was 100%, or the ratio of cut to wire was 2 to 1. The total of the results showed the ratio of cut to wire was about 3.3 to 2 for the harder wood, and about 2 to 1 for the softer. We are confident that under these circumstances the cut nail is superior to the wire nail in direct tensile holding-power by 72.74%.

Nail-holding Power of Various Woods.

(Watertown Experiments.)

Wood.	Size of Nail.	Holding-power per square inch of Surface in Wood, lbs.		
		Wire Nail.	Cut Nail.	Mean.
.....	8d	167	450	405
	9 "		455	
	20 "		477	
	50 "		347	
.....	60 "	318	363	662
	8 "		340	
	10 "		695	
	50 "		755	
.....	60 "	940	596	1216
	8 "		604	
	10 "		1340	
	50 "		1292	
.....	60 "	651	1018	683
	8 "		664	
	10 "		702	
	50 "		1179	
.....	20 "		1221	1200

Nail-holding Power of Various Woods.

F. W. Clay's Experiments. *Eng'g News*, Jan. 11, 1894.)

Wood.	Tenacity of 6d nails			Mean.
	Plain.	Barbed.	Blued.	
.....	106	94	135	111
.....	190	180	270	196
.....	78	132	219	143
.....	226	300	555	360
.....	141	201	319	220

Tests were made at the University of Illinois gave the resistance of a 1-in. round rod with a 1/8-inch hole perpendicular to the grain, as 6000 lbs. per lin. ft. in oak, 6000 lbs. in oak. Experiments made at the East River Bridge gave the resistance of 12,000 and 15,000 lbs. per lin. ft. for a 1-in. round rod in red pine and 14/16-in. diameter, respectively, in Georgia pine.

Holding-power of Bolts in White Pine.

(*Eng'g News*, September 26, 1891.)

	Round.	Square.
	Lbs.	Lbs.
all plain 1-in. bolts.....	8224	8300
all plain bolts, 5/8 to 1½ in.....	7805	8110
all bolts.....	8383	8598

Round bolts should be driven in holes 13/16 of their diameter, and square bolts in holes whose diameter is 14/16 of the side of the square.

STRENGTH OF WROUGHT IRON BOLTS.

(Computed by A. F. Nagle.)

Diameter of Bolt, Inches.	Number of Threads.	Diameter of Bottom of Thread, Inches.	Area at Bottom of Thread, Square Inches.	Stress upon Bolt upon Basis of				
				3000 lbs. per sq. inch.	4000 lbs. per sq. inch.	5000 lbs. per sq. inch.	7000 lbs. per sq. inch.	10000 lbs. per sq. inch.
				lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.
9- $\frac{1}{16}$	13	.38	.12	350	400	580	810	1160
	12	.44	.15	450	600	750	1050	1500
	11	.49	.19	560	750	930	1310	1870
	10	.60	.28	750	1180	1410	1980	2830
	9	.71	.39	1180	1570	1970	2790	3940
1	8	.81	.52	1550	2070	2600	3630	5180
	7	.91	.65	1950	2600	3250	4560	6510
1 $\frac{1}{8}$	7	1.04	.84	2520	3360	4200	5900	8410
1 $\frac{1}{8}$	6	1.12	1.00	3000	4000	5000	7000	10000
1 $\frac{1}{8}$	6	1.25	1.23	3680	4910	6140	8600	12280
1 $\frac{1}{8}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.35	1.44	4300	5740	7180	10000	14390
1 $\frac{1}{8}$	5	1.45	1.65	4950	6600	8250	11500	16510
1 $\frac{3}{8}$	5	1.57	1.95	5840	7800	9800	13640	19600
2	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.66	2.18	6540	8720	10900	15260	21800
	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	1.92	2.88	8650	11530	14400	20180	28800
2 $\frac{1}{8}$	4	2.12	3.55	10640	14200	17730	24830	35000
2 $\frac{1}{8}$	4	2.37	4.43	13290	17720	22150	31000	44300
3	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	2.57	5.20	15580	20770	26000	36360	52000
3 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{1}{4}$	3.04	7.25	21760	29000	36260	50760	72500
4	3	3.50	9.62	28860	38500	48100	67350	96300

When it is known what load is to be put upon a bolt, and the judge the engineer has determined what stress is safe to put upon the bolt down in the proper column of said stress until the required load is reached. The area at the bottom of the thread will give the equivalent area of the bar to that of the bolt.

Effect of Initial Strain in Bolts.—Suppose that bolts are used to connect two parts of a machine and that they are screwed up before the effective load comes on the connected parts. Let P_1 = the tension on a bolt due to screwing up, and P_2 = the load afterward. The greatest load may vary but little from P_1 or P_2 , according to whether the former or the latter is greater, or it may approach the value $P_1 + P_2$ depending upon the relative rigidity of the bolts and of the parts connected. Where rigid flanges are bolted together, metal to metal, it is probable that the extension of the bolts with any additional tension relieves the tension, and that the total tension is P_1 or P_2 , but in cases where a soft packing, as india rubber, is interposed, the extension of the bolts will have little effect the initial tension, and the total strain may be nearly $P_1 + P_2$. Since the latter assumption is more unfavorable to the resistance of the bolt, this contingency should usually be provided for. (See *Wahl's Elements of Machine Design* for demonstration.)

STAND-PIPES AND THEIR DESIGN.

(Freeman C. Coffin, New England Water Works Assoc., *Eng. News*, Nov. 16, 1893.) See also papers by A. H. Howland, Eng. Club of Phil. 1893; Stephens, Amer. Water Works Assoc., *Eng. News*, Oct. 6 and 13, 1894; Kiersted, Rensselaer Soc. of Civil Eng., *Eng'g Record*, April 25 and 26, 1891, and W. D. Pence, *Eng. News*, April and May, 1894.

The question of diameter is almost entirely independent of that of length. The efficient capacity must be measured by the length from the bottom line to a point below which it is undesirable to draw the water on at any pressure for fire-supply, whether that point is the actual bottom of the stand-pipe or above it. This allowable fluctuation ought not to be less than 10 ft. This makes the diameter dependent upon a

is, the first of which is the amount of the consumption during the ordinary interval between the stopping and starting of the pumps. This should draw the water below a point that will give a good fire stream and a margin for still further draught for fires. The second condition is the maximum number of fire streams and their size which it is considered easy to provide for, and the maximum length of time which they are to have to run before the pumps can be relied upon to reinforce

Another reason for making the diameter large is to provide for stability against wind-pressure when empty.

The following table gives the height of stand-pipes beyond which they are unsafe against wind pressures of 40 and 50 lbs. per square foot. The area of plate taken is the height multiplied by one half the diameter.

Heights of Stand-pipe that will Resist Wind-pressure by its Weight alone, when Empty.

Diameter, feet,	Wind, 40 lbs. per sq. ft.	Wind, 50 lbs. per sq. ft.
20.....	45	35
25.....	70	55
30.....	150	80
35.....	160

are the above degree of stability the stand-pipes must be designed as outside angle-iron at the bottom connection.

The form of anchorage that depends upon connections with the sides near the bottom is unsafe. By suitable guys the wind-pressure is relieved by tension in the guys, and the stand-pipe is relieved from wind that tend to overthrow it. The guys should be attached to a band or other shaped iron that completely encircles the tank, and rests on some sort of bracket or projection, and not be riveted to the tank. It should be anchored at a distance from the base equal to the height of it at which they are attached, if possible.

The best plan is to build the stand-pipe of such diameter that it will resist it by its own stability.

Thickness of the Side Plates.

The pressure on the sides is outward, and due alone to the weight of the water, and increases in direct ratio to the height, and also to the diameter. The strain upon a section 1 inch in height at any point is the total strain at that point divided by two—for each side is required to bear the strain equally. The total pressure at any point is the weight of the water above it, multiplied by the diameter in inches, multiplied by the height at that point. It may be expressed as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 H &= \text{height in feet, and } f = \text{factor of safety;} \\
 d &= \text{diameter in inches;} \\
 p &= \text{pressure in lbs. per square inch;} \\
 .434 &= p \text{ for 1 ft. in height;} \\
 s &= \text{tensile strength of material per square inch;} \\
 T &= \text{thickness of plate.}
 \end{aligned}$$

The total strain on each side per vertical inch

$$= \frac{.434Hd}{2} = \frac{pd}{2}; \quad T = \frac{.434Hdf}{2s} = \frac{pdf}{2s}.$$

When f takes $f = 5$, not counting reduction of strength of joint, equivalent to an actual factor of safety of 3 if the strength of the riveted joint is only 60 per cent of that of the plate.

The amount of the wind strain per square inch of metal at any joint can be found by the following formula, in which

$$\begin{aligned}
 H &= \text{height of stand-pipe in feet above joint;} \\
 T &= \text{thickness of plate in inches;} \\
 p &= \text{wind-pressure per square foot;} \\
 W &= \text{wind-pressure per foot in height above joint;} \\
 W &= Dp \text{ where } D \text{ is the diameter in feet;} \\
 m &= \text{average leverage or movement about neutral axis} \\
 &\quad \text{or central points in the circumference; or,} \\
 m &= \text{side of } 45^\circ, \text{ or } .707 \text{ times the radius in feet,}
 \end{aligned}$$

Then the strain per square inch of plate

$$(Hw) \frac{H}{2} \\ = \frac{\text{circ. in ft.} \times mT}{2}$$

Mr. Coffin gives a number of diagrams useful in the Design of stand together with a number of instances of failures, with discussion probable causes.

Mr. Kiersted's paper contains the following: Among the most prominent strains a stand-pipe has to bear are: that due to the static pressure water, that due to the overturning effect of the wind on the open pipe, and that due to the collapsing effect, on the upper rings, of wind storms.

For the thickness of metal to withstand safely the static pressure water, let

$$t = \text{thickness of the plate iron in inches;} \\ H = \text{height of stand-pipe in feet;} \\ D = \text{diameter of stand-pipe in feet.}$$

Then, assuming a tensile strength of 48,000 lbs. per square inch, a of safety of 4, and efficiency of double-riveted lap-joint equalling 0.7 strength of the solid plate,

$$t = .00036H \times D; \quad H = \frac{10,000t}{3.6D};$$

which will give safe heights for thicknesses up to $\frac{5}{8}$ to $\frac{3}{4}$ of an inch same formula may also apply for greater heights and thicknesses practical limits, if the joint efficiency be increased by triple riveting.

The conditions for the severest overturning wind strains exist when stand pipe is empty.

Formula for wind-pressure of 50 pounds per square foot, when

$$d = \text{diameter of stand-pipe in inches;} \\ x = \text{any unknown height of stand-pipe;} \\ x = \sqrt{80\pi d t} = 15.85 \sqrt{d t}.$$

The following table is calculated by these formulæ. The stand-pipe intended to be self-sustaining; that is, without guys or stiffeners.

Heights of Stand-pipes for Various Diameters and Thicknesses of Plates.

Thickness of Plate in Fractions of an Inch.	Diameters in Feet.											
	5	6	7	8	9	10	12	14	15	16	18	20
3-16	50	55	60	65	55	50	35					
7-32	55				65	60	50	40	40			
4-16	60	65	70	75	75	70	55	50	45	40	35	30
5-16	70	75	80	85	90	85	70	60	55	50	45	40
6-16	75	80	90	95	100	100	85	75	70	65	60	55
7-16	80	90	95	100	110	115	100	85	80	75	70	65
8-16	85	95	100	110	115	120	115	100	90	85	75	70
9-16				115	125	130	130	110	100	95	85	80
10-16					130	135	145	120	115	105	95	90
11-16						145	155	135	125	120	105	100
12-16							150	165	145	135	130	115
13-16								160	150	140	125	115
14-16									160	150	135	125
15-16										160	145	135
16-16											160	145

Heights to nearest 5 feet. Rings are to build 5 feet vertically.

Failures of Stand-pipes have been numerous in recent years list showing 23 important failures inside of nine years is given in a paper by Prof. W. D. Pence, *Eng'g News*, April 5, 12, 19 and 26, May 3, 10 and 17, June 7, 1894. His discussion of the probable causes of the failures is valuable.

Allen, Engineers Club of Philadelphia, 1886, gives the following thickness of plates for stand pipes.

Wrought iron plate T. S. 48,000 pounds in direction of fibre, and pounds across the fibre. Strength of single riveted joint .4 that of .5, and of double riveted joint, .7 that of the plate; wind pressure is per square foot; safety factor = 3.

h = total height in feet; r = outer radius in feet; r' = inner radius in feet; p = pressure per square inch; t = thickness in inches; d = outer diameter in feet.

pipe filled and longitudinal seams double riveted

$$t = \frac{pr \times 12}{48,000 \times .7 \times \frac{1}{2}} = \frac{hd}{4301}$$

pipe empty and lateral seams, single riveted, we have by equating

$$r \left(\frac{h}{2} \right)^2 = 144 \times 6000 (r^4 - r'^4) \frac{.7854}{r}, \text{ whence } r^4 - r'^4 = \frac{h^2 r^2}{27144}$$

showing required Thickness of Bottom Plate.

in	Diameter.					
	5 feet.	10 feet.	15 feet.	20 feet.	25 feet.	30 feet.
"	"	"	"	"	"	"
+ 7-64*	$\frac{1}{8}$ *	11-64*	15-64	19-64	23-64	27-64
+11-64*	9-64*	7-32	9-32	13-32	17-32	21-32
+ 7-32	11-64*	$\frac{1}{4}$	21-64	13-32	31-64	31-64
+19-64	3-16	9-32	$\frac{3}{8}$	15-32	9-16	9-16
+ $\frac{3}{8}$	7-32	5-16	27-64	17-32	$\frac{3}{8}$	$\frac{3}{8}$
+29-64	+15-64	23-64	15-32	37-64	45-64	45-64
	+23-64	7-16	37-64	47-64	$\frac{3}{8}$	$\frac{3}{8}$
	+33-64	17-32	45-64	$\frac{3}{8}$	1 3-64	1 3-64
	+11-16	39-64	13-16	1 1-32	1 7-32	1 7-32
	+29-32	45-64	15-16	1 11-64	1 25-64	1 25-64

* The minimum thickness should = 3-16".

N.B.—Dimensions marked † determined by wind-pressure.

r Tower at Yonkers, N. Y.—This tower, with a pipe 122 feet 20 feet diameter, is described in *Engineering News*, May 18, 1892. Thickness of the lower rings is 11-16 of an inch, based on a tensile strength of 80,000 lbs. per square inch of metal, allowing 65% for the strength of joints, using a factor of safety of $3\frac{1}{2}$ and adding a constant of 1.

The plates diminish in thickness by 1-16 inch to the last four feet of the top, which are $\frac{1}{4}$ inch thick.

The material for steel requires an elastic limit of at least 33,000 lbs. per square inch; an ultimate tensile strength of from 56,000 to 66,000 lbs. per square inch; an elongation in 8 inches of at least 20%, and a reduction of area of at least 45%. The inspection of the work was made by the Pittsburgh Laboratory. According to their report the actual conditions determined were as follows: Elastic limit from 34,020 to 39,420; the tensile strength from 58,330 to 65,390; the elongation in 8 inches from 22 $\frac{1}{4}$ to 32%; the reduction of area from 52.72 to 71.32%; 17 plates out of 141 were rejected in inspection.

WROUGHT-IRON AND STEEL WATER-PIPES.

Wrought Steel Water-pipes (*Engineering News*, Oct. 11, 1890, and Oct. 29, 1891).—The use of riveted wrought-iron pipe has been common in the United States for many years, the largest being a 44-inch conduit in use with the works of the Spring Valley Water Co., which supplies the city of New York. The use of wrought iron and steel pipe has been necessary in the West, owing to the extremely high pressures to be withstood, and the difficulties of transportation. As an example: In connection with

the water supply of Virginia City and Gold Hill, Nev., there was 1872 an 11 $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch riveted wrought-iron pipe, a part of which is now of 1720 feet.

In the East, the most important example of the use of riveted steel pipe is that of the East Jersey Water Co., which supplies the city of Newark. The contract provided for a maximum high service supply of 25,000 gallons daily. In this case 21 miles of 48-inch pipe was laid, some of it 10 feet head. The plates from which the pipe is made are about 13 by 7 feet wide, open-hearth steel. Four plates are used to make one of pipe about 27 feet long. The pipe is riveted longitudinally with row, and at the end joints with a single row of rivets of varying corresponding to the thickness of the steel plates. Before being put in the trench, two of the 27-foot lengths are riveted together, thus diminishing the number of joints to be made in the trench and simplifying excavation to give room for jointing. All changes in the grade of line are made by 10° curves and all changes in line by 2 $\frac{1}{2}$, 5, 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ curves. To lay on curved lines a standard bevel was used, and the curves are secured by varying the number of beveled joints in certain length of pipe.

The thickness of the plates varies with the pressure, but only three thicknesses are used, $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{5}{16}$, and $\frac{3}{8}$ inches, the pipe made of these thicknesses having a weight of 160, 185, and 225 lbs. per foot, respectively. All the pipe was tested to pressure 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ times that to which it is subjected when in place.

Mannesmann Tubes for High Pressures.—At the Mann Works at Komotau, Hungary, more than 600 tons of 25 miles and 4-inch tubes averaging $\frac{1}{4}$ inch in thickness have been successfully tested to a pressure of 2000 lbs. per square inch. These tubes were used for a high-pressure water-main in a Chilean nitrate district.

This great tensile strength is probably due to the fact that, in being much more worked than most metal, the fibres of the steel are spirally, as has been proved by microscopic examination. While steel tubes will hardly stand more than 200 lbs. per square inch, and wrought-iron tubes are not safe above 1000 lbs. per square inch, the Mannesmann tubes withstand 2000 lbs. per square inch. The length up to which they can be readily made is shown by the fact that a coil of 3-inch tube 50 miles long was made recently.

For description of the process of making Mannesmann tubes see *A. I. M. E.*, vol. xix., 384.

STRENGTH OF VARIOUS MATERIALS. EXTENDED FROM KIRKALDY'S TESTS.

The recent publication, in a book by W. G. Kirkaldy, of the results of thousands of tests made during a quarter of a century by his father, John Kirkaldy, has made an important contribution to our knowledge of the range of variation in strength of numerous materials. A full abstract of these results was published in the *American Machinist* and 18, 1893, from which the following still further condensed extracts are taken:

The figures for tensile and compressive strength, or, as Kirkaldy terms them, pulling and thrusting stress, are given in pounds per square inch of original section, and for bending strength in pounds of actual stress per BD^2 (breadth \times square of depth) for length of 36 inches between supports. The contraction of area is given as a percentage of the original area, and the extension as a percentage in a length of 10 inches, except otherwise stated. The abbreviations T. S., E. L., Contr., and Ext. are used for the sake of brevity, to represent tensile strength, elastic limit, percentage of contraction of area, and elongation, respectively.

Cast Iron.—44 tests: T. S. 15,468 to 28,740 pounds; 17 of these were of the strength ranging from 15,468 to 21,257 pounds. Average 21,805 pounds.

Thrusting stress, specimens 2 inches long, 1.34 to 1.5 in. diameter all sound, 94,352 to 131,912; one unsound, 93,759; average of all, 113,000 pounds.

Bending stress, bars about 1 in. wide by 2 in. deep, cast on a flat surface, stress 2875 to 3854; stress per $BD^2 = 725$ to 892; average, 820.

Modulus of rupture, R , = stress per $BD^2 \times$ length, = 29,520. 117 tests, 33 to 40 in.; average 34 inch.

27 tests of cast iron, 460 tests, 16 lots from various sources

in total range as follows; Pulling stress, 12,688 to 33,616 pounds; g stress, 66,363 to 175,950 pounds; bending stress, per BD^2 , 505 to 205; modulus of rupture, R , 18,180 to 40,608. Ultimate deflection, 1/16 in.

specimen which was the highest in thrusting stress was also the highest in bending, and showed the greatest deflection, but its tensile strength was 23,762.

specimen with the highest tensile strength had a thrusting stress of 12,688 and a bending strength, per BD^2 , of 579 pounds with 0.41 deflection. The specimen lowest in T. S. was also lowest in thrusting and bending, but its deflection was 1/16 in. The specimen which gave .21 deflection had T. S., 19,188; g, 104,281; and bending, 561.

Castings.—69 tests; tensile strength, 10,416 to 31,652; thrusting stress, per square inch, 53,502 to 132,031.

Steel Irons.—Tests of 18 pieces cut from channel irons. T. S., 53,111 pounds per square inch; contr. of area from 3.9 to 32.5 %. Fractures from 2.1 to 22.5 %. The fractures ranged all the way from 100 % to 100 % crystalline. The highest T. S., 53,141, with 8.1 % contr. and 100 % crystalline; the lowest T. S., 40,693, with 3.9 contr. and 75 % crystalline. All the fibrous irons showed from 12.2 to 17.8 to 32.5 contr., and T. S. from 43,426 to 49,615. The fibrous irons are therefore of medium tensile strength and high ductility. The channel irons are of variable T. S., highest to lowest, and low ductility.

Lowmoor Iron Bars.—Three rolled bars 2 3/4 inches diameter; tensile strength, 24,200 to 24,200; ultimate, 50,875 to 51,905; contraction, 44.4 to 44.4. Three hammered bars, 4 1/2 inches diameter, tensile strength, 100 to 24,200; ultimate, 46,810 to 49,223; contraction, 20.7 to 46.5; modulus of rupture, 10.8 to 31.6. Fractures of all, 100 per cent fibrous. In the hammered bars the lowest T. S. was accompanied by lowest ductility.

Bars, Various.—Of a lot of 80 bars of various sizes, some rolled and some hammered (the above Lowmoor bars included) the lowest T. S. was 40,803 pounds per square inch, was shown by the Swedish "Farley" bar 3 1/4 inches diameter, rolled. Its elastic limit was 19,150 pounds, contraction 68.7 % and extension 37.7 % in 10 inches. It was also ductile of all the bars tested, and was 100 % fibrous. The highest tensile strength was 53,141 pounds, with elastic limit, 29,400; contr., 36.6; and ext., 24.3 %. It was a "Farley" 2-inch bar, rolled. It was also 100 % fibrous, and ductility 2.6 % contr., and 4.1 % ext., was shown by a 3 3/4-inch bar, without braid. It also had the lowest T. S., 40,378 pounds, with high elastic limit, 25,700 pounds. Its fracture was 95 % crystalline. The other two bars showing the lowest T. S., one was the most ductile and the other the least ductile in the whole series of 80 bars.

The bars showing the highest tensile strength, as in the above, high ductility is accompanied by low tensile strength, as in the above, but the Farley bars showed a combination of high ductility and high tensile strength.

Wrought Forgings, Iron.—17 tests; average, E. L., 30,430; T. S., 36,500; ext. in 10 inches, 24.8.

Anchor Forgings, Iron.—4 tests; average, E. L., 23,825; T. S., 36,500; ext. in 10 inches, 3.8.

These two irons in contrast to show the difference between good and bad work. The broken anchor material, he says, is of a most inferior character, and a disgrace to any manufacturer.

Plate Girder.—Tensile tests of pieces cut from a riveted iron girder twenty years' service in a railway bridge. Top plate, average E. L., 26,000; T. S., 40,806; contr. 16.1; ext. in 10 inches, 7.8. Web-plate, average of 3 tests, E. L., 31,200; T. S., 44,288; contr., 13.3; ext. in 10 inches, 8.9. Fractures all fibrous. The results of 30 different parts of the girder prove that the iron has undergone no change in its properties during twenty years of use.

Links.—Six plates 100 inches long, 2 inches wide, thickness varied from 1/2 inch to 1/4 inch. T. S., 55,485 to 60,805; E. L., 29,600 to 33,200; contr., 52.9 to 17.05 to 18.57.

Ridge Links.—40 links from Hammersmith Bridge, 1886.

	T. S.	E. L.	Contr.	Ext. in 100 in.	Fracture.	
					Silky.	Granular.
Average of all.....	67,294	38,294	34.5%	14.11%		
Lowest T. S.....	60,753	36,030	30.1	15.51	30%	7%
Highest T. S. and E. L....	75,936	44,166	31.2	12.42	15	8%
Lowest E. L.....	64,044	32,441	34.7	13.43	30	7%
Greatest Contraction.....	63,745	38,118	52.8	15.46	100	0
Greatest Extension.....	65,980	36,792	40.8	17.78	35	6%
Least Contr. and Ext.....	63,980	39,017	6.0	6.62	0	10%

The ratio of elastic to ultimate strength ranged from 50.6 to 65.2 per cent average, 56.9 per cent.

Extension in lengths of 100 inches. At 10,000 lbs. per sq. in., .018 to .020 mean, .020 inch; at 20,000 lbs. per sq. in., .049 to .063; mean, .055 inch; 30,000 lbs. per sq. in., .083 to .100; mean, .090; set at 30,000 pounds per sq. in. 0 to .002; mean, 0.

The mean extension between 10,000 to 30,000 lbs. per sq. in. increased regularly at the rate of .007 inch for each 2000 lbs. per sq. in. increment of stress. This corresponds to a modulus of elasticity of 28,571,429. The least increase of extension for an increase of load of 20,000 lbs. per sq. in., .065 inch, corresponds to a modulus of elasticity of 30,769,231, and the greatest, .076 inch, to a modulus of 26,315,789.

Steel Rails.—Bending tests, 5 feet between supports, 11 tests of flat rails 72 pounds per yard, 4.63 inches high.

	Elastic stress. Pounds.	Ultimate stress. Pounds.	Deflection at 50,000 Pounds.	Ultimate Deflect.
Hardest. ...	34,300	60,960	3.24 ins.	8 ins.
Softest	32,000	56,740	3.76 "	8 "
Mean	32,763	59,209	3.53 "	8 "

All uncracked at 8 inches deflection.

Pulling tests of pieces cut from same rails. Mean results.

	Elastic Stress. per sq. in.	Ultimate Pounds. per sq. in.	Contraction of area of frac- ture.	Extens. in 10 in.
Top of rails.....	44,300	83,110	19.9%	13.54
Bottom of rails.	40,900	77,820	30.9%	22.84

Steel Tires.—Tensile tests of specimens cut from steel tires.

KRUPP STEEL.—362 Tests.

	E. L.	T. S.	Contr.	Ext. in 5 inches.
Highest.....	69,350	119,079	31.9	18.1
Mean.....	52,869	104,112	29.5	19.7
Lowest.....	41,700	90,523	45.5	22.7

VICKERS, SONS & Co.—70 Tests.

	E. L.	T. S.	Contr.	Ext. in 5 inches.
Highest.....	58,600	120,789	11.8	8.4
Mean.....	51,066	101,364	17.6	12.4
Lowest.....	43,700	87,697	24.7	13.0

Note the correspondence between Krupp's and Vickers' steels as to tensile strength and elastic limit, and their great difference in contraction at fracture. The fractures of the Krupp steel averaged 22 per cent silky and 78 per cent granular; of the Vicker steel, 7 per cent silky, 33 per cent granular.

Patent Axles.—Tensile tests of specimens cut from steel axles.

PATENT SHAFT AND AXLE TREE CO.—157 Tests.

	E. L.	T. S.	Contr.	Ext. in 5 inches.
.....	49,800	59,009	21.1	16.0
.....	36,267	72,089	33.0	23.6
.....	31,800	61,382	34.8	25.3

VICKERS, SONS & Co.—125 Tests.

	E. L.	T. S.	Contr.	Ext. in 5 inches.
.....	42,600	83,701	18.9	13.2
.....	37,618	70,572	41.6	27.5
.....	30,250	56,388	49.0	37.2

average fracture of Patent Shaft and Axle Tree Co. steel was 33 per cent granular.

average fracture of Vickers' steel was 88 per cent silky, 12 per cent granular.

Tests of specimens cut from locomotive crank axles.

VICKERS'.—82 Tests, 1879.

	E. L.	T. S.	Contr.	Ext. in 5 inches.
.....	26,700	68,067	28.3	18.4
.....	24,146	57,922	32.9	24.0
.....	21,700	50,195	52.7	36.2

VICKERS'.—78 Tests, 1884.

	E. L.	T. S.	Contr.	Ext. in 5 inches.
.....	27,600	64,873	27.0	20.8
.....	23,573	56,207	32.7	25.9
.....	17,600	47,695	35.0	27.2

FRIED. KRUPP.—43 Tests, 1880.

	E. L.	T. S.	Contr.	Ext. in 5 inches.
.....	31,650	66,868	48.6	35.6
.....	29,491	61,774	47.7	32.3
.....	21,950	55,172	55.3	35.6

Propeller Shafts.—Tensile tests of pieces cut from two shafts, of four tests each. Hollow shaft, Whitworth, T. S., 61,290; E. L., contr., 52.8; ext. in 10 inches, 28.6. Solid shaft, Vickers', T. S., E. L. 29,425; contr., 41.4; ext. in 10 inches, 30.7.

Testing tests, Whitworth, ultimate, 56,201; elastic, 29,300; set at 30,000 lbs. per cent; set at 40,000 lbs., 2.04 per cent; set at 50,000 lbs., 3.82 per

cent; set at 40,000 lbs., 4.69 per cent.

Testing strength of the Whitworth shaft, mean of four tests, was 40,554 lbs. per square inch, or 66.3 per cent of the pulling stress. Specific gravity of Whitworth steel, 7.867; of the Vickers', 7.856.

Spring Steel.—Untempered, 6 tests, average, E. L., 67,916; T. S., contr., 37.8; ext. in 10 inches, 16.6. Spring steel untempered, 15 tests, average, E. L., 38,785; T. S., 69,496; contr., 19.1; ext. in 10 inches, 29.8. Two lots were shipped for the same purpose, viz., railway carriage springs.

Castings.—44 tests, E. L., 31,816 to 35,567; T. S., 54,928 to 63,840; contr., 1.67 to 3.8; ext., 1.45 to 15.1. Note the great variation in ductility. The lot of the highest strength was also the most ductile.

Retorted Joints, Pulling Tests of Riveted Steel Plates,
Triple Riveted Lap Joints, Machine Riveted,
Holes Drilled.

width and thickness, inches:			
13.25 x .25	19.00 x .51	11.75 x .78	12.25 x 1.01
14.75	6.63	9.165	12.372
14 pounds:			10.760
332,640	423,180	528,000	455,310

Stress per square inch of gross area, joint :				
59,058	50,172	46,173	42,696	
Stress per square inch of plates, solid :				
70,765	65,300	61,050	62,380	
Ratio of strength of joint to solid plate :				
83.46	76.83	72.09	68.55	
Ratio net area of plate to gross :				
73.4	65.5	62.7	64.7	
Where fractured :				
plate at holes.	plate at holes.	plate at holes.	plate at holes.	
Rivets, diameter, area and number :				
.45, 159, 24	.64, 321, 21	.95, 708, 12	1.08, 916, 12	.95
Rivets, total area :				
3,816	6,741	8,496	10,992	

Strength of Welds.—Tensile tests to determine ratio of strength of weld to solid bar.

IRON TIE BARS.—28 Tests.

Strength of solid bars varied from	43,201 to 57,442
Strength of welded bars varied from	17,816 to 46,836
Ratio of weld to solid varied from	37.0 to 72.1

IRON PLATES.—7 Tests.

Strength of solid plate from	44,851 to 47,330
Strength of welded plate from	26,442 to 37,173
Ratio of weld to solid.	57.7 to 77.1

CHAIN LINKS.—216 Tests.

Strength of solid bar from	49,122 to 57,442
Strength of welded bar from	39,575 to 46,836
Ratio of weld to solid	72.1 to 77.1

IRON BARS.—Hand and Electric Machine Welded.

32 tests, solid iron, average	52,444
17 " electric welded, average	46,836
19 " hand welded, average	46,899

STEEL BARS AND PLATES.—14 Tests.

Strength of solid	54,236
Strength of weld	28,553
Ratio weld to solid	52.7

The ratio of weld to solid in all the tests ranging from 37.0 to 95.7, shows a great variation of workmanship in welding.

Cast Copper.—4 tests, average, E. L., 5900; T. S., 24,781; ext. 21.8.

Copper Plates.—As rolled, 22 tests, .36 to .75 in. thick; E. L. 18,650; T. S., 30,993 to 34,281; contr., 31.1 to 57.6; ext., 39.9 to 52.2. Variation in elastic limit is due to difference in the heat at which they were finished. Annealing reduces the T. S. only about 1000 pounds. E. L. from 3000 to 7000 pounds.

Another series, .38 to .52 thick; 148 tests, T. S., 29,099 to 31,924; ext. 25.7; ext. in 10 inches, 28.1 to 41.8. Note the uniformity of strength.

Drawn Copper.—74 tests (0.88 to 1.08 inch diameter); T. S., 40,557; contr., 37.5 to 64.1; ext. in 10 inches, 5.8 to 48.3.

Bronze from a Propeller Blade.—Means of two tests at centre and edge. Central portion (sp. gr. 8.320), E. L., 7550; T. S., 25.4; ext. in 10 inches, 32.8. Edge portion (sp. gr. 8.550), E. L., T. S., 35,960; contr., 37.8; ext. in 10 inches, 47.9.

Cast German Silver.—10 tests; E. L., 13,400 to 39,100; T. S., 46,510; contr., 3.2 to 21.5; ext. in 10 inches, 0.6 to 10.2.

Thin Sheet Metal.—Tensile Strength.

German silver, 2 lots	75,816
Bronze, 4 lots	73,380
Brass, 2 lots	44,398
Copper, 9 lots	30,470
" " 13 lots, lengthway	44,331
" " 13 lots, crossway	39,808
" " 13 lots, diagonal	49,238
" " 13 lots, crossway	56,548

Wire.—Tensile Strength.

silver, 5 lots.....	81,735 to 92,224
1 lot.....	78,049
as drawn, 4 lots.....	81,114 to 98,578
annealed, 3 lots.....	87,607 to 46,494
(another lot), 4 lots.....	34,936 to 45,210
(extension 36.4 to 0.6%).	85,052 to 62,190
ots.....	59,246 to 97,908
tension 15.1 to 0.7%).	108,272 to 318,823

eel of 318,823 T. S. was .047 inch diam., and had an extension of only cent; that of 103,272 T. S. was .107 inch diam. and had an extension cent. One lot of .044 inch diam. had 267,114 T. S., and 5.2 per cent

Wire Ropes.

Selected Tests Showing Range of Variation.

Description.	Circumference, inches.	Weight per Fathom.	Strands.		Diameter of Wires, inches.	Hemp Core.	Ultimate Strength, lbs.
			No. of Strands.	No. of Wires.			
sd.....	7.70	53.00	6	19	.1563	Main	339,780
ized.....	7.00	53.10	7	19	.1495	Main and Strands	314,860
sd.....	6.38	42.50	7	19	.1347	Wire Core	295,920
ized.....	7.10	37.57	6	30	.1604	Main and Strands	272,750
sd.....	6.18	40.46	7	19	.1302	Wire Core	268,470
ized.....	6.19	40.33	7	19	.1316	Wire Core	221,820
sd.....	4.92	20.86	6	30	.0728	Main and Strands	190,890
ized.....	5.36	18.94	6	12	.1104	Main and Strands	136,550
sd.....	4.82	21.50	6	7	.1693	Main	129,710
ized.....	3.65	12.21	6	19	.0755	Main	110,180
sd.....	3.50	12.65	7	7	.122	Wire Core	101,440
ized.....	3.82	14.12	6	7	.135	Main	98,670
sd.....	4.11	11.35	6	12	.080	Main and Strands	75,110
ized.....	3.31	7.27	6	12	.068	Main and Strands	55,095
sd.....	3.02	8.62	6	7	.105	Main	49,555
ized.....	2.68	6.26	6	6	.0963	Main and Strands	41,305
sd.....	2.87	5.43	6	12	.0560	Main and Strands	38,555
ized.....	2.46	3.85	6	12	.0472	Main and Strands	28,075
sd.....	1.75	2.80	6	7	.0619	Main	24,552
ized.....	2.04	2.72	6	12	.0878	Main and Strands	20,415
sd.....	1.76	1.85	6	12	.0305	Main	14,634

Wire Ropes, Untarred.—15 tests of ropes from 1.53 to 6.90 inches circumference, weighing 0.42 to 7.77 pounds per fathom, showed an ultimate strength of from 1670 to 33,808 pounds, the strength per fathom weight varying from 2872 to 5534 pounds.

Wire Ropes, Tarred.—15 tests of ropes from 1.44 to 7.12 inches circumference, weighing from 0.38 to 10.39 pounds per fathom, showed an ultimate strength of from 1016 to 31,549 pounds, the strength per fathom weight varying from 1767 to 5149 pounds.

Wire Ropes.—5 ropes, 2.48 to 6.51 inches circumference, 1.08 to 8.17 per fathom. Strength 3089 to 23,258 pounds, or 2474 to 3346 pounds per fathom weight.

Wire Ropes.—35 tests: 1.19 to 8.90 inches circumference, 0.20 to 10.39 pounds per fathom. Strength 1280 to 65,550 pounds, or 3003 to 7394 pounds per fathom weight.

No. of lots.	Belting.	Tensile strength per square inch.
11	Leather, single, ordinary tanned	3248
4	Leather, single, Helvetia	5631
7	Leather, double, ordinary tanned.....	2160
8	Leather, double Helvetia.....	4078
6	Cotton, solid woven.....	5648
14	Cotton, folded, stitched	4570
1	Flax, solid, woven	99
1	Flax, folded, stitched.....	63
6	Hair, solid, woven	3882
2	Rubber, solid, woven	4271

Canvas.—35 lots: Strength, lengthwise, 113 to 408 pounds per crossways, 191 to 468 pounds per inch.

The grades are numbered 1 to 6, but the weights are not given, strengths vary considerably, even in the same number.

Marbles.—Crushing strength of various marbles. 38 tests, 8 specimens were 6-inch cubes, or columns 4 to 6 inches diameter, and 12 inches high. Range 7542 to 13,730 pounds per square inch.

Granite.—Crushing strength, 17 tests; square columns 4 × 4 and 4 to 24 inches high, 3 kinds. Crushing strength ranges 10,026 to pounds per square inch. (Very uniform.)

Stones.—(Probably sandstone, local names only given.) 11 kiln tests, 6 × 6, columns 12, 18 and 24 inches high. Crushing strength from 2105 to 12,122. The strength of the column 24 inches long is gone from 10 to 20 per cent less than that of the 6-inch cube.

Stones.—(Probably sandstone) tested for London & Northwestern way. 16 lots, 3 to 6 tests in a lot. Mean results of each lot ranged 3785 to 11,956 pounds. The variation is chiefly due to the stones being different lots. The different specimens in each lot gave results which generally agreed within 30 per cent.

Bricks.—Crushing strength, 8 lots; 6 tests in each lot; mean ranged from 1835 to 9209 pounds per square inch. The maximum variation in the specimens of one lot was over 100 per cent of the lowest. In the uniform lot the variation was less than 20 per cent.

Wood.—Transverse and Thrusting Tests.

	Tests.	Sizes abt. in square.	Span, inches.	Ultimate Stress.	$\frac{S}{LW}$ $\frac{4BD^2}{L^3}$
Pitch pine.....	10	11½ to 12½	144	45,856	1096
				to	to
				80,520	1403
Dantzic fir.....	12	12 to 13	144	37,948	657
				to	to
				54,152	790
English oak.....	3	4½ × 12	120	32,856	1505
				to	to
				39,084	1779
American white oak	5	4½ × 12	120	33,624	1190
				to	to
				26,952	1372

Demerara greenheart, 9 tests (thrusting).....	816
Oregon pine, 2 tests.....	585
Honduras mahogany, 1 test
Tobasco mahogany, 1 test
Norway spruce, 2 tests	522
American yellow pine, 2 tests	387
English ash, 1 test

Portland Cement.—(Austrian.) Cross-sections of specimens for crushing tests only; cubes, 3 × 3 inches for thrusting tests.

nds per imperial bushel; residue, 0.7 per cent with sieve 3500 meshes
re inch; 38.8 per cent by volume of water required for mixing; time
g. 7 days; 10 tests to each lot. The mean results in lbs. per sq. in.
follows:

Cement alone, Pulling.	Cement alone, Thrusting.	1 Cement, 2 Sand, Thrusting.	1 Cement, 3 Sand, Thrusting.	1 Cement, 4 Sand, Thrusting.
376	2910	893	407	228
420	3342	1023	494	375
451	3734	1172	594	338

land Cement.—Various samples pulling tests, 2 × 2½ inches
sion, all aged 10 days, 180 tests; ranges 87 to 643 pounds per square

TENSILE STRENGTH OF WIRE.

(From J. Bucknall Smith's Treatise on Wire.)

	Tons per sq. in. sectional area.	Pounds per sq. in. sectional area.
annealed iron wire.....	25	56,000
hard drawn.....	35	78,400
er, steel wire.....	40	89,600
emens-Martin steel wire.....	60	134,000
arbon ditto (or "improved").....	80	179,200
le cast-steel "improved" wire.....	100	224,000
oved "cast-steel" "plough".....	120	268,800
Qualities of tempered and improved cast- steel wire may attain.....	150 to 170	336,000 to 380,800

MISCELLANEOUS TESTS OF MATERIALS.
orts of Work of the Watertown Testing-machine in
1883.

TESTS OF RIVETED JOINTS, IRON AND STEEL PLATES.

Thickness Plates, inches.	Diameter, Rivets, inches.	Diameter, Punched Holes, inches.	Width Plate Tested, inches.	No. Rivets.	Pitch Rivets, inches.	Tensile Strength Joint in Net Sec- tion of Plate per square inch, pounds.	Tensile Strength Plate per square inch, pounds.	Efficiency of Joint, Per Cent.
11-16	¾	10½	6	6	13¾	39,300	47,180	47.0
						41,000	47,180	49.0
11-16	¾	10½	6	6	12	35,650	44,615	45.6
						35,150	44,615	44.9
11-16	¾	10	5	5	12	46,360	47,180	59.9
						46,875	47,180	60.5
11-16	¾	10	5	5	12	46,400	44,615	59.4
						46,140	44,615	59.2
1	1	11-16	10½	4	25¾	44,260	44,635	57.2
						42,350	44,635	54.9
1	1	11-16	10½	4	23	42,310	46,590	52.1
						41,920	46,590	51.7
1	1	11-16	11-9	4	23	61,370	53,330	59.5
						60,830	53,330	59.1
15-16	1	13-16	10½	6	13¾	47,530	57,215	40.2
						49,840	57,215	42.3
11-16	¾	10	5	5	12	62,770	53,330	71.7
						61,210	53,330	60.8
15-16	1	10	5	5	12	68,920	57,215	57.1
						66,710	57,215	56.0
1	1	11-16	9½	4	23¾	62,180	52,445	63.4
						62,590	52,445	63.8
1	1	11-16	9½	4	23¾	51,650	51,545	54.0
						54,200	51,545	53.4

† Steel.

‡ Lap-joint.

§ Butt-joint.

The efficiency of the joints is found by dividing the maximum tensile stress on the gross sectional area of plate by the tensile strength of the material.

COMPRESSION TESTS OF 3 X 3 INCH WROUGHT-IRON BARS.

Length, inches.	Tested with Two Pin Ends, Pins 1½ inch in Diameter.		Tested with One Flat and One Pin End, Ultimate Compressive Strength, pounds per square inch.
	Ultimate Com- pressive Strength pounds per square inch.	Tested with Two Flat Ends, Ulti- mate Compressive Strength, pounds per square inch.	
30	{ 28,260 31,990 26,310
60	{ 26,640 24,030
90	{ 25,380 20,660	{ 26,780 25,580	{ 25,190 25,190
120	{ 20,200 16,590	{ 23,010 22,450	{ 22,450 21,870
150	{ 17,840 13,010
180	{ 15,700

Tested with two pin- ends. Length of bars 120 inches.	Diameter of Pins.	Ult. Comp. St. per sq. in., lb.

TENSILE TEST OF SIX STEEL EYE-BARS.

COMPARED WITH SMALL TEST INGOTS.

The steel was made by the Cambria Iron Company, and the eye-bar by the Keystone Bridge Company by upsetting and hammering. All bars were made from one ingot. Two test pieces, ¾-inch round, rolled from a test-ingot, gave elastic limit 48,040 and 42,210 pounds; tensile strength 73,150 and 69,470 pounds, and elongation in 8 inches, 22.4 and 23.6 per cent respectively. The ingot from which the eye-bars were made was 14 inches square, rolled to billet, 7 x 6 inches. The eye-bars were rolled to 6¼ x 11 inches. Chemical tests gave carbon .27 to .30; manganese, .61 to .73; phosphorus, .074 to .098.

Gauged Length, inches.	Elastic limit, lbs. per sq. in.	Tensile strength per sq. in., lbs.	Elongation per cent, in Gauged Length
160	37,480	67,800	15.8
160	36,650	64,000	6.96
160	71,560	8.6
200	37,600	68,730	12.3
200	35,810	65,850	12.0
200	33,230	64,410	16.4
200	37,640	68,290	13.9

The average tensile strength of the ¾-inch test pieces was 71,310 lbs., of the eye-bars 67,230 lbs., a decrease of 5.7%. The average elastic limit of the test pieces was 45,150 lbs., that of the eye-bars 36,402 lbs., a decrease of 19.4%. The elastic limit of the test pieces was 63.3% of the ultimate strength of the eye-bars 54.2% of the ultimate strength.

IMPRESSION OF WROUGHT-IRON COLUMNS, LATTICED BOX AND SOLID WEB.

ALL TESTED WITH PIN ENDS.

Columns made of	Length, feet.	Sectional Area, square inch.	Total Weight of Column, pounds.	Ultimate Strength, per square inch, pounds.
channel, solid web	10.0	9.831	432	30,220
" " "	15.0	9.977	592	21,050
" " "	20.0	9.763	755	16,220
" " "	20.0	16.281	1,290	22,540
" " "	26.8	16.141	1,645	17,570
channels, with 5-16-in. continuous plates	26.8	19.417	1,940	25,390
channels, with continuous plates and angles. Plates 12 in., 1 in. and 7.35 in.	26.8	16.168	1,765	28,020
channels, with continuous plates and angles. Plates 12 in. wide.	26.8	20.954	2,242	25,770
channels, latticed	13.3	7.628	679	33,910
" " "	20.0	7.621	924	34,120
" " "	26.8	7.673	1,255	29,870
channels, latticed, swelled sides	13.4	7.624	684	33,530
" " "	20.0	7.517	921	33,890
" " "	26.8	7.702	1,280	30,770
" " "	16.8	11.944	1,470	33,740
" " "	25.0	12.175	1,926	32,440
channels, latticed, swelled sides	16.7	12.366	1,549	31,120
" " "	25.0	11.932	1,962	32,740
channels, latticed one side; continuous plate one side	25.0	17.622	1,848	26,190
channels, latticed one side; continuous plate one side	25.0	17.721	1,827	17,370

s in centre of gravity of channel bars and continuous plate, 1.63
 from centre line of channel bars.
 s placed in centre of gravity of channel bars.

EFFECT OF COLD-DRAWING ON STEEL.

Two tensile bars and two compression bars, cut from the same bar of
 cold-drawn steel, from the Norway Steel and Iron Company:

Condition	Tensile strength per sq. in., lbs.	Elongation, per cent.	Compress. Stress, lbs. per sq. in.	Amount of Compress., in.	Compress. set, in.
Condition of the original hot-rolled bar, length 30 inches, diameter 2.03 inches. Gauged length 30 inches.	55,400	23.9			
Condition of the original hot-rolled bar, diameter .094 inch. Gauged length 30 inches.	70,420	2.7			
Condition of the original hot-rolled bar, diameter .222 inch. Gauged length 20 inches.	81,890	0.075			
Compression test of cold-drawn bar (same as No. 3). Length 4 inches, diameter .808 inches	75,000	.0562			.0395
Compression test of cold-drawn bar (same as No. 4)	75,000	.0578			.0400

Bars 4 and 5 both had diameters increased in the middle to 1.831 inches and at the ends to 1.813 inches.

TESTS OF AMERICAN WOODS. (See also p. 297)

In all cases a large number of tests were made of each kind and maximum results only are given. All of the test specimens had a sectional area of 1.575×1.575 inches. The transverse test specimens were 12 inches between supports, and the compressive test specimens were 12 inches long. Modulus of rupture calculated from formula $M = \frac{Pl}{b^2}$, l = length in inches, b = breadth in inches, P = load in pounds at the middle.

Name of Wood.	Transverse Tests. Modulus of Rupture.	
	Min.	Max.
Cucumber tree (<i>Magnolia acuminata</i>)..	7,440	12,050
Yellow poplar white wood (<i>Liriodendron tulipifera</i>)....	6,560	11,756
White wood, Basswood (<i>Tilia Americana</i>).....	6,720	11,530
Sugar-maple, Rock-maple (<i>Acer saccharinum</i>).....	9,680	20,130
Red maple (<i>Acer rubrum</i>)	8,610	13,450
Locust (<i>Robinia pseudacacia</i>)	12,200	21,730
Wild cherry (<i>Prunus serotina</i>).....	8,310	16,800
Sweet gum (<i>Liquidambar styraciflua</i>)..	7,470	11,130
Dogwood (<i>Cornus florida</i>).....	10,190	14,560
Sour gum, Pepperidge (<i>Nyssa sylvatica</i>)..	9,830	14,300
Persimmon (<i>Diospyros Virginiana</i>)....	10,290	18,500
White ash (<i>Fraxinus Americana</i>).....	5,950	15,800
Sassafras (<i>Sassafras officinale</i>).....	5,180	10,150
Slippery elm (<i>Ulmus fulva</i>).....	10,220	13,952
White elm (<i>Ulmus Americana</i>).....	8,250	15,070
Sycamore; Buttonwood (<i>Platanus occidentalis</i>).....	6,720	11,360
Butternut; white walnut (<i>Juglans cinerea</i>).....	4,700	11,740
Black walnut (<i>Juglans nigra</i>).....	8,400	16,320
Shellbark hickory (<i>Carya alba</i>).....	14,870	20,710
Pignut (<i>Carya porcina</i>).....	11,560	19,430
White oak (<i>Quercus alba</i>).....	7,010	18,360
Red oak (<i>Quercus rubra</i>).....	9,760	18,370
Black oak (<i>Quercus tinctoria</i>).....	7,900	18,420
Chestnut (<i>Castanea vulgaris</i>).....	5,950	12,870
Beech (<i>Fagus ferruginea</i>).....	13,850	18,840
Canoe-birch, paper-birch (<i>Betula papyracea</i>).....	11,710	17,610
Cottonwood (<i>Populus monilifera</i>).....	8,390	13,430
White cedar (<i>Thuja occidentalis</i>).....	6,310	9,530
Red cedar (<i>Juniperus Virginiana</i>)....	5,640	15,100
Cypress (<i>Saxodium Distichum</i>).....	9,530	10,030
White pine (<i>Pinus strobus</i>).....	5,610	11,530
Spruce pine (<i>Pinus glabra</i>).....	3,780	10,980
Long-leaved pine, Southern pine (<i>Pinus palustris</i>).....	9,220	21,060
White spruce (<i>Picea alba</i>).....	9,900	11,650
Hemlock (<i>Tsuga Canadensis</i>).....	7,590	14,680
Red fir, yellow fir (<i>Pseudotsuga Douglasii</i>).....	8,220	17,920
Tamarack (<i>Larix Americana</i>).....	10,080	16,770

SHEARING STRENGTH OF IRON AND

H. V. Loss in American Engineer and Railroad Journal 1893, describes an extensive series of experiments on iron and steel bars in shearing machines. Some of his results are given in the following table.

If penetration at point of maximum resistance for soft steel bars depends of the width, but varies with the thickness. If d = depth of an and t = thickness, $d = .3t$ for a flat knife, $d = .25 t$ for a 4° bevel and $d = .16 \sqrt{t^2}$ for an 8° bevel knife. The ultimate pressure per inch in flat steel bars is approximately 50,000 lbs. $\times t$. The energy consumed per foot pounds per inch width of steel bars is, approximately: 1" 20 ft.-lbs.; 1½" 2500; 1¾" 3700; 1¾" 4500; the energy increasing in a greater rate than the thickness. Iron angles require more energy than steel angles of the same size; steel breaks while iron has to be broken. For hot-rolled steel the resistance per square inch for rectangular sections varies from 4400 lbs. to 20,500 lbs., depending partly upon its length and partly upon the size of its cross-area, which latter element greatly and greatly indicates the temperature, as the smaller dimensions require considerably longer time to reduce them down to size, which time means loss of heat.

It is probable that the resistance in practice can be brought very low the lowest figures here given—viz., 4400 lbs. per square inch— an increase of 1000 lbs. will henceforth mean a considerable increase in strength and temperature.

STRENGTH-POWER OF BOILER-TUBES EXPANDED INTO TUBE-SHEETS.

Experiments by Chief Engineer W. H. Shock, U. S. N., on brass tubes, 2¼" diameter, expanded into plates ¾" inch thick, gave results ranging from 80 to 48,000 lbs. Out of 48 tests 5 gave figures under 10,000 lbs., 12 between 10,000 and 20,000 lbs., 18 between 20,000 and 30,000 lbs., 10 between 30,000 and 40,000 lbs., and 3 over 40,000 lbs.

Experiments by Yarrow & Co., on steel tubes, 2 to 2¼ inches diameter, gave results similarly varying, ranging from 7900 to 41,715 lbs., the majority being from 20,000 to 30,000 lbs. In 15 experiments on 4 and 5 inch tubes the results ranged from 20,720 to 68,040 lbs. Beading the tube does not necessarily increase resistance, as some of the lower figures were obtained on beaded tubes. (See paper on Rules Governing the Construction of Boilers, Trans. Engineering Congress, Section G, Chicago, 1893.)

CHAINS.

Weight per Foot, Proof Test and Breaking Weight.
(Pennsylvania Railroad Specifications.)

Nominal Diameter, Fire, Ins.	Description.	Specifications.		
		Weight per foot, lbs.	Proof Test, lbs.	Breaking Weight, lbs.
2 1/2	Lock-chain	0.20		
	Fire-door chain.....	0.35		
3 1/2	Crossing-gate chain ...	0.70	1500	3000
	Sprocket-wheel chain.....	1.10	3000	5500
4 1/2	Brake-chain	1.50	3500	7000
	Crane-chain	1.50	4000	7500
5 1/2	Drop-bottom branch chain.	1.90	5000	9500
	Crane-chain	1.90	5500	10,000
6 1/2	Drop-bottom main chain...	2.50	7000	12,500
	Crane-chain.....	2.50	7500	13,000
7 1/2	Safety "	4.00	11,000	20,000
	Crane "	4.00	11,000	20,000
8 1/2	Log "	5.50	16,000	29,000
	Crane "	5.50	16,000	29,000
9 1/2	" "	7.40	22,000	40,000
	" "	9.50	30,000	55,000
10 1/2	" "	12.00	40,000	66,000
	" "	15.00	50,000	82,000
11 1/2	" "	21.00	70,000	116,000

Proportion of all sizes, 10 per cent. All chain must stand the prescribed test without deformation.

British Admiralty Proving Tests of Chain Cables.
links. Minimum size in inches and 16ths. Proving test in tons of 220

Min. Size: $1\frac{1}{8}$ $1\frac{1}{4}$ $1\frac{3}{8}$ $1\frac{1}{2}$ $1\frac{5}{8}$ 1 $1\frac{1}{4}$ $1\frac{3}{8}$ $1\frac{1}{2}$ $1\frac{5}{8}$ $1\frac{3}{4}$ $1\frac{7}{8}$ 1 $1\frac{1}{4}$
Test, tons: $8\frac{1}{2}$ $10\frac{1}{2}$ $11\frac{1}{2}$ $13\frac{1}{2}$ $15\frac{1}{2}$ 18 $20\frac{1}{2}$ $22\frac{1}{2}$ $25\frac{1}{2}$ $28\frac{1}{2}$ $31\frac{1}{2}$

Min. Size: $1\frac{3}{8}$ $1\frac{1}{2}$ $1\frac{5}{8}$ $1\frac{3}{4}$ $1\frac{7}{8}$ 1 $1\frac{1}{4}$ $1\frac{3}{8}$ $1\frac{1}{2}$ $1\frac{5}{8}$ $1\frac{3}{4}$ $1\frac{7}{8}$ 1 $1\frac{1}{4}$
Test, tons: $40\frac{1}{2}$ $43\frac{1}{2}$ $47\frac{1}{2}$ $51\frac{1}{2}$ $55\frac{1}{2}$ $59\frac{1}{2}$ $63\frac{1}{2}$ $67\frac{1}{2}$ 72 $76\frac{1}{2}$ $81\frac{1}{2}$

Wrought-iron Chain Cables.—The strength of a chain less than twice that of a straight bar of a sectional area equal to that side of the link. A weld exists at one end and a bend at the other, requiring at least one heat, which produces a decrease in the strength report of the committee of the U. S. Testing Board, on tests of wrought and chain cables contains the following conclusions. That beyond when made of American bar iron, with cast-iron studs, the studded inferior in strength to the unstudded one.

"That when proper care is exercised in the selection of material, a variation of 5 to 17 per cent of the strongest may be expected in the resistance of cables. Without this care, the variation may rise to 25 per cent.

"That with proper material and construction the ultimate resistance of the chain may be expected to vary from 135 to 170 per cent of that of a bar used in making the links, and show an average of about 163 per cent.

"That the proof test of a chain cable should be about 50 per cent of the ultimate resistance of the weakest link."

The decrease of the resistance of the studded below the unstudded is probably due to the fact that in the former the sides of the link remain parallel to each other up to failure, as they do in the latter. The result is an increase of stress in the studded link over the unstudded in proportion of unity, to the secant of half the inclination of the side of the former to each other.

From a great number of tests of bars and unfinished cables, the committee considered that the average ultimate resistance, and proof tests of cables made of the bars, whose diameters are given, should be such as shown in the accompanying table.

ULTIMATE RESISTANCE AND PROOF TESTS OF CHAIN CABLES.

Diam. of Bar.	Average resist. = 163% of Bar.	Proof Test.	Diam. of Bar.	Average resist. = 163% of Bar.	Proof Test.
Inches.	Pounds.	Pounds.	Inches.	Pounds.	Pounds.
1 1/16	71,172	33,840	1 9/16	162,283	74,000
1 1/16	79,544	37,820	1 5/8	174,475	79,000
1 3/8	88,445	42,053	1 11/16	187,075	85,000
1 3/8	97,731	46,468	1 13/16	200,074	91,000
1 1/2	107,440	51,084	1 13/16	213,475	97,000
1 5/16	117,577	55,903	1 7/8	227,271	103,000
1 3/8	128,129	60,920	1 15/16	241,463	109,000
1 7/16	139,103	66,138	2	256,040	116,000
1 1/2	150,485	71,550			

STRENGTH OF GLASS.

(Fairbairn's "Useful Information for Engineers," Second Series, Best Common English Flint Glass, Green Glass, Crocus)

Mean specific gravity	3.078	2.528
Mean tensile strength, lbs. per sq. in., bars.	2,413	2,806
do. thin plates.	4,200	4,800
Mean crushing strength, lbs. p. sq. in., cylinders.	27,582	39,876
do. cubes.	13,150	20,306

The bars in tensile tests were about $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch diameter. The crushes were made on cylinders about $\frac{3}{4}$ inch diameter and from 1 to 2 inch and on cubes approximately 1 inch on a side. The mean transverse strength of glass, as calculated by Fairbairn from a mean tensile strength of lbs., and a mean compressive strength of 30,150 lbs. per sq. in., is, supported at the ends and loaded in the middle,

$$w = 3140 \frac{bd^2}{l}$$

w = breaking weight in lbs., b = breadth, d = depth, and l = length, s. Actual tests will probably show wide variations in both directions from the mean calculated strength.

STRENGTH OF COPPER AT HIGH TEMPERATURES.

The British Admiralty conducted some experiments at Portsmouth Dockyard, on the effect of increase of temperature on the tensile strength of various bronzes. The copper experimented upon was in rods 1/2 inch diameter, having a tensile strength of about 23 tons per square inch. The following table shows some of the results:

Temperature Fahr.	Tensile Strength in lbs. per sq. in.	Temperature Fahr.	Tensile Strength in lbs. per sq. in.
Atmospheric.	23,115	Atmospheric.	
300°	23,366	400°	21,105
400°	22,110	500°	19,597
500°	21,607		

At a temperature of 400° F. the loss of strength was only about 10 per cent. At 500° F. the loss was 16 per cent. The temperature of steam at atmospheric pressure is 382° F., so that according to these experiments the loss of strength at this point would not be a serious matter. Above a temperature of 500° the strength is seriously affected.

STRENGTH OF TIMBER.

Strength of Long-leaf Pine (Yellow Pine, *Pinus Palustris*) from Bulletin No. 8, Forestry Div., Dept. of Agriculture, 1893. Tests by J. B. Johnson.

The following is a condensed table of the range of results of mechanical tests on over 2000 specimens, from 25 trees from four different sites in the South, reduced to 15 per cent moisture :

	Butt Logs.	Middle Logs.	Top Logs.	Avg of all Butt Logs.
Specific gravity	0.449 to 1.039	0.575 to 0.859	0.484 to 0.907	0.767
Tensile strength, $\frac{3WL}{bh^2}$	4,762 to 16,200	7,040 to 17,128	4,268 to 15,554	12,614
Mod. of elast. limit, thous. lbs.	4,930 to 13,110	5,540 to 11,790	2,553 to 11,950	9,460
Mod. of elast. resilience, thous. lbs. per cub. in.	1,119 to 3,117	1,136 to 2,982	842 to 2,697	1,926
Mod. of elast. resilience, str. per lbs.	0.23 to 4.69	1.34 to 4.21	0.09 to 4.65	2.98
Mod. of elast. resilience, across grain, per sq. in., lbs.	4,781 to 9,850	5,030 to 9,300	4,587 to 9,100	7,452
Mod. of elast. resilience, parallel to grain, per sq. in., lbs.	675 to 2,094	656 to 1,445	584 to 1,766	1,598
Mod. of elast. resilience, strength (with mean per sq. in.)	8,600 to 31,890	6,330 to 29,500	4,170 to 23,280	17,359
Mod. of elast. resilience, strength (with mean per sq. in.)	404 to 1,299	539 to 1,230	484 to 1,156	806

The following are the deductions from the tests were as follows :

(1) The exception of tensile strength a reduction of moisture is accompanied by an increase in strength, stiffness, and toughness.

(2) The variation in strength goes generally hand-in-hand with specific gravity. The first 20 or 30 feet in height the values remain constant ; then decrease of strength which amounts at 70 feet to 20 to 40 per cent of the butt-log.

(3) The bearing parallel with the grain and crushing across and parallel to grain, practically no difference was found.

(4) The compression beams appear 10 to 20 per cent weaker than small pieces.

(5) The compression tests endwise seem to furnish the best average statement of the strength of wood, and if one test only can be made, this is the safest, as is recognized by Bauschinger.

(6) The strength of timber is in no respect inferior to unbled timber.

The figures for crushing across the grain represent the load to cause a compression of 15 per cent. The relative elastic resiliency in pounds per cubic inch of the material, is obtained by measuring the plotted-strain diagram of the transverse test from the origin in the curve at which the rate of deflection is 50 per cent of the rate in the earlier part of the test where the diagram is a straight line. This point is arbitrarily chosen since there is no definite "elastic limit" in timber as there is in iron. The "strength at the elastic limit" is the strength taken at this same point. Timber is not perfectly elastic and will not bear a load if left on any great length of time.

The long-leaf pine is found in all the Southern coast states from Florida to Texas. Prof. Johnson says it is probably the strongest in large sizes to be had in the United States. In small selected specimens, as oak and hickory, may exceed it in strength and stiffness. The other Southern yellow pines, viz., the Cuban, short-leaf, and the loblolly pines are inferior to the long-leaf about in the ratio of their specific gravities; the long-leaf being the heaviest of all the averages (kiln-dried) 48 pounds per cubic foot, the Cuban 47, the short-leaf 40, and the loblolly 34 pounds.

Strength of Spruce Timber.—The modulus of rupture is given as follows by different authors: Hatfield, 9900 lbs. per sq. inch; Rankine, 11,100; Laslett, 9045; Trautwine, 8100; Rodman, 6700. Prof. Lanza advises for use to deduct one-third in the case of knotty timber.

Prof. Lanza, in 25 tests of large spruce beams, found a modulus of rupture from 2995 to 5666 lbs.; the average being 4613 lbs. The average beams, ordered from dealers of good repute. Two selected stock, seasoned four years, gave 7562 and 8748 lbs. The modulus of elasticity ranged from 897,000 to 1,588,000, averaging 1,294,000.

Time tests show much smaller values for both modulus of rupture and modulus of elasticity. A beam tested to 5800 lbs. in a screw nut left over night, and the resistance was found next morning to have fallen to about 3000, and it broke at 3500.

Prof. Lanza remarks that while it was necessary to use larger safety factors, when the moduli of rupture were determined from tests with small pieces, it will be sufficient for most timber constructions, except in cases where it is used to support a load, to use a factor of four. For breaking strains of beams, he states that better engineering to determine as the safe load of a timber beam is to use a factor of four. For breaking strains of beams, he states that better engineering to determine as the safe load of a timber beam is to use a factor of four. For breaking strains of beams, he states that better engineering to determine as the safe load of a timber beam is to use a factor of four.

Properties of Timber.

(N. J. Steel & Iron Co.'s Book.)

Description.	Weight per cubic foot, in lbs.	Tensile Strength per sq. inch, in lbs.	Crushing Strength per sq. inch, in lbs.	Relative Strength for Cross Breaking. White Pine = 100.
Ash	43 to 55.8	11,000 to 17,207	4,400 to 9,363	130 to 180
Beech.....	43 to 53.4	11,500 to 18,000	5,800 to 9,363	100 to 144
Cedar.....	50 to 56.8	10,300 to 11,400	5,600 to 6,000	55 to 63
Cherry.....	130
Chestnut.....	83	10,500	5,350 to 5,600	96 to 123
Elm.....	34 to 36.7	13,400 to 13,489	6,831 to 10,331	96
Hemlock.....	8,700	5,700	88 to 95
Hickory.....	12,800 to 18,000	8,925	150 to 210
Locust.....	44	20,500 to 24,800	9,113 to 11,700	132 to 227
Maple.....	49	10,500 to 10,584	8,150	122 to 220
Oak, White....	45 to 54.5	10,253 to 19,500	4,654 to 9,509	130 to 177
Oak, Live.....	70	6,850	155 to 189
Pine, White....	30	10,000 to 12,000	5,000 to 6,650	100
Pine, Yellow....	28.8 to 33	12,600 to 19,200	5,400 to 9,500	98 to 170
Spruce.....	10,000 to 19,500	5,050 to 7,850	86 to 110
Walnut, Black.	42	9,286 to 16,000	7,500

table should be taken with caution. The range of variation in strength is apt to be much greater than the figures indicate. See Johnson's tests on leaf pine, and Lanza's on spruce, above. The weight of yellow pine is much less than that given by Johnson. (W. K.)

Relative Strengths of American Woods, when slowly seasoned.—Approximate averages, deduced from many experiments with the U. S. Government testing-machine at Watertown, Mass., S. P. Sharpless, for the Census of 1880. *Seasoned woods resist better than green ones; in many cases, twice as well. Differences of the same wood vary greatly. The strengths may readily be as one-third part more or less from the average.*

	End-wise,*			Side-wise,†			
	lbs. per sq. in.	lbs. per sq. in.		lbs. per sq. in.	lbs. per sq. in.		
		.01	.1		.01	.1	
white	6800	1300	3000	<i>Maple:</i> sugar and black..	8000	1900	4300
.....	4400	800	1400		white and red....	6800	1300
.....	7000	1100	1900	<i>Oak:</i> white, post (or iron), swamp			
.....	8000	1300	2600		white, red, and		
.....	4400	600	1400	black.....	7000	1600	4000
.....	5400	700	1600	scrub and basket	6000	1700	4200
(more)	6000	1300	2600	chestnut and live	7500	1600	4500
.....	8000	700	1000	pin.....	6500	1300	3000
harbor-	4400	500	900	<i>Pine:</i> white,	5400	600	1300
.....	5000	700	1300		red or Norway....	6300	600
.....	8000	1700	2600	pitch and Jersey			
.....	5300	900	1600	scrub.....	5000	1000	2000
Ky....	5200	1300	2600	Georgia.....	8500	1300	2600
.....	6000	500	1200	<i>Poplar</i>	5000	600	1100
white	6800	1300	2600	<i>Sassafras</i>	5000	1300	2100
.....	7700	1300	2600	<i>Spruce</i> , black... ..	5700	700	1300
.....	5300	600	1100	" white.....	4500	600	1300
.....	8000	2000	4000	<i>Sycamore</i> (button- wood).....	6000	1300	2600
.....	10000	1600	13000	<i>Walnut:</i> black,	8000	1300	2600
.....	5000	500	900		white (butternut),	5400	700
yellow.	9800	1900	4400	<i>Willow</i>	4400	700	1400
.....	7000	1600	2600				
.....	9000	1700	5300				
l, Ore.	5300	1400	2600				

* is 1.57 ins. square \times 12.6 ins. long.

† is 1.57 ins. square \times 6.3 ins. long. Pressure applied at mid-length covering one-fourth of the length. The first column gives the strength an indentation of .01 inch, the second those producing an indentation of .1 inch. (See also page 306.)

Strength of Timber Due to the Absorption of Water.

(De Volson Wood, A. S. M. E., vol. x.)

Specimens, 5 in., of pine, oak, and chestnut, were dried thoroughly, and then soaked in water for 37 days.

The per cent of elongation and lateral expansion were:

	Pine.	Oak.	Chestnut.
Elongation, per cent.....	0.065	0.085	0.163
Lateral expansion, per cent. . .	2.6	3.5	3.65

Expansion of Wood by Heat.—Trautwine gives for the expansion of wood for 1 degree Fahr. 1 part in 440,530, or for 180 degrees 1 part in 2,447,367, or one-third of the expansion of iron.

Shearing Strength of American Woods, adapted Pins or Treenails.

J. C. Trautwine (*Jour. Franklin Inst.*). (Shearing across the

	per sq. in.	
Ash.....	6280	Hickory ..
Beech.....	5223	" ..
Birch.....	5595	Maple.....
Cedar (white).....	1372	Oak.....
" ..	1519	Oak (live).....
Cedar (Central American).....	3410	Pine (white).....
Cherry.....	2945	Pine (Northern yellow) ..
Chestnut.....	1536	Pine (Southern yellow) ..
Dogwood.....	6510	Pine (very resinous yellow)
Ebony.....	7750	Poplar.....
Gum.....	5890	Spruce.....
Hemlock.....	2750	Walnut (black).....
Locust.....	7176	Walnut (common).....

THE STRENGTH OF BRICK, STONE, ET

A great advance has recently been made in the manufacture of brick in the direction of increasing their strength. Chas. P. Chase, in *Eng'g News*, says: "Taking the tests as given in standard engineering books of ten years ago, we find in Trautwine the strength of brick given as 4300 lbs. per sq. in. Now, taking recent tests in experiments at the Watertown Arsenal, the strength ran from 5000 to 22,000 lbs. per sq. in. The tests on Illinois paving brick, by Prof. I. O. Baker, we find a crushing strength in hard paving brick of over 5000 lbs. per square inch. The crushing strength of ten varieties of paving-brick much used in this country find to be 7150 lbs. to the square inch."

A recent test of brick made by the dry-clay process at Watertown according to *Paving*, showed an average compressive strength of 4973 lbs. per sq. in. In one instance it reached 4973 lbs. per sq. in. A test at the same place on a "fancy pressed brick." The first crack was at a pressure of 305,000 lbs., and the brick crushed at 361,300 lbs. per sq. in. This indicates almost as great compressive strength in granite paving-blocks, which is from 12,000 to 20,000 lbs. per sq. in.

The following notes on bricks are from Trautwine's *Engineer's Handbook*:

Strength of Brick.—40 to 300 tons per sq. ft., 622 to 4668 lbs. per sq. in. A soft brick will crush under 450 to 600 lbs. per sq. in., or 30 to 40 square feet, but a first-rate machine-pressed brick will stand 800 lbs. per sq. ft. (3112 to 6224 lbs. per sq. in.).

Weight of Bricks.—Per cubic foot, best pressed brick, 156 lbs.; pressed brick, 131 lbs.; common hard brick, 125 lbs.; good common brick, 118 lbs.; soft inferior brick, 100 lbs.

Absorption of Water.—A brick will in a few minutes absorb $\frac{3}{4}$ lb. of water, the last being $\frac{1}{7}$ of the weight of a hand-moulded brick of its bulk.

Tests of Bricks, full size, on flat side. (Tests made at Watertown Arsenal in 1883.)—The bricks were tested between flat steel plates. Compressed surfaces (the largest surface) ground approximately parallel. Bricks were all about 2 to 2.1 inches thick, 7.5 to 8.1 inches long, 3.76 inches wide. Crushing strength per square inch: One lot ran 11,056 to 16,534 lbs.; a second, 12,995 to 22,351; a third, 10,390 to 12,725 lbs. gave results from 5960 to 10,250 lbs. per sq. in.

Crushing Strength of Masonry Materials. (From *Retaining-Walls*.)

	tons per sq. ft.		tons
Brick, best pressed..	40 to 300	Limestones and marbles. E	
Chalk.....	20 to 30	Sandstone.....	11
Granite.....	300 to 1200	Soapstone.....	41

Strength of Granite.—The crushing strength of granite is 10,000 to 15,000 lbs. per sq. in. when tested in two-inch cubes, and toughest of the commonly used varieties will stand 10,000 lbs. Samples of granite from a quarry 1

ever, tested at the Watertown Arsenal, have shown a strength of per sq. in. (*Engineering News*, Jan. 12, 1893).

Tests of Avondale, Pa., Limestone—(*Engineering News*, 8)—Crushing strength of 2 in. cubes: light stone 12,112, gray stone per sq. in.

Test of lintels, tool-dressed, 42 in. between knife-edge bearings with knife-edge brought upon the middle between bearings:	
a, section 6 in. wide × 10 in. high, broke under a load of 20,950 lbs.	
dulus of rupture.....	2,200 "
e, section 8¼ in. wide × 10 in. high, broke under.....	14,720 "
dulus of rupture.....	1,170 "
a.—Gray stone.....	.051 of 1%
Light stone.....	.052 of 1%

Transverse Strength of Flagging.

(N. J. Steel & Iron Co.'s Book.)

EXPERIMENTS MADE BY R. G. HATFIELD AND OTHERS.

h of the stone in inches; d = its thickness in inches; l = distance between bearings in inches.

Breaking loads in tons of 2000 lbs., for a weight placed at the centre of the stone, will be as follows:

	$\frac{bd^2}{l} \times$		$\frac{hl^2}{l} \times$
Flagging.....	.744	Dorchester freestone.....	.264
White granite.....	.624	Aubigny freestone.....	.216
Freestone.....	.576	Caen freestone.....	.144
N. J. freestone.....	.480	Glass.....	1.000
Other quarry.....	.432	Slate.....	1.2 to 2.7
Light freestone.....	.312		

A block of Quincy granite 80 inches wide and 6 inches thick, resting on two beams = $\frac{80 \times 36}{36} \times .624 = 49.92$ tons.

STRENGTH OF LIME AND CEMENT MORTAR.

(*Engineering*, October 2, 1891.)

Tests made at the University of Illinois on the effects of adding cement to lime mortar. In all the tests a good quality of ordinary fat lime was used. The mortar was prepared two days in an earthenware jar, adding two parts by weight of cement to one part of lime, the loss by evaporation being made up by fresh addition. The cements used were a German Portland, Black Diamond Portland, and Rosendale. As regards fineness of grinding, 85 per cent of the mortar was passed through a No. 100 sieve, as did 72 per cent of the Rosendale sharp sand, thoroughly washed and dried, passing through a No. 30 and caught on a No. 30, was used. The mortar in all cases consisted of one volume of sand to one of lime paste. The following results were obtained on adding various percentages of cement to the mortar:

Transverse Strength, pounds per square inch.

Cement	4		7		14		21		28		50		84	
	Days	Days	Days	Days	Days	Days	Days	Days	Days	Days	Days	Days	Days	Days
Black Diamond	4	8	10	13	18	21	26	30	36	42	50	57	64	72
Rosendale	5	8½	9½	12	17	21	26	30	36	42	50	57	64	72
Portland	5	8½	14	20	25	24	26	23	24	26	27	28	29	30
Rosendale	7	11	13	18½	21	22½	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30
Portland	8	16	18	22	25	28	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34
Rosendale	10	12	16½	21½	22½	24	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33
Portland	27	39	38	43	47	50	51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58
Rosendale	9	12	20	16	21	22½	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30
Portland	45	58	55	68	67	102	78	84	90	96	102	108	114	120
Rosendale	12	18½	22½	27	29	31½	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40
Portland	87	91	103	124	94	210	145	150	155	160	165	170	175	180
Rosendale	18	23	26	31	34	46	48	50	52	54	56	58	60	62
Portland	90	120	146	152	181	205	202	207	212	217	222	227	232	237

MODULI OF ELASTICITY OF VARIOUS MATERIALS.

The modulus of elasticity determined from a tensile test of a material is the quotient obtained by dividing the tensile stress in pounds per square inch at any point of the test by the elongation per inch produced by that stress; or if P = pounds of stress applied, K = total area, l = length of the portion of the bar in which the experiment is made, and λ = the elongation in that length, the modulus of elasticity $E = \frac{P}{K} \div \frac{\lambda}{l} = \frac{Pl}{K\lambda}$. The modulus is generally measured within the elastic limit only, in materials that have a well-defined elastic limit such as iron and steel, and when not otherwise stated the modulus is understood to be the modulus within the elastic limit. Within this limit, for such materials the modulus is practically constant for any given bar, the elongation being directly proportional to the stress. In other materials, such as cast iron, which have no well-defined elastic limit, the elongations from the beginning of a test increase in a greater ratio than the stresses, and the modulus therefore at its maximum near the beginning of the test, and it then decreases. The moduli of elasticity of various materials have also been given above in treating of these materials, but the following table contains some additional values selected from different sources:

Brass, cast.....	9,170,000	
" wire.....	14,220,000	
Copper.....	15,000,000	to 18,000,000.
Lead.....	1,000,000	
Tin, cast.....	4,600,000	
Iron, cast.....	12,000,000	to 37,000,000 (?)
Iron, wrought.....	22,000,000	to 29,000,000
Steel.....	26,000,000	to 32,000,000
Marble.....	25,000,000	
Slate.....	14,500,000	
Glass.....	8,000,000	
Ash.....	1,600,000	
Beech.....	1,300,000	
Birch.....	1,250,000	to 1,500,000
Fir.....	869,000	to 2,191,000
Oak.....	974,000	to 2,283,000
Teak.....	2,414,000	
Walnut.....	306,000	
Pine, long-leaf (butt-logs)...	1,119,000	to 3,117,000 Avg. 1.9

The maximum figures given by many writers for iron and steel are 40,000,000 and 42,000,000, are undoubtedly erroneous.

Prof. J. B. Johnson, in his report on Long-leaf Pine, 1893, says that the modulus of elasticity is the most constant and reliable property of engineering materials. The wide range of value of the modulus of elasticity of the various metals found in public records must be explained by the use of different methods of testing."

In a tensile test of cast iron by the author (Van Nostrand's Science Series, No. 41, page 45), in which the ultimate strength was 23,285 lbs. per square inch, the measurements of elongation were made to 0.0001 inch, and the modulus of elasticity was found to decrease from the beginning of the test as follows: At 1000 lbs. per sq. in., 25,000,000; at 2000 lbs., 16,666,000; at 3000 lbs., 13,333,000; at 4000 lbs., 12,500,000; at 5000 lbs., 11,250,000; at 6000 lbs., 10,000,000; at 8000 lbs., 8,000,000; at 10,000 lbs., 6,140,000. The modulus of elasticity of steel (within the elastic limit) is remarkably constant, notwithstanding great variations in chemical composition and temper, etc. It rarely is found below 28,000,000 or above 31,000,000, and is generally taken at 30,000,000 in engineering calculations.

FACTORS OF SAFETY.

A factor of safety is the ratio in which the load that is just sufficient to overcome instantly the strength of a piece of material is greater than the greatest safe ordinary working load. (Rankine.)

Rankine gives the following "examples of the values of the factor of safety which occur in machines":

	Dead Load.	Live Load, Greatest.	Live Load, Mean.
Iron and steel	3	6	from 6 to 8
.....	4 to 5	8 to 10
.....	4	6

factor of safety, 40, is for shafts in millwork which transmit efforts.

es the following "factors of safety which have been adopted in s for different materials." They "include an allowance for tingenancies."

	Dead Load.	Live Load.		In Structures subj. to Shocks.
		In Temporary Structures.	In Permanent Structures.	
and steel.	3	4	4 to 5	10
.....	3	4	5	10
.....	4	10
.....	6
.....	30	20 to 30

s says that "these numbers fairly represent practice based on many actual cases, but they are not very trustworthy."

d in his "Resistance of Materials" says: "In regard to the should be left for safety, much depends upon the character of

If the load is simply a dead weight, the margin may be com- all; but if the structure is to be subjected to percussive forces he margin should be comparatively large on account of the e effect produced by the force. In machines which are sub- onstant jar while in use, it is very difficult to determine the in which is consistent with economy and safety. Indeed, in economy as well as safety generally consists in making them rong, as a single breakage may cost much more than the extra ssary to fully insure safety."

ision of the resistance of materials to repeated stresses and ages 238 to 240.

using factors of safety it is becoming customary in designing in number of pounds per square inch as the maximum stress e allowed on a piece. Thus, in designing a boiler, instead of or of safety of 6 for the plates and 10 for the stay-bolts, the ile strength of the steel being from 50,000 to 60,000 lbs. per sq. in., working stress of 10,000 lbs. per sq. in. on the plates and 6000 in. on the stay-bolts may be specified instead. So also in formula for columns (see page 260) the dimensions of a column d after assuming a maximum allowable compressive stress per on the concave side of the column.

for masonry under dead load as given by Rankine and by Unwin, show a remarkable difference, which may possibly be explained if the actual crushing strength of a pier of masonry is known experiment, then a factor of safety of 4 is sufficient for a pier of e and quality under a steady load; but if the crushing strength sumed from figures given by the authorities (such as the crush- of pressed brick, quoted above from Howe's Retaining Walls, 40 per square foot, average 170 tons), then a factor of safety of 20 too great. In this case the factor of safety is really a "factor

on of the proper factor of safety or the proper maximum unit y given case is a matter to be largely determined by the judg- engineer and by experience. No definite rules can be given. ry or advisable factors in many particular cases will be found cases are considered throughout this book. In general the eumstances are to be taken into account in the selection of

he ultimate strength of the material is known within narrow the case of structural steel when tests of samples have been the load is entirely a steady one of a known amount, and there to fear the deterioration of the metal by corrosion, the lowest should be adopted is 3.

he circumstances of 1 are modified by a portion of the load being in floors of warehouses, the factor should be not less than 4.

he whole load, or nearly the whole, is apt to be alternately put a off, as in suspension rods of floors of bridges, the factor should

he stresses are reversed in direction from tension to compress- me bridge diagonals and parts of machines, the factor should an 6.

5. When the piece is subjected to repeated shocks, the factor should not less than 10.

6. When the piece is subject to deterioration from corrosion the should be sufficiently increased to allow for a definite amount of corrosion before the piece be so far weakened by it as to require removal.

7. When the strength of the material, or the amount of the load, are uncertain, the factor should be increased by an allowance sufficient to cover the amount of the uncertainty.

8. When the strains are of a complex character and of uncertain nature such as those in the crank-shaft of a reversing engine, a very high factor is necessary, possibly even as high as 40, the figure given by Rankine for millwork.

THE MECHANICAL PROPERTIES OF CORK

Cork possesses qualities which distinguish it from all other solid bodies, namely, its power of altering its volume in a very marked consequence of change of pressure. It consists, practically, of a mass of minute air-vessels, having thin, water-tight, and very strong walls, and hence, if compressed, the resistance to compression rises in a manner like the resistance of gases than the resistance of an elastic solid as a spring. In a spring the pressure increases in proportion to the distance to which the spring is compressed, but with gases the pressure increases in a much more rapid manner; that is, inversely as the volume which the gas is made to occupy. But from the permeability of cork, it is evident that, if subjected to pressure in one direction only, it gradually part with its occluded air by effusion, that is, by its escape through the porous walls of the cells in which it is contained. The part of cork constitutes 53% of its bulk. Its elasticity has not only a considerable range, but it is very persistent. Thus in the better kind of cork used in bottling the corks expand the instant they escape from the bottle. This expansion may amount to an increase of volume of 75%, even if the corks have been kept in a state of compression in the bottles for long time. If the cork be steeped in hot water, the volume continues to increase until it attains nearly three times that which it occupied in the neck of the bottle.

When cork is subjected to pressure a certain amount of permanent set or "permanent set" takes place very quickly. This property is common to all solid elastic substances when strained beyond their elastic limits, but with cork the limits are comparatively low. Besides this permanent set, there is a certain amount of sluggish elasticity—that is, when released from pressure springs back a certain amount at once, but the complete recovery takes an appreciable time.

Cork which had been compressed and released in water many times had not changed its molecular structure in the least, and had remained perfectly serviceable. Cork which has been kept under a pressure of three atmospheres for many weeks appears to have shrunk to not more than 85% of its original volume.—*Van Nostrand's Eng'g Mag.* 1886, xxxv.

TESTS OF VULCANIZED INDIA-RUBBER.

Lieutenant L. Vladomiroff, a Russian naval officer, has recently published a series of tests at the St. Petersburg Technical Institute with a view to establishing rules for estimating the quality of vulcanized india-rubber. The following, in brief, are the conclusions arrived at, recourse being had to physical properties, since chemical analysis did not give any reliable result: 1. India-rubber should not give the least sign of superficial cracking when bent to an angle of 180 degrees after five hours of exposure in an air-bath to a temperature of 125° C. The test-pieces should be $\frac{1}{4}$ inch thick. 2. Rubber that does not contain more than half its weight of sulphur should stretch to five times its length without breaking. 3. Rubber free from all foreign matter, except the sulphur used in vulcanizing, should stretch to at least seven times its length without rupture, the extension measured immediately after rupture should not exceed 10% of the original length, with given dimensions. 4. Suppleness may be determined by measuring the percentage of ash formed in incineration. This may be the basis for deciding between different grades of rubber for certain purposes. 5. Vulcanized rubber should not harden under cold. The tests have been adopted for the Russian navy.—*Iron Age*, June 15, 1883.

XYLOLITH, OR WOODSTONE

A material invented in 1883, but only lately introduced to the market by the Frig & Co., of Pottschappel, near Dresden. It is made of

joined magnesite, mixed with sawdust and saturated with a chloride of calcium. This pasty mass is spread out into sheets to a pressure of about 1000 lbs. to the square inch, and then into the air. Specific gravity 1.53. The fractured surface shows a fine grain of a yellow color. It has a tensional resistance when dry of 1000 lbs. per square inch, and when wet about 66 lbs. When immersed in water for 2 hours it takes up 2.1% of its weight, and 3.8% when immersed

for several days with hydrochloric acid it loses 2.3% in weight, and shows no loss of weight under boiling in water, brine, soda-lye, or sulphates of iron, of copper, and of ammonium. In hardness it stands between feldspar and quartz, and as a non-conductor of electricity between asbestos and cork.

It is well, and at a red heat it is rendered brittle and crumbles at a red heat, but it retains its general form and cohesion. This xylolith is supplied in blocks from 1/4 in. to 1 1/2 in. thick, and up to one metre square. It is used in Germany for floors in railway stations, hospitals, etc., and for the bottoms of vessels. It can be sawed, bored, and shaped with ordinary tools. Putty in the joints and a good coat of paint make it water-proof. It is sold in Germany for flooring at about 7 cents per sq. ft. and the cost of laying adds about 4 cents more.—*Eng'g News*, and July 27, 1893.

ALUMINUM—ITS PROPERTIES AND USES.

(By Alfred E. Hunt, Pres't of the Pittsburgh Reduction Co.)

The specific gravity of pure aluminum in a cast state is 2.58; in rolled sheet form it is 2.6; in very thin sheets subjected to high pressure or chilled rolls, it is as much as 2.7. Taking the weight of a cast aluminum as 1, wrought iron is 2.50 times heavier; structural steel 3.5 times; copper, 3.60; ordinary high brass, 3.45. Most wood used in structures has about one third the weight of aluminum, or 0.092 lb. to the cubic inch.

Aluminum is practically not acted upon by boiling water or steam, and neither oxygen nor hydrogen sulphide does not act upon it at any temperature up to 212° F. It is not acted upon by most organic secretions.

Nitric acid is the best solvent for aluminum, and strong solutions of sulphuric acid readily dissolve it. Ammonia has a slight solvent action, and concentrated sulphuric acid dissolves aluminum upon heating, with the evolution of sulphurous acid gas. Dilute sulphuric acid acts but slowly on aluminum, though the presence of any chlorides in the solution allow rapid action. Nitric acid, either concentrated or dilute, has very little effect on the metal, and sulphur has no action unless the metal is at a red heat. Hydrochloric acid has very little effect on aluminum. Strips of the metal fastened to the sides of a wooden ship corroded less than 1/1000 inch after six years exposure to sea-water, corroding less than copper sheets similarly treated.

In the series of metals, the ductility of pure aluminum is only exceeded by gold and silver. It stands seventh in the series, being exceeded by gold, silver, platinum, iron, very soft steel, and copper. Sheets of aluminum have been drawn to a thickness of 0.0005 inch, and beaten into leaf nearly as thin as gold leaf. The metal is most malleable at a temperature of between 200° and 300° F., and at this temperature it can be drawn down between rollers as much draught upon it as with heated steel. It has also been drawn into the very finest wire. By the Mannesmann process tubes of aluminum have been made in Germany.

Aluminum stands very high in the series as an electro-positive metal, and in contact with other metals should be avoided, as it would establish a galvanic

cell. The electrical conductivity of aluminum is only surpassed by pure copper, silver, and gold. With silver taken at 100 the electrical conductivity of aluminum is 54.20; that of gold on the same scale is 78; zinc is 29.90; iron is 17.64; platinum 10.60. Pure aluminum has no polarity, and the metal is absolutely non-magnetic.

Aluminum can be made in either dry or "green" sand, and it is a metal "chills." It must not be heated much beyond its melting point, and must be poured with care, owing to the ready absorption of oxygen from the air. The shrinkage in cooling is 17/64 inch per foot for ordinary brass. It should be melted in platinum crucibles, as the metal becomes molten at a temperature of 1120° F. according to Professor Roberts-Austen, or at 1300° F. according to Rie

Nos. 1 α and 2 were full of blow-holes.

Tests Nos. 1 and 1 α show the variation in cast copper due to variations of casting. In the crushing tests Nos. 12 to 30, inclusive, broke under the strain, but all the others bulged and flattened out; the crushing strength is taken to be that which caused a 0.10% in the length. The test-pieces were 2 in. long and $\frac{5}{8}$ in. diam. Torsional tests were made in Thurston's torsion machine, on $\frac{1}{2}$ in. diameter and 1 in. long between heads.

Specific Gravity of the Copper-tin Alloys.—The specific gravity of copper, as found in these tests, is 8.874 (tested in turn the ingot, and reduced to 39.1° F.). The alloy of maximum strength contained 62.42 copper, 37.48 tin, and all the alloys containing less tin varied irregularly in sp. gr. between 8.65 and 8.93, the density not on the composition, but on the porosity of the casting. It is noted that the actual sp. gr. of all these alloys containing less than 37.5% 8.95, and any smaller figure indicates porosity in the specimen.

From 37% to 100% tin, the sp. gr. decreases regularly from the maximum 8.956 to that of pure tin, 7.293.

Note on the Strength of the Copper-tin Alloys

The bars containing from 2% to 24% tin, inclusive, have good tensile strength, and all the rest are practically worthless for purposes where strength is required. The dividing line between the strong and brittle is precisely that at which the color changes from golden yellow to white, viz., at a composition containing between 24% and 30% of tin.

It appears that the tensile and compressive strengths of these alloys in no way related to each other, that the torsional strength is proportional to the tensile strength, and that the transverse strength depends in some degree upon the compressive strength, but it is not nearly related to the tensile strength. The modulus of rupture, as determined by the transverse tests, is, in general, a figure between those of the compressive strengths per square inch, but there are a few exceptions in which it is larger than either.

The strengths of the alloys at the copper end of the series increase with the addition of tin till about 4% of tin is reached. The tensile strength continues regularly to increase to the maximum, till the tin content is about 17.5% of tin is reached, while the tensile and compressive strengths also increase, but irregularly, to the same point. This is probably due to porosity of the metal, and might possibly be remedied by any means which would make the castings more compact. The torsional strength, however, being very much greater at this point than the tensile or compressive strength. From the point of maximum strength the strengths drop rapidly to the alloys containing about 27.5% of tin, and then to 37.5%, at which point the minimum (or nearly the minimum) strength is reached at all three methods of test. The alloys of minimum strength are found from 37.5% tin to 52.5% tin. The absolute minimum is probably at 45% of tin.

From 52.5% of tin to about 77.5% tin there is a rather slow and irregular increase in strength. From 77.5% tin to the end of the series, the strengths slowly and somewhat irregularly decrease.

The results of these tests do not seem to corroborate the theories of some writers, that peculiar properties are possessed by the alloys which are compounded of simple multiples of their atomic weights or equivalents, and that these properties are lost as the composition varies more or less from this definite constitution. It does appear that a certain percentage composition gives a maximum strength and another percentage a minimum, but neither of these compositions is represented by simple multiples of the atomic weights.

There appears to be a regular law of decrease from the maximum to the minimum strength which does not seem to have any relation to simple proportions, but only to the percentage compositions.

Hardness.—The pieces containing less than 24% of tin were turned on the lathe without difficulty, a gradually increasing hardness being reached at the last named giving a very short chip, and requiring frequent re-

turning of the tool. For the brittle alloys it was found impossible to turn the surface smooth. No. 13 to No. 17 (38.85 to 34.47% tin) could not be turned at all. Chips would fly off in advance of the

h it, leaving a rough surface; or the tool would sometimes, apparently, off portions of the metal, grinding it to powder. Beyond 40% tin the ss decreased so that the bars could be easily turned.

ALLOYS OF COPPER AND ZINC, (U. S. Test Board).

Composition by Analysis.		Tensile Strength, lbs. per sq. in.	Elastic Limit % of Breaking Load, lbs. per sq. in.	Elongation in 5 inches.	Transverse Test Modulus of Rupture.	Deflection of bar 29' long, in.	Crushing Str'gth per sq. in., lbs.	Torsional Tests.	
Copper.	Zinc.							Max. Tors. Moment ft.-lbs.	Angle of Torsion, deg.
7.83	1.88	27,340	130	357
2.93	16.98	32,600	26.1	26.7	23,197	Bent	155	329
1.91	17.99	32,670	30.6	31.4	21,198	166	345
7.39	22.45	35,630	20.0	35.5	25,374	169	311
1.65	23.08	30,520	24.6	35.8	22,325	42,000	165	267
1.20	26.47	31,580	23.7	38.5	25,894	168	293
1.20	28.54	30,510	29.5	39.2	24,468	164	269
1.74	30.06	28,130	28.7	30.7	26,920	143	302
1.37	33.50	37,800	25.1	37.7	28,459	176	257
1.44	36.36	48,300	32.8	21.7	43,216	202	230
1.94	38.65	41,065	40.1	20.7	38,068	75,000	194	202
1.49	41.10	50,450	54.4	10.1	63,504	227	93
1.15	44.44	44,380	44.0	15.3	42,463	78,000	209	109
1.80	44.78	46,400	53.9	8.0	47,955	223	72
1.66	50.14	30,990	54.5	5.0	33,467	1.26	117,400	172	38
1.99	50.82	26,050	100.	0.8	40,189	0.61	176	16
1.56	52.28	24,150	100.	0.8	48,471	1.17	121,000	155	13
1.36	56.22	9,170	100.	17,691	0.10	88	2
1.30	58.12	3,727	100.	7,761	0.04	18	2
1.24	66.23	1,774	100.	8,296	0.04	29	1
1.20	70.17	6,414	100.	16,579	0.04	40	2
1.81	77.63	9,000	100.	0.2	22,972	0.13	52,152	65	1
1.12	86.67	12,413	100.	0.4	35,026	0.31	82	3
1.35	94.50	18,065	100.	0.5	36,162	0.46	81	22
Cast Zinc.	5.400	75.	0.7	7.539	0.12	22,000	37	142

Relation in Strength of Gun-bronze, and Means of Improving the Strength.

The figures obtained for alloys of from 12.7% tin, viz., from 26,860 to 29,430 pounds, are much less than are given as the strength of gun-metal. Bronze guns are usually cast the pressure of a head of metal, which tends to increase the strength. The strength of the upper part of a gun casting, or sinking is not greater than that of the small bars which have been tested in experiments. The following is an extract from the report of Major concerning the strength and density of gun-bronze (1850):—Extreme on of six samples from different parts of the same gun (a 32 pounder): Specific gravity, 8.487 to 8.835; tenacity, 26,428 to 52,192. Extreme on of all the samples tested: Specific gravity, 8.308 to 8.850; tenacity, 0 54,531. Extreme variation of all the samples from the gun heads: Specific gravity, 8.308 to 8.756; tenacity, 23,529 to 35,484.

Wade says: The general results on the quality of bronze as it is used in guns are mostly of a negative character. They expose defects in strength, develop the heterogeneous texture of the metal in different parts of the same gun, and show the irregularity and uncertainty of which attend the casting of all guns, although made from similar materials, treated in like manner.

Ordinance bronze containing 9 parts copper and 1 part tin, tested at Watlington, D. C., in 1875-6, showed a variation in tensile strength from 51,400 lbs. per square inch, in elongation from 3% to 58%, and in specific gravity from 8.39 to 8.88.

A great improvement may be made in the density and tenacity of bronze by compression has been shown by the experiments of Mr. S. B. Boston, Mass., in 1869, and by those of General Uchatius in Austria. The former increased the density of the metal next the bore of the gun from 8.321 to 8.575, and the tenacity from 27,238 to 41,471 pounds per

square inch. The latter, by a similar process, obtained the following for tenacity:

	Pounds per sq. in.
Bronze with 10% tin.....	73,033
Bronze with 8% tin.....	73,958
Bronze with 6% tin.....	77,656

ALLOYS OF COPPER, TIN, AND ZINC.

(Report of U. S. Test Board, Vol. II, 1881.)

No. in Report.	Analysis, Original Mixture.			Transverse Strength.		Tensile Strength per square inch.		Elongat per cent 5 inch
	Cu.	Sn.	Zn.	Modulus of Rupture	Deflection, ins.	A.	B.	
72	90	5	5	41,324	2.63	23,660	20,740	2.31
5	85.14	1.86	10	31,986	3.67	32,000	33,000	17.6
70	85	5	10	44,457	2.85	28,840	28,560	6.80
71	85	10	5	62,470	2.56	35,680	36,000	2.51
88	85	12.5	2.5	62,405	2.83	31,500	32,800	1.29
88	82.5	12.5	5	67,960	1.61	36,000	34,000	.86
77	82.5	15	2.5	69,045	1.09	33,600	33,800
67	80	5	15	42,618	3.88	37,560	32,200	11.6
68	80	10	10	67,117	2.45	32,830	31,950	1.37
69	80	15	5	54,476	.44	32,350	30,760	.55
86	77.5	10	12.5	63,849	1.19	35,500	36,000	1.00
87	77.5	12.5	10	61,705	.71	36,000	32,500	.72
63	75	5	20	55,355	2.91	33,140	34,960	2.50
85	75	7.5	17.5	62,607	1.39	33,700	30,300	1.56
64	75	10	15	58,345	.73	35,320	34,000	1.18
65	75	15	10	51,109	.31	35,440	28,000	.59
66	75	20	5	40,235	.31	23,140	27,660	.43
83	72.5	7.5	20	51,839	2.86	32,700	34,800	3.73
84	72.5	10	17.5	53,230	.74	30,000	30,000	.48
59	70	5	25	67,349	1.37	38,000	32,940	2.06
82	70	7.5	22.5	48,836	.36	38,000	32,400	.84
60	70	10	20	30,520	.18	33,140	26,300	.31
61	70	15	15	37,924	.30	33,440	37,800	.25
62	70	20	10	15,126	.08	17,000	12,900	.08
81	67.5	2.5	30	58,345	2.91	34,720	45,850	7.27
74	67.5	5	27.5	55,976	.49	34,000	34,460	1.06
75	67.5	7.5	25	46,875	.32	29,500	20,000	.36
80	65	2.5	32.5	56,949	2.36	41,350	38,300	3.26
55	65	5	30	51,369	.56	37,140	36,000	1.21
56	65	10	25	27,075	.14	25,720	22,500	.15
57	65	15	20	13,591	.07	6,820	7,231
58	65	20	15	11,932	.05	3,765	2,665
79	62.5	2.5	35	69,255	2.34	44,400	45,000	2.15
78	60	2.5	37.5	69,508	1.46	57,400	52,900	4.87
52	60	5	35	46,076	.28	41,160	38,320	.39
53	60	10	30	24,699	.13	21,780	21,240	.15
54	60	15	25	18,248	.09	18,020	12,400
12	58.22	2.30	39.48	95,623	1.99	66,500	67,600	3.13
3	58.75	8.75	32.5	35,752	.18	Broke	before test;	ver y
4	57.5	21.25	21.25	2,752	.02	725	1,300
73	55	0.5	44.5	72,308	3.05	68,900	68,900	9.43
50	55	5	40	38,174	.22	27,400	30,500	.46
51	55	10	35	28,258	.14	25,460	18,500	.29
49	50	5	45	20,814	.11	23,000	31,300	.66

The transverse tests were made in bars 1 in. square, 22 in. between ends. The tensile tests were made on bars 0.798 in. diam, turned for 1/2 in. of the transverse-test bar, one half being marked A & B.

t Bronzes.—The usual composition of ancient bronze was that of modern gun-metal—90 copper, 10 tin; but the proportion of iron 5% to 15%, and in some cases lead has been found. Some ancient tools contained 88 copper, 12 tin.

h of the Copper-zinc Alloys.—The alloys containing less zinc by original mixture were generally defective. The bars had blow-holes, and the metal showed signs of oxidation. To insure it appears that copper-zinc alloys should contain more than

2 to No. 8 inclusive, 16.98 to 30.06% zinc the bars show a remarkable ductility in all their properties. They have all nearly the same ductility, the latter decreasing slightly as zinc increases, and alike in color and appearance. Between Nos. 8 and 10, 30.06 and the strength by all methods of test rapidly increases. Between No. 15, 36.36 and 50.14% zinc, there is another group, distinguished by length and diminished ductility. The alloy of maximum tensile, and torsional strength contains about 41% of zinc.

Alloys containing less than 55% of zinc are all yellow metals. Beyond 55% they change to white, and the alloy becomes weak and brittle. Beyond pure zinc the color is bluish gray, the brittleness decreases with strength increases, but not to such a degree as to make them useful for any other purpose.

Change between Composition by Mixture and by

Analysis.—There is in every case a smaller percentage of zinc in the analysis than in the original mixture, and a larger percentage of copper. The loss of zinc is variable, but in general averages from 1 to 2%.

Change on or Separation of the Metals.—In several of the experiments a considerable amount of liquation took place, analysis showing a different composition of the two ends of the bar. In such cases the composition was gradual from one end of the bar to the other, and in general containing the higher percentage of copper. A sample was bar No. 13, in the above table, turnings from the upper end 40.36% of zinc, and from the lower end 48.53%.

Gravity.—The specific gravity follows a definite law, varying with composition, and decreasing with the addition of zinc. From the table of specific gravities the following mean values are taken:

Percentage of zinc.....	0	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
Specific gravity.....	8.80	8.72	8.60	8.40	8.36	8.20	8.00	7.72	7.40	7.20	7.14

Representation of the Law of Variation of the Law of Variation of Copper-Tin-Zinc Alloys.—In an equilateral triangle the perpendicular distances from any point within it to the three sides are equal to the altitude. Such a triangle can therefore be used to represent the percentage composition of any compound of three elements.

Let one side represent 100 copper, a second side 100 zinc, the vertex opposite each of these sides represent 100 of each element respectively. On points in a triangle of wood representing different alloys tested, wires were erected of lengths proportional to their tensile strengths, and the triangle then built up with plaster to represent the variations of strength with variations of composition. The surface thus formed has a characteristic shape. The cut shows the surface thus made. The vertical section represents the law of tensile strength of the copper-tin alloys, the horizontal section that of tin-zinc alloys, and the one at the rear that of zinc alloys. The high point represents the strongest possible alloy of the three metals. Its composition is copper 55, zinc 43, tin 2, and its tensile strength about 70,000 lbs. The high ridge from this point to the point of maximum strength on the left is the line of the strongest alloys, by the formula $\text{zinc} + (3 \times \text{tin}) = 55$.

Alloys containing more copper and less tin are alloys of greater ductility than those on the line of maximum strength. The alloys on the right are the valuable commercial alloys; those in front on the declivity are brittle, and those in the valley are both brittle and soft. Passing from the valley toward the section at the right the alloys become brittle and become soft, the maximum softness being reached at the rear of the ridge, containing more copper and less tin.

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test Iron, Steel, etc., vol. ii, Washington, 1881, and Thurston's *Manual of Engineering*, vol. iii.)

The best alloy obtained in Thurston's research for the U. S. Tests has the composition, Copper 55, Tin 0.5, Zinc 44.5. The tensile strength of a cast bar was 68,900 lbs. per sq. in., two specimens giving the same result; elongation was 47 to 51 per cent in 5 inches. Thurston's formula for tin-zinc alloys of maximum strength (Trans. A. S. C. E., 1881) is $z + t = 50$

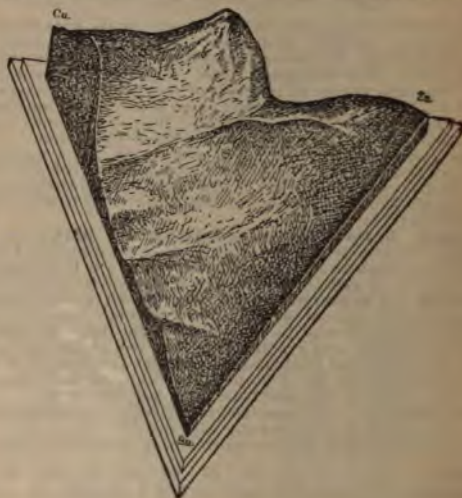


FIG. 77.

in which z is the percentage of zinc and t that of tin. Alloys prepared according to this formula should have a strength of about $40,000 + 500z$ lbs. per sq. in. The formula fails with alloys containing less than 10 per cent of tin.

The following would be the percentage composition of a number of alloys made according to this formula, and their corresponding tensile strengths:

Tin.	Zinc.	Copper.	Tensile Strength, lbs. per sq. in.	Tin.	Zinc.	Copper.	Tensile Strength, lbs. per sq. in.
1	52	47	66,000	8	31	61	64,800
2	49	49	64,500	9	28	63	63,600
3	46	51	63,000	10	25	65	62,400
4	43	53	61,500	12	19	69	60,000
5	40	55	60,000	14	13	73	57,600
6	37	57	58,500	16	7	77	55,200
7	34	59	57,000	18	1	81	52,800

These alloys, while possessing maximum tensile strength, would be too hard for easy working by machine tools. Another series of alloys, the formula $z + 4t = 50$ would have greater ductility, together with a strength, as follows, the strength being calculated as $40,000 + 500z$ lbs. per sq. in.

Tin.	Zinc.	Copper.	Tensile Strength, lbs. per sq. in.	Tin.	Zinc.	Copper.	Tensile Strength, lbs. per sq. in.
1	46	53	63,000	7	22	71	51,000
2	42	56	61,000	8	18	74	49,000
3	38	59	59,000	9	14	77	47,000
4	34	62	57,000	10	10	80	45,000
5	30	65	55,000	11	6	83	43,000
6	26	68	53,000	12	2	86	41,000

Composition of Alloys in Everyday Use in Brass Foundries. (*American Machinist.*)

	Cop. per.	Zinc.	Tin.	Lead.	
	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	
Admiralty metal	87	5	8	For parts of engines on board naval vessels.
Shell metal	16	4	Bells for ships and factories.
Brass (yellow)	16	8	1/4	For plumbers, ship and house brass work.
Bush metal	64	8	4	4	For bearing bushes for shafting.
Gun metal	32	1	3	For pumps and other hydraulic purposes.
Steam metal	20	1	1 1/2	1	Castings subjected to steam pressure.
Hard gun metal	16	2 1/2	For heavy bearings.
Naval metal	60	40	Metal from which bolts and nuts are forged, valve spindles, etc.
Phosphor bronze	99	8 phos. tin	For valves, pumps and general work.
" "	90	10 "	" "	For cog and worm wheels, bushes, axle bearings, slide valves, etc.
Flanging metal	16	3	Flanges for copper pipes.
" solder	50	50	Solder for the above flanges.

Gurley's Bronze.—16 parts copper, 1 tin, 1 zinc, 1/2 lead, used by A. L. E. Gurley of Troy for the framework of their engineer's transit. Tensile strength 41,114 lbs. per sq. in., elongation 27% in 1 inch, sp. gr. 8.696 (W. J. Keep, Trans. A. I. M. E. 1890.)

Useful Alloys of Copper, Tin, and Zinc.

(Selected from numerous sources.)

	Copper.	Tin.	Zinc.	
U. S. Navy Dept. journal boxes } and guide-gibs. } =	6	1	1/4	parts.
Naval bronze	82.8	13.8	3.4	per cent.
Naval brass	68.22	2.30	39.48	" "
Composition, U. S. Navy	62	1	37	" "
Marine bearings (J. Rose)	88	10	2	" "
" "	64	8	1	parts.
Gun metal	87.7	11.0	1.3	per cent.
" "	92.5	5	2.5	" "
" "	91	7	2	" "
" "	87.75	9.75	2.5	" "
" "	85	5	10	" "
" "	83	2	15	" "
" "	13	2	2	parts.
Strength brass for engines	76.5	11.8	11.7	per cent.
Brass for rod-boxes (Lafond)	82	16	2	slightly malleable
" " pieces subject to shock	83	15	1.50	0.50 lead.
Shell brass	20	1	1	" "
" " per cent	87	4.4	4.3	4.3 "
Brass for pump casings (Lafond)	88	10	2	" "
" " eccentric straps	84	14	2	" "
" " shrill whistles	80	18	2.0 antimony.
" " low-toned whistles	81	17	2.0 "

	Copper.	Tin.	Zinc.
Art bronze, dull red fracture.....	97	2	1
Gold bronze.....	89.5	2.1	5.6 2.8 lead.
Bearing metal.....	89	8	3
" ".....	89	2½	8½
" ".....	86	14	..
" ".....	85½	12¾	2
" ".....	80	18	2
" ".....	79	18	2½ 1½ lead.
" ".....	74	9½	9½ 7 lead.
English brass of A.D. 1504.....	64	3	29½ 3½ lead.

Copper-Nickel Alloys, German Silver.

	Copper.	Nickel.	Tin.
German silver.....	51.6	25.8	22.6
" ".....	50.2	14.8	3.1
" ".....	51.1	13.8	3.2
" ".....	52 to 55	18 to 25
Nickel ".....	75 to 66	25 to 33

A refined copper-nickel alloy containing 50% copper and 49% nickel, very small amounts of iron, silicon and carbon, is produced direct Bessemer matte in the Sudbury (Canada) Nickel Works. German manufacturers purchase a ready-made alloy, which melts at a low heat requires simple addition of zinc, instead of buying the nickel and copper separately. This alloy, "50-50" as it is called, is almost indistinguishable from pure nickel. Its cost is less than nickel, its melting point much lower, it can be cast solid in any form desired, and furnishes a casting which is easily in the lathe or planer, yielding a silvery white surface unchangeable to air or moisture. For bullet casings now used in various British and German rifles, a special alloy of 80% copper and 20% nickel is made.

Special Alloys. (Engineer, March 24, 1893.)

JAPANESE ALLOYS for art work:

	Copper.	Silver.	Gold.	Lead.	Zinc.	Iron.
Shaku-do.....	94.50	1.55	3.73	0.11	trace.	trace.
Shibu-ichi.....	67.31	32.07	traces.	.52

GILBERT'S ALLOY for *cera-perduta* process, for casting in plaster-of-Paris.
Copper 91.4 Tin 5.7 Lead 2.9 Very fusible.

COPPER-ZINC-IRON ALLOYS.

(F. L. Garrison, *Jour. Frank. Inst.*, June and July, 1891.)

Delta Metal.—This alloy, which was formerly known as *sterro-met* is composed of about 60 copper, from 34 to 44 zinc, 2 to 4 iron, and 1 to 1.5 tin.

The peculiarity of all these alloys is the content of iron, which appears to have the property of increasing their strength to an unusual degree. In making delta metal the iron is previously alloyed with zinc in known definite proportions. When ordinary wrought-iron is introduced, molten zinc, the latter readily dissolves or absorbs the former, and will take it up to the extent of about 5% or more. By adding the zinc-iron alloy to the requisite amount of copper, it is possible to introduce a definite quantity of iron up to 5% into the copper alloy. Garrison gives the following as the range of composition of copper-zinc-iron, and copper-zinc-tin-iron alloys:

I.		II.	
	Per cent.		Per cent.
Iron.....	0.1 to 5	Iron.....	0.1
Copper.....	50 to 65	Tin.....	0.1
Zinc.....	49.9 to 30	Zinc.....	14
		Copper.....	64

The advantages claimed for delta metal are great strength and toughness. It produces sound castings of close grain. It can be rolled and forged, and can be drawn to a certain amount of drawing and hammering when cold, and when exposed to the atmosphere tarnishes less.

When cast in sand delta metal has a tensile strength of about 45,000 pounds per square inch, and about 10% elongation; when rolled, tensile strength of 100 to 75,000 pounds per square inch, elongation from 9% to 17% on bars 1.128 in diameter and 1 inch area.

Wallace gives the ultimate tensile strength 33,600 to 51,580 pounds per square inch, with from 10% to 30% elongation.

Delta metal can be forged, stamped and rolled hot. It must be forged at dark cherry-red heat, and care taken to avoid striking when at a black heat.

According to Lloyd's Proving House tests, made at Cardiff, December 20, 87, a half-inch delta metal-rolled bar gave a tensile strength of 88,400 pounds per square inch, with an elongation of 30% in three inches.

Tobin Bronze.—This alloy is practically a stervo or delta metal with the addition of a small amount of lead, which tends to render copper softer and more ductile.

The following analyses of Tobin bronze were made by Dr. Chas. B. Dudley:

	Pig Metal, per cent.	Test Bar (Rolled), per cent.
Copper.....	59.00	61.30
Zinc.....	38.40	37.14
Tin.....	2.16	0.90
Iron.....	0.11	0.18
Lead.....	0.31	0.35

Dr. Dudley writes, "We tested the test bars and found 78,500 tensile strength with 15% elongation in two inches, and 40½% in eight inches. This high tensile strength can only be obtained when the metal is manipulated, and such high results could hardly be expected with cast metal."

The original Tobin bronze in 1875, as described by Thurston, Trans. A. S. M. E. 1881, had, composition of copper 58.22, tin 2.30, zinc 39.48. As cast it had a tenacity of 66,000 lbs. per sq. in., and as rolled 79,000 lbs.; cold rolled it gave 104,000 lbs.

A circular of Ansonia Brass & Copper Co. gives the following:—The tensile strength of six Tobin bronze one-inch round rolled rods, turned down to a diameter of ¾ of an inch, tested by Fairbanks, averaged 79,600 lbs. per sq. in., and the elastic limit obtained on three specimens averaged 54,257 lbs. per sq. in.

At a cherry-red heat Tobin bronze can be forged and stamped as readily as steel. Bolts and nuts can be forged from it, either by hand or by machinery, with a marked degree of economy. Its great tensile strength, and resistance to the corrosive action of sea-water, render it a most suitable metal for condenser plates, steam-launch shafting, ship sheathing and stowings, nails, hull plates for steam yachts, torpedo and life boats, and ship deck fittings.

The Navy Department has specified its use for certain purposes in the machinery of the new cruisers. Its specific gravity is 8.071. The weight of one cubic inch is .291 lb.

PHOSPHOR-BRONZE AND OTHER SPECIAL BRONZES.

Phosphor-bronze.—In the year 1868, Montefiore & Kunzel of Liège, Belgium, found by adding small proportions of phosphorus or "phosphoret of tin or copper" to copper that the oxides of that metal, nearly always present as an impurity, more or less, were deoxidized and the copper much improved in strength and ductility, the grain of the fracture became finer, the color brighter, and a greater fluidity was attained.

Three samples of phosphor-bronze tested by Kirkaldy gave:

Elastic limit, lbs. per sq. in.	23,800	24,700	16,100
Tensile strength, lbs. per sq. in. ...	52,625	46,100	44,448
Elongation, per cent.	8.40	1.50	33.40

The strength of phosphor-bronze varies like that of ordinary bronze according to the percentages of copper, tin, zinc, lead, etc., in the alloy.

Deoxidized Bronze.—This alloy resembles phosphor bronze somewhat in composition and also delta metal, in containing zinc and iron. The following analysis gives its average composition:

Copper	83.67	Iron ..	0.10
Tin	12.40	Silver ..	0.07
Zinc	3.23	Phosphorus	0.005
Lead	2.14		
			100.615

Comparison of Copper, Silicon-bronze, and Phosphor bronze Wires.

(Engineering, Nov. 23, 1883.)

Description of Wire.	Tensile Strength per square inch in		Rel. Condu.
	Tons.	Lbs.	
Pure copper.....	17.78	39,827	100 per
Silicon bronze (telegraph).....	18.27	41,696	96
" " (telephone),.....	48.25	108,080	24
Phosphor Bronze (telephone).....	45.71	102,390	26

ALUMINUM ALLOYS.

(**Aluminum Bronze.** Cowles Electric Smelting and Al. Co.'s.)

The standard A No. 2 grade of aluminum bronze, containing 11% aluminum and 90% of copper, has many remarkable characteristics which distinguish it from all other metals.

The tenacity of castings of A No. 2 grade metal varies between 26 and 90,000 lbs. to the square inch, with from 4% to 14% elongation.

Increasing the proportion of aluminum in bronze beyond 11% produces a brittle alloy; therefore nothing higher than the A No. 1, which contains 10% aluminum.

The B, C, D, and E grades, containing 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ %, 5%, 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ %, and 1 $\frac{1}{4}$ % of aluminum respectively, decrease in tenacity in the order named, that of the first being about 65,000 pounds, while the latter is 25,000 pounds. While there is a proportionate decrease in transverse and torsional strength, ductility, and resistance to compression as the percentage of aluminum increases, and that of copper raised, the ductility on the other hand increases in the same proportion. The specific gravity of the A No. 1 grade is 7.6.

Bell Bros., Newcastle, gave the specific gravity of the aluminum alloys as below:

3% aluminum.....	8.691
4% ".....	8.621
5% ".....	8.369
10% ".....	7.689

Castings.—The melting point of aluminum bronze varies slightly with the amount of aluminum contained, the higher grades melting at a lower temperature than the lower grades. The A No. 1 grade melts at about 1700° F., a little higher than ordinary bronze or brass.

Aluminum bronze shrinks more than ordinary brass. As the metal is fed rapidly it is necessary to pour it quickly and to make the feeder large, so that there will be no "freezing" in them before the metal is properly fed. Baked-sand moulds are preferable to green sand, especially for small castings, and when fine skin colors are desired in the casting paper by Thos. D. West, Trans. A. S. M. E. 1886, vol. viii.)

All grades of aluminum bronze can be rolled, swaged, spun, or cold except A 1 and A 2. They can all be worked at a bright red heat.

In rolling, swedging, or spinning cold, it should be annealed very slowly at a brighter red heat than is used for annealing brass.

Brazing.—Aluminum bronze will braze as well as any other metal using one quarter brass solder (zinc 500, copper 500 (and three quarters borax, or, better, three quarters cryolite).

Soldering.—To solder aluminum bronze with ordinary soft solder: Cleanse well the parts to be joined free from grease and dirt; dip the parts to be soldered in a strong solution of sulphate of copper; place in the bath a rod of soft iron touching the parts to be joined, while a coppery-like surface will be seen on the metal. Remove from bath, rinse quite clean, and brighten the surfaces. These surfaces may be tinned by using a fluid consisting of zinc dissolved in hydrochloric acid the ordinary way, with common soft solder.

Mierzinski recommends ordinary hard solder, and says that the best alloy of the usual half-and-half lead-tin solder, with 12.5% of zinc and amalgam.

Tests of Aluminum Bronzes.

H. J. Dagger, in a paper read before the British Association, 1889.)

cent of aluminum.	Tensile Strength.		Elonga- tion, per cent.	Specific Gravity.
	Tons per square inch.	Pounds per square inch.		
.....	40 to 45	89,600 to 100,800	8	7.33
.....	33 " 40	73,930 " 89,600	14	7.69
.....	25 " 30	56,000 " 67,300	40	8.00
.....	15 " 18	33,600 " 40,330	40	8.37
.....	13 " 15	29,130 " 33,600	50	8.69
.....	11 " 13	24,640 " 29,130	55	...

Physical and chemical tests made of samples cut from various sec-
tions, 5%, 7½%, or 10% aluminized copper castings tend to prove that
aluminum unites itself with each particle of copper with uniform pro-
portion to each case, so that we have a product that is free from liquation
and is homogeneous. (R. C. Cole, *Iron Age*, Jan. 16, 1890.)

Aluminum-Brass (E. H. Cowles, *Trans. A. I. M. E.*, vol. xviii.)—
Aluminum-brass is made by fusing together equal weights of A 1
gun-bronze, copper, and zinc. The copper and bronze are first thor-
oughly melted and mixed, and the zinc is finally added. The material is left
to cool until small test-bars are taken from it and broken. When
the metal is ready to be poured. Tests of this brass, on small
pieces, show a tensile strength of 80,000 pounds or over, with 2 or 3 per
cent elongation, the metal is ready to be poured. Tests of this brass, on small
pieces, show at times shown as high as 100,000 pounds tensile strength.
A gun of the United States gunboat *Petrel* is cast from this brass,
with a trifle less zinc in order to increase its ductility.

Tests of Aluminum-Brass.

(Cowles E. S. & Al. Co.)

Alloy (Castings.)	Diameter of Piece, Inch.	Area, sq. in.	Tensile Strength, lbs. per sq. in.	Elastic Limit, lbs. per sq. in.	Elonga- tion, per ct.	Remarks.
Aluminum-Brass.	.465	.1698	41,235	17,668	41½	These test pieces were all 6" long between the shoulders.
Copper-Brass.	.465	.1698	78,327	2½	
Aluminum-Brass.	.460	.1661	72,246	2½	
Copper-Brass.						
Aluminum-Brass.						
Copper-Brass.						

The first brass on the above list is an extremely tough metal with low
tensile strength, made purposely so as to " upset " easily. The other, which is
aluminum-brass No 2, is very hard.

There is not in this country or in England any official standard by which
the physical characteristics of cast metals. There are two con-
siderations absolutely necessary to be known before we can make a
comparison of different materials: namely, whether the casting was
made in dry or green sand or in a chill, and whether it was attached to a
test-bar or cast by itself. It has also been found that chill-castings
show better results than sand-castings, and that bars cast by themselves
show better results for testing almost invariably run higher than test-bars attached
to them. It is also a fact that bars cut out from castings are generally
stronger than bars cast alone. (E. H. Cowles.)

Notes as to Reported Strength of Alloys.—The same
tensile strength which has been found in tests of gun-metal (copper
alloyed above, must be expected in tests of aluminum bronze and in
other alloys. They are exceedingly subject to variation in density
caused by differences in method of molding and casting, test
specimens, size and shape of casting, depth of " sinking head,"

Aluminum Hardened by Addition of Copper Bolts
Sheets .04 Inch Thick. (*The Engineer*, Jan 2, 1891.)

Al. Per cent.	Cu. Per cent.	Sp. Gr. Calculated.	Sp. Gr. Determined.	Tensile Strength in pounds square in.
100	2.67	26,535
98	2	2.78	2.71	43,563
96	4	2.90	2.77	44,130
94	6	3.02	2.82	54,773
92	8	3.14	2.85	50,374

Tests of Aluminum Alloys.

(*Engineer Harris*, U. S. N., *Trans. A. I. M. E.*, vol. xviii.)

Composition.					Tensile Strength, per sq. in. lbs.	Elastic Limit, lbs. per sq. in.	Elonga- tion, per ct.	Re- tio At pe
Cop- per.	Alumi- num.	Silicon.	Zinc.	Iron.				
91.50%	6.50%	1.75%	0.25%	60,700	18,000	23.2	3
88.50	9.33	1.66	0.50	66,000	27,000	3.8	1
91.50	6.50	1.75	0.25	67,000	24,000	13.	2
90.00	9.00	1.00	72,830	33,000	2.40	1
63.00	3.33	0.33	33.33%	82,300	60,000	2.33	1
63.00	3.33	0.33	33.33	70,400	55,000	0.4	1
91.50	6.50	1.75	0.25	59,100	19,000	15.1	2
93.00	6.50	0.50	53,000	19,000	6.2	1
88.50	9.33	1.66	0.50	69,330	33,000	1.33	1
92.00	6.50	0.50	46,530	17,000	7.8	1

For comparison with the above 6 tests of "Navy Yard Bronze," C Sn 10, Zn 2, are given in which the T. S. ranges from 18,000 to 24,990, E. from 10,000 to 13,000, EL. 2.5 to 5.8%, Red. 4.7 to 10.89.

Alloys of Aluminum, Silicon and Iron.

M. and E. Bernard have succeeded in obtaining through electrolysis treating directly and without previous purification, the aluminum as (red and white bauxites) the following:

Alloys such as ferro-aluminum, ferro-silicon-aluminum and silicon-aluminum, where the proportion of silicon may exceed 10% which are employed in the metallurgy of iron for refining steel and cast-iron.

Also silicon-aluminum, where the proportion of silicon does not exceed 10%, which may be employed in mechanical constructions in a roller-hammered condition, in place of steel, on account of their great resistance especially where the lightness of the piece in construction constitutes of the main conditions of success.

The following analyses are given:

1. Alloys applied to the metallurgy of iron, the refining of steel and iron:

Types.	Aluminum.	Iron.	Silicon.	Mangan.
No. 1.....	70%	25%	5%	0%
No. 2.....	70	20	10	0
No. 3.....	70	15	15	0
No. 4.....	70	10	20	0
No. 5.....	70	10	10	10
No. 6.....	70	trace	20	10

2. Mechanical alloys:

Types.	Aluminum.	Silicon.	Ir
No. 1.....	92%	6.75%	1.3
No. 2.....	90	9.25	0.3
No. 3.....	90	10.00	tra

Up to this time it has been thought that silicon was rather injurious to alloyed with aluminum. From numerous experiences it has been determined that silicon to aluminum some remarkable properties of resistance with alloys where the proportion of iron was very small. Silicon in the neighborhood of 10%. Above that

Aluminum-Antimony Alloys.—Dr. C. R. Alder Wright describes aluminum-antimony alloys in a communication read before the Society of Chemical Industry. The results of his researches do not disclose the use of a commercially useful alloy of these two metals, and have more scientific than practical interest. A remarkable point is that the alloy with the chemical composition *Al Sb* has a higher melting point than aluminum or antimony alone, and that when aluminum is added to antimony the melting-point goes up from that of antimony (450° C.) to a certain temperature rather above that of silver (1000° C.).

ALLOYS OF MANGANESE AND COPPER.

Various Manganese Alloys.—E. H. Cowles, in *Trans. A. I. M. E.*, vol. 8, p. 495, states that as the result of numerous experiments on alloys of the several metals, copper, zinc, tin, lead, aluminum, iron, and manganese, and the metalloid silicon, and experiments upon the same in various situations appear to be about as follows:

That pure metallic manganese exerts a bleaching effect upon copper more radical in its action even than nickel. In other words, it was found that 1% of manganese present in copper produces as white a color in the casting alloy as 2% of nickel would do, this being the amount of each metal needed to remove the last trace of red.

That upwards of 20% or 25% of manganese may be added to copper without materially reducing its ductility, although doubling its tensile strength and changing its color.

That manganese, copper, and zinc when melted together and poured into molds behave very much like the most "yeasty" German silver, forming an ingot which is a mass of blow-holes, and which swells up the mould before cooling.

That the alloy of manganese and copper by itself is very easily oxidized.

That the addition of 1.35% of aluminum to a manganese-copper alloy makes it from one of the most refractory of metals in the casting process a metal of superior casting qualities, and the non-corrodibility of which in many instances is greater than that of either German or nickel silver.

That the "silver-bronze" alloy especially designed for rods, sheets, and wire of the following composition: Manganese, 18; aluminum, 1.90; silicon, 0.5;

(4) Good bearing-metals should show small friction. It is true that is almost wholly a question of the lubricant used; but the metal of the bearing has certainly some influence.

(5) Other things being equal, the best bearing-metal is that with the lowest friction.

The principal constituents of bearing-metal alloys are copper, zinc, antimony, iron, and aluminum. The following table gives the analyses of most of the prominent bearing-metals as analyzed at the Pennsylvania Railroad laboratory at Altoona.

Analyses of Bearing-metal Alloys.

Metal.	Cop- per.	Tin.	Lead.	Zinc.	Anti- mony
Camelia metal.....	70.20	4.25	14.75	10.20
Anti-friction metal.....	1.60	98.13
White metal.....	87.92	12.06
Car-brass lining.....	trace	84.87	15.10
Salgee anti-friction.....	4.01	9.91	1.15	85.57
Graphite bearing-metal.....	14.38	67.73	16.73
Antimonial lead.....	80.69	18.83
Carbon bronze.....	75.47	9.72	14.57
Cornish bronze.....	77.83	9.60	12.40	trace
Delta metal.....	92.39	2.37	5.10
*Magnolia metal.....	trace	83.55	trace	16.43
American anti-friction metal.....	78.44	0.98	19.66
Tobin bronze.....	59.00	2.16	0.31	38.40
Graney bronze.....	75.80	9.20	15.06
Damascus bronze.....	76.41	10.60	12.52
Manganese bronze.....	90.52	9.58
Ajax metal.....	81.34	10.98	7.27
Anti-friction metal.....	88.32	11.38
Harrington bronze.....	55.73	0.97	42.67
Car-box metal.....	84.33	trace	14.38
Hard lead.....	91.40	6.00
Phosphor-bronze.....	79.17	10.22	9.61
Ex. B. metal.....	76.80	8.00	15.00

Other constituents:

- | | |
|--------------------------------|------------------------------|
| (1) No graphite. | (5) No manganese. |
| (2) Possible trace of carbon. | (6) Phosphorus or arsenic, (|
| (3) Trace of phosphorus. | (7) Phosphorus, 0.94. |
| (4) Possible trace of bismuth. | (8) Phosphorus, 0.30. |

* Dr. H. C. Torrey says this analysis is erroneous and that the metal always contains tin.

As an example of the influence of minute changes in an alloy, rington bronze, which consists of a minute proportion of iron in zinc alloy, showed after rolling a tensile strength of 75,000 lbs. and elongation in 2 inches.

In experimenting on this subject on the Pennsylvania Railroad, a number of the bearings were made of a standard bearing-metal, the same number were made of the metal to be tested. These bearings were placed on opposite ends of the same axle, one side of the car has the standard bearings, the other the experimental. Before going out the bearings were carefully weighed, and after a sufficient time they were again weighed.

The standard bearing-metal used is the "S bearing-metal" of the Phosphor-bronze Smelting Co. It contains about 79.70% copper, 9.50% tin, and 0.80% phosphorus. A large number of experiments have shown the loss of weight of a bearing of this metal is 1 lb. to each 18,000 miles travelled. Besides the measurement of wear, observations were made on the frequency of "hot boxes" with the different metals.

The results of the tests for wear, so far as given, are condensed in the following table.

Metal.	Composition.					Rate of Wear.
	Copper.	Tin.	Lead.	Phos.	Arsenic.	
rd.....	79.70	10.00	9.50	0.80	100
-tin.....	87.50	12.50	148
-tin, second experiment, same metal.....	153
-tin, third experiment, same metal.....	147
-bronze.....	89.20	10.00	0.80	142
-bronze.....	79.20	10.00	7.00	0.80	115
-bronze.....	79.70	10.00	9.50	0.80	101
ronze.....	77.00	10.50	12.50	92
ronze, second experiment, same metal.....	92.7
"B".....	77.00	8.00	15.00	86.5

ld copper-tin alloy of 7 to 1 has repeatedly proved its inferiority to the or-bronze metal. Many more of the copper-tin bearings heated the phosphor-bronze. The showing of these tests was so satisfactory phosphor-bronze was adopted as the standard bearing-metal of ngylvania R.R., and was used for a long time.

xperiments, however, were continued. It was found that arsenic ally takes the place of phosphorus in a copper-tin alloy, and three re made with arsenic-bronzes as noted above. As the proportion is increased to correspond with the standard, the durability increases

In view of these results the "K" bronze was tried, in which neither orus nor arsenic were used, and in which the lead was increased he proportion in the standard phosphor-bronze. The result was that al wore 7.30% slower than the phosphor-bronze. No trouble from was experienced with the "K" bronze more than with the standard. hey continues:

out this time we began to find evidences that wear of bearing-metal arried in accordance with the following law: "That alloy which has atest power of distortion without rupture (resilience), will best resist

It was now attempted to design an alloy in accordance with this ting first the proportions of copper and tin, $9\frac{1}{4}$ parts copper to 1 of settled on by experiment as the standard, although some evidence at time tends to show that 12 or possibly 15 parts copper to 1 of tin ave been better. The influence of lead on this copper-tin alloy seems uch the same as a still further diminution of tin. However, the y of the metal to yield under pressure increases as the amount of inished, and the amount of the lead increased, so a limit is set to of lead. A certain amount of tin is also necessary to keep the lead with the copper.

ogs were cast of the metal noted in the table as alloy "B," and it 5% slower than the standard phosphor-bronze. This metal is now dard bearing-metal of the Pennsylvania Railroad, being slightly 1 in composition to allow the use of phosphor-bronze scrap. The adopted is: Copper, 105 lbs.; phosphor-bronze, 60 lbs.; tin, $9\frac{1}{4}$ lbs.; 4 lbs. By using ordinary care in the foundry, keeping the metal ered with charcoal during the melting, no trouble is found in casting arings with this metal. The copper and the phosphor-bronze can be e pot before putting it in the melting-hole. The tin and lead should d after the pot is taken from the fire.

not known whether the use of a little zinc, or possibly some other ation, might not give still better results. For the present, however, y is considered to fulfil the various conditions required for good -metal better than any other alloy. The phosphor-bronze had an ensile strength of 30,000 lbs., with 6% elongation, whereas the alloy d 24,000 lbs. tensile strength and 11% elongation.

ther bearing-metals, see Alloys containing antimony, on next page.

ALLOYS CONTAINING ANTIMONY.

VARIOUS ANALYSES OF BABBITT METAL AND OTHER ALLOYS CONTAINING ANTIMONY.

	Tin.	Copper	Antimony.	Zinc.	Lead.	Bismuth
Babbitt metal	50	1	5 parts
for light duty	=89.3	1.8	8.9 per ct.
Harder Babbitt	96	4	8 parts
for bearings*	=88.9	3.7	7.4 per ct.
Britannia	85.7	1.0	10.1	2.9
"	81.9	16.2	1.9
"	81.0	2	16.	1.
"	70.5	4	25.5
"	32	10	62.	6.
" Babbitt "	45.5	1.5	13.	40.0
Plate pewter	89.3	1.8	7.1
White metal	85	5	10.	Bearings on Ger. locom

* It is mixed as follows: Twelve parts of copper are first melted and 36 parts of tin are added; 24 parts of antimony are put in, and then 3 of tin, the temperature being lowered as soon as the copper is in the order not to oxidize the tin and antimony, the surface of the bath protected from contact with the air. The alloy thus made is subsequently remelted in the proportion of 50 parts of alloy to 100 tin. (Joshua Ross)

White-metal Alloys.—The following alloys are used as lining for the Eastern Railroad of France (1890):

Number.	Lead.	Antimony.	Tin.	Copper
1.....	65	25	0	10
2.....	0	11.12	83.33	5
3.....	70	20	10	0
4.....	80	8	12	0

No. 1 is used for lining cross-head slides, rod-brasses and axle-boxes; No. 2 for lining axle-bearings and connecting-rod brasses of heavy engines; No. 3 for lining eccentric straps and for bronze slide-valves; and No. 4 for metallic rod-packing.

Some of the best-known white-metal alloys are the following (C. G. of Hoveler & Dieckhaus, London, 1893):

	Tin.	Antimony.	Lead.	Copper.
1. Parsons'	85	1	2	2
2. Richards'	70	15	10½	4½
3. Babbitt's	55	18	23½	3½
4. Fentons'	16	0	0	5
5. French Navy	7½	0	7	7
6. German Navy	85	7½	0	7½

"There are engineers who object to white metal containing lead. This is, however, a prejudice quite unfounded, inasmuch as lead alloys often have properties of great use in white alloys."

It is a further fact that an "easy liquid" alloy must not contain more than 18% of antimony, which is an invaluable ingredient of white metal, improving its hardness; but in no case must it exceed that margin, which would reduce the plasticity of the compound and make it brittle.

Hardest alloy of tin and lead: 6 tin, 4 lead. Hardest of all tin alloys: 18 antimony, 8 copper.

Alloy for thin open-work, ornamental castings: Lead 2, antimony 2, white metal for patterns: Lead 10, bismuth 6, antimony 2, common tin 10.

Type-metal is made of various proportions of lead and antimony according to the hardness desired.

Babbitt Metals. (C. R. Tompkins, *Mechanical News*, Jan. 1893)

The practice of lining journal-boxes with a metal that is sufficient to be used in a common ladle is not always so much for the convenience properties as for the convenience and cheapness of lining in line with the shaft without the use of a

Boxes that are bored, no matter how accurate, require great care in practice, however, to use the shaft for the purpose of castings, especially if the shaft be steel, for the reason that the hot metal tends to spring it; the better plan is to use a mandrel of the same material larger for this purpose. For slow-running journals, where moderate, almost any metal that may be conveniently melted will answer the purpose. For wearing properties, with a leaded metal, there is probably nothing superior to pure zinc, but when alloyed with some other metal it shrinks so much in cooling that it will not fit firmly in the recess, and soon works loose; and it lacks those properties which are necessary in order to stand high speed.

For running journals, and all work where the speed is not over 300 or 400 r. p. m., a composition of 8 parts zinc and 2 parts block-tin will not only wear longer than most of the class, but will successfully resist the force of the tin counteracting the shrinkage, so that the metal, if not fitted firmly, will adhere to the box until it is worn out. But this alloy does not possess sufficient anti-friction properties to warrant its use for running journals.

Among the soft metals in use there are none that possess greater anti-friction properties than pure lead; but lead alone is impracticable, for it is so soft that it cannot be retained in the recess. But when by any process lead is fully hardened to be retained in the boxes without materially losing its anti-friction properties, there is no metal that will wear longer than leaded running journals. With most of the best and most popular alloys of tin in use and sold under the name of the Babbitt metal, lead is not used.

Alloys of tin and lead have the property of combining with each other in various proportions without impairing the anti-friction properties of either. The denser the lead, and when mixed in the proportion of 80 parts of lead to 20 parts antimony, no other known composition of these metals gives greater anti-friction or wearing properties, or will stand a longer time without heat or abrasion. It runs free in its melted state, has a low melting point, and is better adapted to light high-speeded machinery than any other metal. Care, however, should be manifested in using it, never to be heated beyond a temperature that will scorch a dry

oil. The most common compositions are sold under the name of Babbitt metal. There are many, but more are worthless; while but very little genuine Babbitt metal is made strictly according to the original formula. Most of the metal sold under that name are the refuse of type-foundries and machine-works, melted and cast into fancy ingots with special brands, and sold under the name of Babbitt metal.

At the present time to determine the exact formulas used by the inventor of the recessed box, as a number of different compositions are given for that composition. Tin, copper, and antimony are the principal ingredients, and from the best sources of information the original formula are as follows:

Another writer gives:

tin	= 89.3%	83.3%
copper	= 3.0%	8.3%
antimony	= 7.1%	8.3%

The original formula was first melted, and the antimony added first and then about 100 pounds of tin, the whole kept at a dull-red heat and constantly stirred until the metals were thoroughly incorporated, after which the tin was added, and after being thoroughly stirred again it was cast into ingots. When the copper is thoroughly melted, and antimony is added, a handful of powdered charcoal should be added to the crucible to form a flux, in order to exclude the air and prevent the metal from vaporizing; otherwise much of it will escape in the process and consequently be wasted. This metal, when carefully prepared, is probably one of the best metals in use for lining boxes that are subjected to a heavy weight and wear; but for light fast-running journals it is more susceptible to friction, and it is much liable to be worn by a metal composed of lead and antimony in the proportion of 80 parts

SOLDERS.

Common solders, equal parts tin and lead; fine solder, 2 tin to 1 lead solder, 2 lead, 1 tin.

Fusing-point of tin-lead alloys:

Tin 1 to lead 25	522° F.	Tin 1½ to lead 1	512° F.
" 1 " "	10.....541	" 2 " "	502°
" 1 " "	5.....511	" 3 " "	492°
" 1 " "	3.....482	" 4 " "	482°
" 1 " "	2.....441	" 5 " "	472°
" 1 " "	1.....370	" 6 " "	462°

Common pewter contains 4 lead to 1 tin.

Gold solder: 14 parts gold, 5 silver, 4 copper. Gold solder B gold: 25 parts gold, 25 silver, 12½ brass, 1 zinc.

Silver solder: Yellow brass 70 parts, zinc 7, tin 12½. Another parts, brass (3 copper, 1 zinc) 75, zinc 4.

German-silver solder: Copper 28, zinc 54, nickel 8.

Novel's solders for aluminum:

Tin 100 parts, lead 5;	melts at 522° to 523°
" 100 " zinc 5;	" 522 to 523
" 1000 " copper 10 to 15;	" 522 to 523
" 1000 " nickel 10 to 15;	" 522 to 523

Novel's solder for aluminum bronze: Tin 500 parts, copper 100, to 3. It is claimed that this solder is also suitable for joining also copper, brass, zinc, iron, or nickel.

ROPES AND CABLES.

STRENGTH OF ROPES.

(A. S. Newell & Co., Birkenhead. Klein's Translation of Weisbach part 1, sec. 2.)

Hemp.		Iron.		Steel.	
Girth.	Weight per Fathom.	Girth.	Weight per Fathom.	Girth.	Weight per Fathom.
Inches.	Pounds.	Inches.	Pounds.	Inches.	Pounds.
3¼	2	1	1¼	1	1
3¾	4	1½	2	1½	1½
4½	5	2	3	2	2
5¼	7	2½	4	2½	2½
6	9	3	5	3	3
6½	10	3½	6	3½	3½
7	12	4	7	4	4
7½	14	4½	8	4½	4½
8	16	5	9	5	5
8½	18	5½	10	5½	5½
9¼	22	6	11	6	6
10	26	6½	12	6½	6½
11	30	7	13	7	7
		7½	14	7½	7½
		8	15	8	8
		8½	16	8½	8½
		9	18	9	9
		9½	19	9½	9½
		10	20	10	10
				10½	10½

Flat Ropes.

mp.	Iron.		Steel.		Tensile Strength.
	Weight per Fathom.	Girth.	Weight per Fathom.	Girth.	
Pounds.	Inches.	Pounds.	Inches.	Pounds.	Gross tons.
20	$2\frac{1}{4} \times 1\frac{1}{8}$	11			20
24	$2\frac{1}{2} \times 1\frac{1}{8}$	13			23
26	$2\frac{3}{4} \times \frac{5}{8}$	15			27
28	$3 \times \frac{5}{8}$	16	$2 \times 1\frac{1}{2}$	10	28
30	$3\frac{1}{4} \times \frac{5}{8}$	18	$2\frac{1}{4} \times 1\frac{1}{2}$	11	32
36	$3\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{5}{8}$	20	$2\frac{3}{4} \times 1\frac{1}{2}$	12	36
40	$3\frac{3}{4} \times 11/16$	22	$2\frac{1}{2} \times 1\frac{1}{2}$	13	40
45	$4 \times 11/16$	25	$2\frac{3}{4} \times \frac{3}{4}$	15	45
50	$4\frac{1}{4} \times \frac{3}{4}$	28	$3 \times \frac{3}{4}$	16	50
55	$4\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{3}{4}$	32	$3\frac{1}{4} \times \frac{3}{4}$	18	56
60	$4\frac{5}{8} \times \frac{3}{4}$	34	$3\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{3}{4}$	20	60

ng Load, Diameter, and Weight of Ropes and Chains. (Klein's Weisbach, vol. iii, part 1, sec. 2, p. 561.)

ropes: d = diam. of rope. Wire rope: d = diam. of wire, n = of wires, G = weight per running foot, k = permissible load in per square inch of section, P = permissible load on rope or chain. hains: d = diam. of iron used; inside dimensions of oval $1.5d$ and ch link is a piece of chain $2.6d$ long. G_0 = weight of a single link = s ; G = weight per running foot = $9.73d^2$ lbs.

	Hemp Rope.		Wire Rope.
	Dry and Untarred.	Wet or Tarred.	
=	1430	1160	17000
=	$0.03 \sqrt{P}$	$0.033 \sqrt{P}$	$0.0087 \sqrt{\frac{P}{n}}$
=	$1130d^2 = 2855G$	$916d^2 = 1975G$	$13350nd^2 = 4590G$
=	$1.28d^2 = 0.00085P$	$1.54d^2 = 0.0005P$	$2.91nd^2 = 0.000218P$
	Open-link Chain.		Studd-link Chain.
(lbs.) =	8500		11400
(ins.) =	$0.0087 \sqrt{P}$		$0.0076 \sqrt{P}$
(lbs.) =	$13350d^2 = 1360G$		$17800d^2 = 1660G$
(lbs.) =	$9.73d^2 = 0.000737P$		$10.65d^2 = 0.0006P$

Chains $4/3$ times as strong as open-link variety. [This is contrary to elements of Capt. Beardslee, U. S. N., in the report of the U. S. Test He holds that the open link is stronger than the studded link. See etc].

STRENGTH AND WEIGHT OF WIRE ROPE, HEMPEN ROPE, AND CHAIN CABLES. (Klein's Weisbach.)

Breaking Load in tons of 2240 lbs.	Kind of Cable.	Girth of Wire Rope and of Hemp Rope Diameter of Iron of Chain, inches.	Weight of Cable Foot in length Pounds.
1 Ton.....	Wire Rope	1.0	0.125
	Hemp Rope	2.0	0.177
	Chain	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	0.500
8 Tons.....	Wire Rope	2.0	0.438
	Hemp Rope	5.0	0.978
	Chain	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	2.667
13 Tons.....	Wire Rope	2.5	0.753
	Hemp Rope	7.0	2.036
	Chain	11/16	4.802
16 Tons.....	Wire Rope	3.0	1.136
	Hemp Rope	8.0	2.365
	Chain	13/16	6.169
20 Tons.....	Wire Rope	3.5	1.546
	Hemp Rope	9.0	3.225
	Chain	29/32	7.674
24 Tons.....	Wire Rope	4.0	2.043
	Hemp Rope	10.0	4.166
	Chain	31/32	8.836
30 Tons.....	Wire Rope	4.5	2.725
	Hemp Rope	11.0	5.000
	Chain	1.1/16	10.335
36 Tons.....	Wire Rope	5.0	3.723
	Hemp Rope	12.5	5.940
	Chain	1.3/16	13.01
44 Tons.....	Wire Rope	5.5	4.50
	Hemp Rope	14.0	6.94
	Chain	1.5/16	16.00
54 Tons.....	Wire Rope	6.0	5.67
	Hemp Rope	15.0	7.92
	Chain	1.7/16	19.16

Length sufficient to provide the maximum working stress :

Hempen rope, dry and untarred	2855 feet.
" " wet or tarred	1973 "
Wire rope.....	4560 "
Open-link chain.....	1360 "
Stud chain.....	1660 "

Sometimes, when the depths are very great, ropes are given approximate the form of a body of uniform strength, by making them of separate pieces whose diameters diminish towards the lower end. It is evident that this means the tensions in the fibres caused by the rope's own weight are considerably diminished.

Rope for Hoisting or Transmission, Manila Rope. (C. W. Hunt Company, New York.)—Rope used for hoisting or for transmission of power is subjected to a very severe test. Ordinary rope chains and grinds to powder in the centre, while the exterior may look as though it was little worn.

In bending a rope over a sheave, the strands and the yarns of these strands slide a small distance upon each other, causing friction, and wear the rope internally.

The "Stevodore" rope used by the C. W. Hunt Co. is made by lubricating the fibres with plumbago, mixed with sufficient tallow to hold it in position. This lubricates the yarns of the rope, and prevents internal chafing and wear. After running a short time the exterior of the rope gets compressed and coated with the lubricant.

In manufacturing rope, the fibres are first spun into a yarn, this is then spun in a direction called "right hand." From 20 to 80 of these yarns, according to the size of the rope, are then put together and twisted in the opposite direction, or "left hand," into a strand. Three of these

for a 3-strand, or four for a 4-strand rope, are then twisted the twist being again in the "right hand" direction. When the rope is twisted, it untwists each of the threads, and when the three are twisted together into rope, it untwists the strands, but again twists the threads. It is this opposite twist that keeps the rope in its form. When a weight is hung on the end of a rope, the tendency is for the rope to untwist, and become longer. In untwisting the rope, it twists the threads up, and the weight will revolve until the strain of twisting strands just equals the strain of the threads being twisted. In making a rope it is impossible to make these strains exactly equal. It is this fact that makes it necessary to take out the twist in a new rope, that is, untwist it when it is put at work. The amount of twist that should be put in the threads has been ascertained approximately by experience.

The amount of work that the rope will do varies greatly. It depends not only on the quality of the fibre and the method of laying up the rope, but also on the kind of weather when the rope is used, the blocks or sheaves through which it is run, and the strain in proportion to the strain put upon the rope. The principal wear comes in practice from defective or badly set sheaves, from excess of load and exposure to storms.

Loads put upon the rope should not exceed those given in the tables, and the loss of economical wear. The indications of excessive load will be the stretching out of the rope, or one of the strands slipping out of its proper position.

A certain amount of twist comes out in using it the first day or two, and after that the rope should remain substantially the same. If it is used in a load that is too great for the durability of the rope. If the rope is used on the outside, and is good on the inside, it shows that it has been running over the pulleys or sheaves. If the blocks are very small, they increase the sliding of the strands and threads, and result in a more rapid wear. Rope made for hoisting and for rope transmission is made with four strands, as experience has shown this to be the most durable.

The length and weight of "stevedore" rope is estimated as follows:

Breaking strength in pounds = $730 (\text{circumference in inches})^2$;
Weight in pounds per foot = $.032 (\text{circumference in inches})^2$.

Technical Words relating to Cordage most frequently used:

F—Fibres twisted together.

F—Two or more *small yarns* twisted together.

F—The same as a thread but a little larger *yarns*.

F—Two or more *large yarns* twisted together.

S—Several threads twisted together.

S—Several *strands* twisted together.

S—A rope of three *strands*.

S—A rope of four *strands*.

L—Three hawsers twisted together.

L—are laid up left-handed into *strands*.

R—are laid up right-handed into rope.

C—are laid up left-handed into a cable.

T—By twisting strands together in making the rope.

J—By joining to another rope by interweaving the strands.

W—By winding a string around the end to prevent untwisting.

C—When covered by winding a yarn continuously and tightly.

C—By wrapping with canvas.

B—When two parts are bound together by a yarn, thread or string.

P—When painted, tarred or greased to resist wet.

T—To pull on a rope.

D—Drawn tight or strained.

Splicing of Ropes.—The splice in a transmission rope is not only the part of the rope but is the first part to fail when the rope is worn. If the rope is larger at the splice, the projecting part will wear on the end and the rope fail from the cutting off of the strands. The following engravings are given for splicing a 4-strand rope.

The engravings show each successive operation in splicing a rope. Each engraving was made from a full-size specimen.

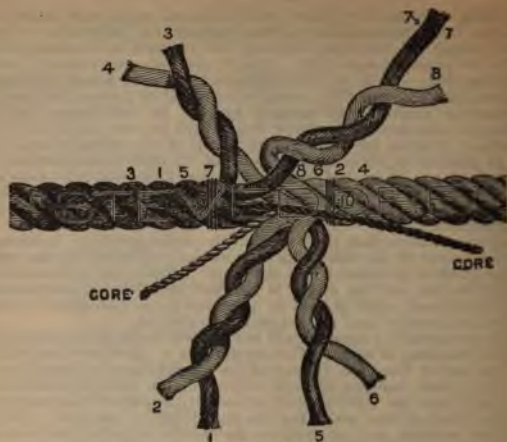


FIG. 78.



FIG. 79.



FIG. 80.

FIG. 81.
SPlicing OF ROPES.

of twine, 9 and 10, around the rope to be spliced, about 6 feet
 1. Then unlay the strands of each end back to the twine.
 2. Press together and twist each corresponding pair of strands
 3. Press them from being tangled, as shown in Fig. 78.
 4. 9 is now cut, and the strand 8 unlaied and strand 7 carefully laid
 5. a distance of four and a half feet from the junction.
 6. 8 is next unlaied about one and a half feet and strand 5 laid in

the cores are now cut off so they just meet.
 7. d 1 four and a half feet, laying strand 2 in its place.
 8. d 3 one and a half feet, laying in strand 4.
 9. strands off to a length of about twenty inches, for convenience
 on.

10. w assumes the form shown in Fig. 79 with the meeting points
 11. three feet apart.

12. f strands is successively subjected to the following operation:
 13. point of meeting of the strands 8 and 7, unlay each one three
 14. 9th the strand 8 and the strand 7 in halves as far back as they
 15. id and "whip" the end of each half strand with a small

the strand 7 is now laid in three turns and the half of 8 also
 turns. The half strands now meet and are tied in a simple
 20, making the rope at this point its original size.

21. now opened with a marlin spike and the half strand of 7
 22. d the half strand of 8 by passing the end of the half strand 7
 23. pe, as shown in the engraving, drawn taut and again worked
 24. alf strand until it reaches the half strand 13 that was not laid
 25. strand 13 is now split, and the half strand 7 drawn through
 26. us made, and then tucked under the two adjacent strands, as
 27. 81. The other half of the strand 8 is now wound around the
 28. nd 7 in the same manner. After each pair of strands has
 29. in this manner, the ends are cut off at 12, leaving them about
 30. g. After a few days' wear they will draw into the body of the
 31. ft, so that the locality of the splice can scarcely be detected.

Hoisting. (C. W. Hunt Co.)—The amount of coal that can be
 1. rope varies greatly. Under the ordinary conditions of use
 2. from 5000 to 8000 tons. Where the circumstances are more
 3. amounts run up frequently to 12,000 or 15,000 tons, occasion-
 4. nd in one case 32,400 tons to a single fall.

5. Hoisting rope is first put in use, it is likely from the strain put upon
 6. when the block is loosened from the tub. This occurs in the
 7. two only. The rope should then be taken down and the
 8. g out of the rope. When put up again the rope should give
 9. able until worn out.

10. ry that the rope should be much larger than is needed to bear
 the load.

11. experience for many years has substantially settled the most
 12. ie of rope to be used which is given in the table below.

13. es are not spliced, as it is difficult to make a splice that will
 14. hile running over the sheaves, and the increased wear to be
 15. is way is very small.

16. ily hoisted with what is commonly called a "double whip;"
 17. running block that is attached to the tub which reduces the
 18. rope to approximately one half the weight of the load hoisted.
 19. table gives the usual sizes of hoisting-rope and the proper

Stevedore Hoisting-rope.

C. W. Hunt Co.

e of ns.	Proper Working Strain on the Rope in lbs.	Nominal size of Coal tubs. Double whip.		Approximate Weight of a Coil, in lbs.
	350	1/6 to 1/5 tons.		350
	500	1/5 " 3/4 "		480
	650	3/4 " 1/2 "		650
	800	1/2 " 3/4 "		800
	1000	3/4 " 1 "		1000

is ordered by circumference, transmission

ACT.

Weight and Strength of Manila Cordage.
Dodge Manufacturing Co.

Size, Diameter in inches.	Weight of 100 Fathoms Manila in lbs.	Strain Borne by New Rope pounds.	Feet in a pound.	Size, Diameter in inches.	Weight of 100 Fathoms Manila in lbs.	Strain Borne by New Rope pounds.
3/16	12	540	50'	1 5/16	310	16,000
1/4	18	780	33' 4"	1 9/16	346	18,062
5/16	24	1,060	25	1 13/16	390	20,250
3/8	30	1,380	20	1 7/8	435	22,500
7/16	37	1,562	17 8	1 15/16	480	25,000
1/2	46	2,250	13	1 3/4	581	30,250
9/16	65	3,082	9 3	2	678	36,000
5/8	80	4,000	7 6	2 1/8	797	42,250
3/4	98	5,000	6	2 1/4	920	49,000
13/16	120	6,250	5	2 3/8	1,106	56,250
7/8	142	7,500	4 3	2 1/2	1,265	64,000
1	170	9,000	3 6	2 3/4	1,420	72,250
1 1/16	200	10,500	3	3	1,572	81,000
1 1/8	230	12,250	2 7	3 1/4	1,700	90,250
1 1/4	271	14,000	2 3	3 3/8	1,951	100,000

T. Spencer Miller (*Eng'g News*, Dec. 6, 1890) gives the following table breaking strength of manila rope, which he considers more reliable than the strength computed by Mr. Hunt's formula. Breaking strength = (circumference in inches)³. Mr. Miller's formula is: Breaking weight = circumference² × a coefficient which varies from 900 for 1/2" to 700 for diameter rope, as shown in the table.

Diam. in.	Circumference in.	Ultimate Strength lbs.	Coefficient.	Diam. in.	Circumference in.	Ultimate Strength lbs.	Coefficient.
1/2	1 1/2	2,000	900	1 1/4	3 1/4	10,000	700
3/8	2	3,250	845	1 3/8	4 1/4	13,000	700
3/4	2 1/4	4,000	820	1 1/2	4 1/2	15,000	700
7/8	2 3/4	6,000	790	1 5/8	5	18,200	700
1	3	7,000	780	1 3/4	5 1/2	21,750	700
1 1/8	3 1/2	9,350	765	2	6	25,000	700

For rope-driving Mr. Hunt recommends that the working strain should not exceed 1/20 of the ultimate breaking strain. For further data on this see "Rope-driving."

Knots.—A great number of knots have been devised of which only a few are illustrated, but those selected are the most frequently used. The cuts, Fig. 82, they are shown open, or before being drawn taut, in order to show the position of the parts. The names usually given to them are:

- | | |
|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| A. Bight of a rope. | P. Flemish loop. |
| B. Simple or Overhand knot. | Q. Chain knot with toggle. |
| C. Figure 8 knot. | R. Half-hitch. |
| D. Double knot. | S. Timber-hitch. |
| E. Boat knot. | T. Clove hitch. |
| F. Bowline, first step. | U. Rolling-hitch. |
| G. Bowline, second step. | V. Timber-hitch and half-hitch. |
| H. Bowline completed. | W. Blackwall-hitch. |
| I. Square or reef knot. | X. Fisherman's bend. |
| J. Sheet bend or weaver's knot. | Y. Round turn and half-hitch. |
| K. Sheet bend with a toggle. | Z. Wall knot commenced. |
| L. Carrick bend. | A A. " " completed. |
| M. Stevedore knot completed. | B B. Wall knot crown commenced. |
| N. Stevedore knot commenced. | C C. " " " completed. |
| O. Slip knot. | |

To Splice a Wire Rope.—The tools required will be a small spike, nipping cutters, and either clamps or a small hemp-rope which to wrap around and untwist the rope. If a bench-vise is it will be found convenient.

In splicing rope, a certain length is used up in making the allowance of not less than 16 feet for $\frac{1}{2}$ inch rope, and proportionally longer for larger sizes, must be added to the length of an endless ordering.

Having measured, carefully, the length the rope should be allowed, and marked the points *M* and *M'*, Fig. 83, unlay the strands from end *E* and *E'* to *M* and *M'* and cut off the centre at *M* and *M'*, and (1), Interlock the six unlayed strands of each end alternately together so that the points *M* and *M'* meet, as in Fig. 84.

(2), Unlay a strand from one end, and following the unlay closely the seam or groove it opens, the strand opposite it belong to the end of the rope, until within a length equal to three or four times the thickness of one lay of the rope, and cut the other strand to about the same length from the point of meeting as at *A*, Fig. 85.

(3), Unlay the adjacent strand in the opposite direction, and follow unlay closely, lay in its place the corresponding opposite strand, cut the ends as described before at *B*, Fig. 85.

There are now four strands laid in place terminating at *A* and *B* and eight remaining at *M M'*, as in Fig. 85.

It will be well after laying each pair of strands to tie them temporarily at the points *A* and *B*.

Pursue the same course with the remaining four pairs of opposite

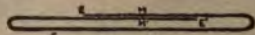


FIG. 83.

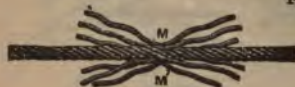


FIG. 84.



FIG. 85.

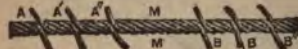


FIG. 86.



FIG. 87.

SPlicing WIRE ROPE.

stopping each pair about eight or ten turns of the rope short of the end, and cutting the ends as before.

We now have all the strands laid in their proper places with the ends passing each other, as in Fig. 86.

All methods of rope-splicing are identical to this point; their variations consist in the method of tucking the ends. The one given below is most generally practiced.

Clamp the rope either in a vise at a point to the left of *A*, Fig. 86, with a hand-clamp applied near *A*, open up the rope by untwisting sufficiently at the core at *A*, and seizing it with the nippers, let an assistant draw out slowly, you following it closely, crowding the strand in its place as it is all laid in. Cut the core where the strand ends, and push the strand into its place. Remove the clamps and let the rope close together. Draw out the core in the opposite direction and lay the other strand in the centre of the rope, in the same manner. Repeat the operation with the remaining points, and hammer the rope lightly at the points where the strands pass each other at *A, A, B, B*, etc., with small wooden mallets until the splice is complete, as shown in Fig. 87.

If a clamp and vise are not obtainable, two rope slings and shears may be used to untwist and open up the rope.

A rope spliced as above will be nearly as strong as the original rope everywhere. After running a few days, the splice, if weak, cannot be found except by close examination.

The above instructions have been adopted by the leading rope makers.

SPRINGS.

Definitions.—A spiral spring is one which is wound around a fixed point or centre, and continually receding from it like a watch spring. A coil spring is one which is wound around an arbor, and at the same time resembling like the thread of a screw. An elliptical or laminated spring is one of flat bars, plates, or "leaves," of regularly varying lengths, superimposed one upon the other.

Laminated Steel Springs.—Clark (Rules, Tables and Data) gives the following from his work on *Railway Machinery*, 1855:

$$\Delta = \frac{1.66L^3}{bt^3n}; \quad s = \frac{bt^2n}{11.3L}; \quad n = \frac{1.66L^3}{\Delta bt^3};$$

Δ = elasticity, or deflection, in sixteenths of an inch per ton of load,

s = working strength, or load, in tons (2240 lbs.),

L = span, when loaded, in inches,

b = breadth of plates, in inches, taken as uniform,

t = thickness of plates, in sixteenths of an inch,

n = number of plates.

NOTE.—The span and the elasticity are those due to the spring when straight.

When extra thick back and short plates are used, they must be replaced by an equivalent number of plates of the ruling thickness, prior to the employment of the first two formulæ. This is found by multiplying the number of extra thick plates by the cube of their thickness, and dividing by the cube of the ruling thickness. Conversely, the number of plates of the ruling thickness given by the third formula, required to be deducted and replaced by a given number of extra thick plates, are found by the same calculation.

It is assumed that the plates are similarly and regularly formed, and that they are of uniform breadth, and but slightly taper at the ends.

Reuleaux's Constructor gives for semi-elliptic springs:

$$P = \frac{Snbh^2}{6l} \quad \text{and} \quad f = \frac{6Pl^3}{Enbh^3};$$

S = max. direct fibre-strain in plate;

b = width of plates;

n = number of plates in spring;

h = thickness of plates;

l = one half length of spring;

f = deflection of end of spring;

P = load on one end of spring;

E = modulus of direct elasticity.

The above formula for deflection can be relied upon where all the plates of the spring are regularly shortened; but in semi-elliptic springs, as used, there are generally several plates extending the full length of the spring, the proportion of these long plates to the whole number is usually about

one-fourth. In such cases $f = \frac{5.5Pl^3}{Enbh^3}$. (G. R. Henderson, Trans. A. S. M. E.,

xvi.)

In order to compare the formulæ of Reuleaux and Clark we may make the following substitutions in the latter: s in tons = P in lbs. ÷ 1120; $\Delta s = L = 2l$; $t = 16h$; then

$$\Delta s = 16f = \frac{1.66 \times 8l^3 \times P}{4006 \times 1120 \times 16bh^3}, \quad \text{whence} \quad f = \frac{Pl^3}{5,527,133}.$$

which corresponds with Reuleaux's formula for deflection if in the latter we take $E = 33,162,800$.

$$s = \frac{P}{1120} = \frac{256nbh^2}{11.3 \times 2l}, \quad \text{whence} \quad P = \frac{12,687nbh^2}{l},$$

which corresponds with Reuleaux's formula for working load when S in the latter is taken at 70,120.

The value of E is usually taken at 30,000,000 and S at 80,000, in which case Reuleaux's formulæ become

$$P = \frac{13,333nbh^2}{l} \quad \text{and} \quad f = \frac{Pl^3}{5,000,000nbh^3}.$$

Helical Steel Springs.—Clark quotes the following from the report of the Safety Valves (Trans. Inst. Engrs. and Shipbuilders in Scotland, 1854):

$$E = \frac{d^3 \times w}{D^4 \times C}.$$

E = compression or extension of one coil in inches,
 d = diameter from centre to centre of steel bar constituting the spring in inches,
 w = weight applied, in pounds,
 D = diameter, or side of the square, of the steel bar, in sixteenths of an inch,
 C = a constant, which may be taken as 22 for round steel and 24 for square steel.

NOTE.—The deflection E for one coil is to be multiplied by the number of coils, to obtain the total deflection for a given spring.

The relation between the safe load, size of steel, and diameter of coil, to be taken for practical purposes as follows:

$$D = \sqrt[3]{\frac{wd}{3}}, \text{ for round steel;}$$

$$D = \sqrt[3]{\frac{wd}{4.29}}, \text{ for square steel.}$$

Rankine's Machinery and Millwork, p. 390, gives the following:

$$\frac{W}{v} = \frac{cd^4}{64nr^3}; \quad W_1 = \frac{.196fd^3}{r}; \quad v_1 = \frac{12.566nf^2}{cd};$$

$$\frac{W_1}{2} = \text{greatest safe sudden load.}$$

In which d is the diameter of wire in inches; c a coefficient of transverse elasticity of wire, say 10,500,000 to 12,000,000 for charcoal iron wire and 12,000,000 for steel wire; r radius to centre of wire in coil; n effective number of coils; f greatest shearing stress, say 30,000; W any load not exceeding greatest safe load; v corresponding extension or compression; W_1 greatest safe load; v_1 greatest safe steady extension or compression.

If the wire is square, of the dimensions $d \times d$, the load for a given deflection is greater than for a round wire of the diameter d in the ratio of 1.96 or of 1.43 to 1, or of 10 to 7, nearly.

Wilson Hartnell (Proc. Inst. M. E., 1882, p. 426), says: The size of a spring may be calculated from the formula on page 304 of "Rankine's Practical Rules and Tables"; but the experience with Salter's springs has shown that the safe limit of stress is more than twice as great as there is in the formula, namely 60,000 to 70,000 lbs. per square inch of section with $\frac{3}{8}$ inch wire and 50,000 with $\frac{1}{2}$ inch wire. Hence the work that can be done by springs of wire is four or five times as great as Rankine allows.

For $\frac{3}{8}$ inch wire and under,

$$\text{Maximum load in lbs.} = \frac{12,000 \times (\text{diam. of wire})^3}{\text{Mean radius of springs}};$$

$$\text{Weight in lbs. to deflect spring 1 in.} = \frac{180,000 \times (\text{diam.})^4}{\text{Number of coils} \times (\text{rad.})^3}.$$

The work in foot-pounds that can be stored up in a spiral spring to lift it above 50 ft.

In a few rough experiments made with Salter's springs the coefficient of rigidity was noticed to be 12,600,000 to 13,700,000 with $\frac{1}{4}$ inch wire; 11,400,000 for $\frac{11}{32}$ inch; and 10,600,000 to 10,900,000 for $\frac{3}{8}$ inch wire.

Helical Springs.—J. Begtrup, in the *American Machinist* of 18, 1892, gives formulas for the deflection and carrying capacity of springs of round and square steel, as follows:

$$\left. \begin{aligned} W &= .3927 \frac{Sd^3}{D-d} \\ F &= 8 \frac{P(D-d)^3}{Ed^4} \end{aligned} \right\} \text{ for round steel,}$$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} W &= .471 \frac{Sd^3}{D-d} \\ F &= 4.712 \frac{P(D-d)^3}{Ed^4} \end{aligned} \right\} \text{ for square steel.}$$

W = carrying capacity in pounds,
 S = greatest tensile stress per square inch of material,
 d = diameter of steel,
 D = outside diameter of coil,
 F = deflection of one coil,
 E = torsional modulus of elasticity,
 P = load in pounds.

These formulas the following table has been calculated by Mr. Begg. A spring being made of an elastic material, and of such shape as to permit a great amount of deflection, will not be affected by sudden shocks or blows to the same extent as a rigid body, and a factor of safety very much in excess of that for rigid constructions may be used.

HOW TO USE THE TABLE.

In designing a spring for continuous work, as a car spring, use a factor of safety than in the table; for intermittent working, as in a steam engine governor or safety valve, use figures given in table; for steel multiply line W by 1.2 and line F by .59.

Example 1.—How much will a spring of $\frac{3}{8}$ " round steel and 3" outside diameter carry with safety? In the line headed D we find 3, and right under it 473, which is the weight it will carry with safety. How many coils will this spring have so as to deflect 3" with a load of 400 pounds? Assuming a modulus of elasticity of 12 millions we find in the centre line headed F figure .0610; this is deflection of one coil for a load of 100 pounds; therefore $.061 \times 4 = .244$ " is deflection of one coil for 400 pounds load, and $3 \div .244 = 12\frac{1}{2}$ is the number of coils wanted. This spring will therefore be 12½ coils when closed, counting working coils only, and stretch to 7¾".

Example 2.—A spring 3¼" outside diameter of 7/16" steel is wound close; how far can it be extended without exceeding the limit of safety? We find in the table a maximum safe load for this spring to be 702 pounds, and deflection of one coil for 100 pounds load .0405 inches; therefore $7.02 \times .0405 = .284$ " is the admissible opening between coils. We may thus, without knowledge of the modulus of elasticity, ascertain whether a spring is overloaded or not.

Carrying Capacity and Deflection of Helical Springs of Round Steel.

Diameter of steel. D = outside diameter of coil. W = safe working load in pounds—tensile stress not exceeding 60,000 pounds per square inch. F = deflection by a load of 100 pounds of one coil, and a modulus of elasticity of 12 and 14 millions respectively. The ultimate carrying capacity is about twice the safe load.

.35	.50	.75	1.00	1.25	1.50	1.75	2.00		
35	15	9	7	5	4.5	3.8	3.3		
.0276	.3588	1.433	3.562	7.250	12.88	30.85	31.57		
.0236	.3075	1.228	3.053	6.214	11.04	17.87	27.06		
.0197	.2562	1.023	2.544	5.178	9.200	14.89	22.55		
.50	.75	1.00	1.25	1.50	1.75	2.00	2.25	2.50	
107	65	46	36	29	25	22	19	17	
.0206	.0937	.2556	.5412	.9856	1.624	2.492	3.625	5.056	
.0176	.0804	.2191	.4639	.8448	1.392	2.136	3.107	4.334	
.0147	.0670	.182	.3866	.7010	1.160	1.780	2.589	3.612	
.75	1.00	1.25	1.50	1.75	2.00	2.25	2.50	2.75	3.00
241	167	128	104	88	75	66	59	53	49
.0137	.0408	.0907	.1703	.2866	.4466	.6571	.9249	1.256	1.660
.0118	.0350	.0778	.1460	.2457	.3828	.5632	.7928	1.077	1.423
.0098	.0292	.0648	.1217	.2048	.3190	.4693	.6607	.8975	1.186
1.25	1.50	1.75	2.00	2.25	2.50	2.75	3.00	3.25	3.50
368	291	245	210	184	164	147	134	123	113
.0109	.0389	.0872	.1667	.2793	.4270	.6109	.8430	1.126	1.462
.0111	.0338	.0776	.0914	.1365	.1944	.2665	.3548	.4601	.5826
.0142	.0276	.0480	.0762	.1137	.1610	.2221	.2957	.3829	.4839

Carrying Capacity and Deflection of Helical Springs of Round Steel.—(Continued).

$d = 5/16''$	D	1.50	1.75	2.00	2.25	2.50	2.75	3.00	3.25	3.50
	W	605	500	426	371	329	295	267	245	226
	F	.0136	.0242	.0392	.0593	.0854	.1187	.1583	.2066	.2640
$d = 3/8''$	D	2.00	2.25	2.50	2.75	3.00	3.25	3.50	3.75	4.00
	W	765	663	589	533	473	433	398	368	343
	F	.0169	.0259	.0377	.0528	.0711	.0935	1.200	.1513	.1874
$d = 7/16''$	D	2.00	2.25	2.50	2.75	3.00	3.25	3.50	3.75	4.00
	W	1263	1089	957	853	770	702	644	596	544
	F	.0081	.0126	.0186	.0262	.0357	.0472	.0617	.0772	.0960
$d = 1/2''$	D	2.00	2.25	2.50	2.75	3.00	3.25	3.50	3.75	4.00
	W	1963	1683	1472	1309	1178	1071	982	906	841
	F	.0042	.0067	.0099	.0141	.0194	.0259	.0336	.0427	.0534
$d = 9/16''$	D	2.50	2.75	3.00	3.25	3.50	3.75	4.00	4.25	4.50
	W	2163	1916	1720	1560	1427	1315	1220	1137	1065
	F	.0056	.0081	.0112	.0151	.0197	.0252	.0316	.0390	.0474
$d = 5/8''$	D	2.50	2.75	3.00	3.25	3.50	3.75	4.00	4.25	4.50
	W	3068	2707	2422	2191	2001	1841	1704	1587	1484
	F	.0034	.0049	.0068	.0092	.0121	.0155	.0196	.0243	.0297
$d = 11/16''$	D	3.00	3.25	3.50	3.75	4.00	4.25	4.50	4.75	5.00
	W	3311	2988	2723	2500	2311	2151	2009	1885	1776
	F	.0043	.0058	.0077	.0100	.0127	.0157	.0193	.0233	.0279
$d = 3/4''$	D	3.00	3.25	3.50	3.75	4.00	4.25	4.50	4.75	5.00
	W	4418	3976	3615	3313	3058	2810	2651	2485	2330
	F	.0028	.0038	.0051	.0066	.0084	.0105	.0129	.0157	.0189
$d = 7/8''$	D	3.50	3.75	4.00	4.25	4.50	4.75	5.00	5.25	5.50
	W	6013	5490	5051	4676	4354	4073	3826	3607	3413
	F	.0021	.0027	.0035	.0045	.0055	.0067	.0081	.0097	.0115
$d = 1''$	D	3.50	3.75	4.00	4.25	4.50	4.75	5.00	5.25	5.50
	W	9425	8508	7854	7250	6732	6283	5890	5544	5236
	F	.0012	.0016	.0021	.0026	.0033	.0041	.0049	.0059	.0071

The formulæ for deflection or compression given by Clark, Haas, and Betrup, although very different in form, show a substantial agreement when the same form. Let d = diameter of wire in inches, n = number of coils, w the applied weight, E the modulus of elasticity, then

Compression or extension of one coil = $\frac{wD_1^3}{Cd^4}$;

ht in pounds to cause comp. or ext. of 1 in. = $\frac{Cd^4}{nD_1^3}$;

Efficient *C* reduced from Hartnell's formula is $8 \times 180,000 = 1,440,000$;
to Clark, $16^4 \times 22 = 1,441,792$, and according to Begtrup (using
for the torsional modulus of elasticity) = $12,000,000 \div 8 = 1,500,000$.

's formula for greatest safe extension, $v_1 = \frac{12.566nfr^2}{cd}$ may take

$v_1 = \frac{.7854nD_1^2}{100d}$ if we use 30,000 and 12,000,000 as the values for *f*
ectively.

eral formulæ for safe load given above may be thus compared,
= diameter of wire, and D_1 = mean diameter of coil, Rankine,
 $\frac{fd^3}{D_1^3}$; Clark, $W = \frac{3(d \times 16)^3}{D_1^3}$; Begtrup, $W = \frac{.3927Sd^3}{D_1^3}$; Hartnell,

$\frac{300d^3}{D_1^3}$. Substituting for *f* the value 30,000 given by Rankine, and for

as given by Begtrup, we have $W = 11,760 \frac{d^3}{D_1^3}$ Rankine; 12,288 $\frac{d^3}{D_1^3}$

562 $\frac{d^3}{D_1^3}$ Begtrup; 24,000 $\frac{d^3}{D_1^3}$ Hartnell.

from the Pennsylvania Railroad specifications the capacity when
the following springs, in which *d* = diameter of wire, *D* diameter
of coil, $D_1 = D - d$, *c* capacity, *H* height when free, and *h* height
ed, all in inches.

$d = \frac{3}{4}$	$D = 1\frac{1}{2}$	$D_1 = 1\frac{1}{4}$	<i>c</i> = 400	<i>H</i> = 9	<i>h</i> = 6
$\frac{2}{8}$	3	$2\frac{3}{8}$	1,900	8	5
$\frac{3}{4}$	$5\frac{1}{4}$	5	2,100	7	$4\frac{1}{4}$
1	5	4	8,100	$10\frac{1}{2}$	8
$1\frac{1}{4}$	8	$6\frac{3}{4}$	10,000	9	$5\frac{3}{4}$
$1\frac{3}{8}$	$4\frac{7}{8}$	$3\frac{3}{4}$	16,000	$4\frac{3}{8}$	$3\frac{3}{8}$

stituting the values of *c* in the formula $c = W = x \frac{d^3}{D_1^3}$ we find *x*, the

t of $\frac{d^3}{D_1^3}$ to be respectively 32,000; 38,000; 32,400; 24,888; 34,560;
verage 34,000.

12,000 as the coefficient of $\frac{d^3}{D_1^3}$ according to Rankine and Clark for
and 24,000 as the coefficient according to Begtrup and Hartnell,
for the safe load on these springs, as we take one or the other co-

	<i>T</i> .	<i>S</i> .	<i>K</i> .	<i>D</i> .	<i>L</i> .	<i>C</i> .
and Clark.....	150	600	1,012	3,000	2,750	5,400 lbs.
.....	300	1,200	2,024	6,000	7,500	10,800 "
when closed, as above	400	1,900	2,100	8,100	10,000	16,000 "

load (Trans. A. S. M. E., v. 173) gives the following:

$$P = \frac{8nd^3}{16R} \quad \text{and} \quad f = \frac{32PR^3l}{G\pi d^4};$$

- P* = load on spring;
- S* = maximum shearing fibre-strain in bar;
- d* = diameter of steel of which spring is made;
- R* = radius of centre of coil;
- l* = length of bar before coiling;
- G* = modulus of shearing elasticity;
- f* = deflection of spring under load.

nd takes *S* = 80,000 and *G* = 12,000,000.
ess in a helical spring is almost wholly one of torsion. For math
g the formulæ for springs from torsional formula see Mr. K
ove quoted.

ELLIPTICAL SPRINGS, SIZES, AND PROOF TEST
 Pennsylvania Railroad Specifications, 1889.

Class.	Length betw'n centres, in.	Width over all, inches.	Bands, inches.	Width of Plates, inches.	Tests.				
					To stand ins. High.	With Load of lbs.			
A, Triple.....	40	11 $\frac{3}{4}$	3	$\times \frac{3}{8}$	3	3 $\frac{3}{4}$ between bands.	4800		
						3 " " "	5500		
						2 " " "	A. p. t.*		
C, Quadruple..	40	15 $\frac{1}{2}$	3	$\times \frac{3}{8}$	3	3 $\frac{3}{4}$ " " "	6650		
						3 " " "	8000		
						2 " " "	A. p. t.*		
D, Triple....	36	11 $\frac{3}{4}$	3	$\times \frac{3}{8}$	3	4 " " "	6000		
						3 " " "	8000		
						5 bet. centre of eye and top of leaf.	When free		
E, Single.....	40	sin.	3	$\times \frac{3}{8}$	$3 \times 11 \frac{3}{32}$	3	2350		
F, Triple.....	35	11 $\frac{3}{4}$	3	$\times \frac{3}{8}$	$3 \times 11 \frac{3}{32}$	3 $\frac{3}{4}$ between bands.	11,800		
G, Double.	32	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	3	$\times \frac{3}{8}$	3	3 $\frac{3}{4}$ " " "	When free		
						3 " " "	8000		
						3 $\frac{1}{2}$ " " "	5400		
H, Double.....	35	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	3	$\times \frac{3}{8}$	4	3 $\frac{1}{2}$ " " "	6000		
						3 " " "			
K, { Double, {	22	10 $\frac{5}{8}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	$\times \frac{3}{8}$	4 $\frac{1}{4}$	$\times 11 \frac{3}{32}$	13/16	" " "	13,800
L, { Double, {	22	10 $\frac{5}{8}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	$\times \frac{3}{8}$	4 $\frac{1}{4}$	$\times 11 \frac{3}{32}$	13/16	" " "	15,600
M, Quadruple..	40	15 $\frac{1}{2}$	3	$\times \frac{3}{8}$	3	4 " " "	8000		
						3 " " "	10,000		
						2 " " "	A. p. L*		

* A. p. t., auxiliary plates touching.

PHOSPHOR-BRONZE SPRINGS.

Wilfred Lewis (Engineers' Club, Philadelphia, 1887) made some tests phosphor-bronze wire, .12 in. diameter, coiled in the form of a spiral spring $1\frac{1}{4}$ in. diameter from centre, making 52 coils.

This spring was loaded gradually up to a tension of 30 lbs., but as the wire was removed it became evident that a permanent set had taken place. Such a spring of steel, according to the practice of the P. R. R., might be used for 40 lbs. A weight of 21 lbs. was then suspended so as to allow small amount of vibration, and the length measured from day to day. After 24 hours the spring lengthened from 20 $\frac{3}{4}$ inches to 21 $\frac{1}{2}$ inches, and in 200 hours to 21 $\frac{3}{4}$ inches. It was concluded that 21 lbs. was too great for durability; that probably 10 lbs. was as much as could be depended upon with safety.

For a given load the extension of the bronze spring was just double that of a similar steel spring, that is, for the same extension the bronze spring is twice as strong.

SPRINGS TO RESIST TORSIONAL FORCE.

(Reuleaux's Constructor.)

Flat spiral or helical spring...	$P = \frac{S b h^2}{6 R}$;	$f = R\theta = 12 \frac{P l R^2}{E b h^3}$
Round helical spring	$P = \frac{S \pi d^3}{32 R}$;	$f = R\theta = \frac{64 P l R^2}{\pi E d^4}$
Round bar, in torsion.....	$P = \frac{S \pi d^3}{16 R}$;	$f = R\theta = \frac{32 P l R^2}{\pi G d^4}$
Flat bar, in torsion.....	$P = \frac{S}{3R} \frac{b^2 h^2}{4b^2 + h^2}$;	$f = R\theta = \frac{3 P l R^2 h^2}{G (4b^2 + h^2)}$

P = force applied at end of radius or lever-arm R ; θ = angular motion at end of radius R ; S = permissible maximum stress, = $\frac{4}{5}$ of permissible stress in flexure; E = modulus of elasticity in tension; G = torsional modulus = $\frac{2}{3} E$; l = developed length of spiral, or length of bar; d = diameter of wire; b = breadth of flat bar; h = thickness.

Model	Bar.			Spring			Capacity, partly closed, lbs. at height.
	Diameter, inches.	Length, inches.	Length after tapering, inches.	Weight, lbs.	Diam. outside of coil, inches.	Free, inches.	
N	9/64	57 3/4	7,32	1	5 3/4	180
E	11/64	25 3/4	2 3/4	1 1/2	240
T	11/64	75	7,16	1	8	270
A	1/4	94 3/4	1 8/16	1 1/2	9	400
S	1/4	45 3/4	9,16	1 1/4	8	400
Z	1/4	78 3/4	4 1/2	3	5 1/2	500
L	1/4	88 3/4	10 5/8	5 3/4	8	1,900
J	1/4	85	16	6	8	2,100
I	1/4	100 3/4	21 1/2	8	8 1/2	6,000
D	1/4	97 1/2	32 1/2	8	10 3/4	7,500
I	1/4	58 3/4	33 1/2	8	9	8,100
N	5/8	55	16 1/2	1 1/2	5 3/4	10,000
H	1 5/16	95	35 1/2	1 3/8	9	10,000
O	1 1/2	62	30 3/4	1 1/2	8 1/2	11,000
H	1 5/8	62	30 3/4	1 1/2	8 1/2	13,000
O	1 5/8	96	51	1 1/2	9	14,000
Q	1 1/2	99 3/4	48 1/2	1 1/2	9	16,000
C	1 1/2	85 3/4	9 1/2	1 1/2	8 1/2	16,000
L	1 1/2	87	50 1/2	1 1/2	8	16,000
L	1 1/2	85	49	1 1/2	8	16,000
X	1 1/2	75 1/4	35	1 1/2	8	19,000
X	1 1/2	72 3/4	34	1 1/2	8	19,000
Y	1 1/2	56 3/4	25 1/2	1 1/2	8	19,000
Y	1 1/2	54 1/4	25 1/2	1 1/2	8	19,000
Y	1 1/2	54 1/4	25 1/2	1 1/2	8	19,000
B	1 1/2	46	34 1/2	1 1/2	8 1/2	19,000
U	1 1/2	55	42	1 1/2	8 1/2	28,000
U	1 1/2	51 3/4	50	1 1/2	8 1/2	28,000
V	1 1/2	72 3/4	73	1 1/2	8 1/2	42,000
V	1 1/2	40 3/4	71	1 1/2	8 1/2	42,000
V	1 1/2	61	59	1 1/2	8 1/2	42,000

Springs N, O, Q, V, X, and Y are made of two coils, one inside of the other.
 Springs B, U, V, and W are made of four equal coils placed near together and joined by top and bottom cap-pieces.

RIVETED JOINTS.

Fairbairn's Experiments. (From Report of Committee on Riveted Joints, *Proc. Inst. M. E.*, April, 1881.)

The earliest published experiments on riveted joints are contained in a memoir by Sir W. Fairbairn in the Transactions of the Royal Society. In making certain empirical allowances, he adopted the following ratios as representing the relative strength of riveted joints:

Solid plate.....	100
Double-riveted joint.....	70
Single-riveted joint.....	56

These well-known ratios are quoted in most treatises on riveting, and are still sometimes referred to as having a considerable authority. It is significant, however, that Sir W. Fairbairn does not appear to have been aware of the fact that the proportion of metal punched out in the line of fracture ought to be different in properly designed double and single riveted joints. These celebrated ratios would therefore appear to rest on a very unsatisfactory analysis of the experiments on which they were based.

Loss of Strength in Punched Plates.—A report by Mr. Parker and Mr. John, made in 1873 to Lloyd's Committee, on the effect of punching and drilling, showed that thin steel plates lost comparatively little strength from punching, but that in thick plates the loss was very considerable. The following table gives the results for plates punched and not annealed or reamed:

Thickness of Plates,	Material of Plates,	Loss of Tenacity, per cent.
$\frac{1}{4}$	Steel	8
$\frac{3}{8}$	"	18
$\frac{1}{2}$	"	26
$\frac{3}{4}$	"	33
$\frac{7}{8}$	Iron	18 to 23

The effect of increasing the size of the hole in the die-block is shown in the following table:

Total Taper of Hole in Plate, inches.	Material of Plates.	Loss of Tenacity due to Punching, per cent.
1-16	Steel	17.8
$\frac{1}{8}$	"	12.3
$\frac{1}{4}$	"	(Hole ragged) 24.5

The plates were from 0.675 to 0.712 inch thick. When $\frac{1}{8}$ -in. punches were reamed out to $\frac{1}{4}$ in. diameter, the loss of tenacity disappeared, and the plates carried as high a stress as drilled plates. Annealing also increased the strength of plates riveted to their original tenacity.

Strength of Perforated Plates.

(P. D. Bennett, *Eng'g*, Feb. 12, 1886, p. 155.)

Tests were made to determine the relative effect produced upon the strength of a flat bar of iron or steel: 1. By a $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch hole drilled to the required size; 2, by a hole punched $\frac{1}{8}$ inch smaller and then drilled to the size of the first hole; and, 3, by a hole punched in the bar to the size of the drilled bar. The relative results in strength per square inch of original section were as follows:

	1.	2.	3.
	Iron.	Iron.	Steel.
Unperforated bar.....	1.000	1.000	1.000
Perforated by drilling.....	1.029	1.012	1.068
" " punching and drilling.....	1.030	1.008	1.059
" " punching only.....	0.795	0.894	0.935

In tests 2 and 4 the holes were filled with rivets driven by hydraulic pressure. The strength per square inch caused by drilling is equal to that of the increased strength of a groove of sectional area equal to the smallest section. Bennett's tests on an iron bar 0.84 in. diameter

g, and a similar bar turned to 0.84 in. diameter at one point only, showed that the relative strength of the latter to the former was 1.323 to 1.000.

Riveted Joints.—Drilling versus Punching of Holes.

The Report of the Research Committee of the Institution of Mechanical Engineers, on Riveted Joints (1881), and records of investigations by Prof. B. W. Kennedy (1881, 1882, and 1885), summarize the existing information regarding the comparative effects of punching and drilling upon iron and steel plates. From an examination of the voluminous tables given in Professor Unwin's Report, the results of the greatest number of the experiments made on iron and steel plates lead to the general conclusion that, in thin plates, even of steel, do not suffer very much from punching, yet those of $\frac{1}{8}$ -inch thickness and upwards the loss of tenacity due to punching ranges from 10% to 23% in iron plates, and from 11% to 33% in the case of steel. In drilled plates there is no appreciable loss of strength. It is possible to remove the bad effects of punching by subsequent reaming or reaming; but the speed at which work is turned out in these days is not amenable to multiplied operations, and such additional treatment is seldom practised. The introduction of a practicable method of drilling the plating ships and other structures, after it has been bent and shaped, is a matter of great importance. If even a portion of the deterioration of tenacity can be prevented, a much stronger structure results from the same material and same scantling. This has been fully recognized in the modern English practice (1887) of the construction of steam-boilers with steel plates; punching in such cases being almost entirely abolished, and all rivet-holes being drilled after the plates have been bent to the desired form.

Comparative Efficiency of Riveting done by Different Methods.

The Reports of Professors Unwin and Kennedy to the Institution of Mechanical Engineers (*Proc.* 1881, 1882, and 1885) tend to establish the four following points:

That the shearing resistance of rivets is not highest in joints riveted by hand, but that the ultimate strength of joints is not affected to an appreciable extent by the mode of riveting; and, therefore,

That very great pressure upon the rivets in riveting is not the indispensable requirement that it has been sometimes supposed to be;

That the most serious defect of hand-riveted as compared with machine-riveted work consists in the fact that in hand-riveted joints visible slip sometimes at a comparatively small load, thus giving such joints a low resistance as regards tightness, and possibly also rendering them liable to failure under sudden strains after slip has once commenced.

The following figures of mean results, taken from Prof. Kennedy's tables (*Proceedings* 1885, pp. 218-225), give a comparative view of hand and hydraulic riveting, as regards their ultimate strengths in joints, and the periods at which in both cases visible slip commenced.

Total Breaking Load.		Load at which Visible Slip began.	
Hand-riveting.	Hydraulic Riveting.	Hand-riveting.	Hydraulic Riveting.
Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
86.01	85.75	21.7	47.5
.....	77.00	35.0
82.16	82.70	25.0	53.7
.....	78.58	54.0
149.2	145.5	31.7	49.7
.....	140.2	46.7
193.6	183.1	25.0	56.0
.....	183.7

As these figures hand-riveting appears to be rather better than hydraulic riveting, as far as regards ultimate strength of joint; but is very much inferior to hydraulic work, in view of the small proportion of load borne before visible slip commenced.

Some of the Conclusions of the Committee of Report on Riveted Joints.

(*Proc. Inst. M. E., Apl. 1885.*)

The conclusions all refer to joints made in soft steel plate rivets, the holes all drilled, and the plates in their natural state (unless in every case the rivet or shearing area has been assumed to be the holes, not the nominal (or real) area of the rivets themselves. The strength of the metal in the joint has been compared with that cut from the same plates, and not merely with nominally similar metal.

The metal between the rivet-holes has a considerably greater resistance per square inch than the unperforated metal. This excess amounted to more than 20%, both in $\frac{5}{8}$ -inch and $\frac{3}{4}$ -inch plates, the pitch of the rivet was about 1.9 diameters. In other cases $\frac{3}{4}$ -inch plates an excess of 15% at fracture with a pitch of 2 diameters, of 10% with 3.6 diameters, and of 6.5%, with a pitch of 3.9 diameters; and $\frac{3}{4}$ -inch plates gave 7.8% excess with a pitch of 2.8 diameters.

In single-riveted joints it may be taken that about 22 tons per square inch is the shearing resistance of rivet steel, when the pressure on the rivet does not exceed about 40 tons per square inch. In double-riveted joints rivets of about $\frac{3}{4}$ inch diameter, most of the experiments gave about 22 tons per square inch as the shearing resistance, but the joints in one case failed at 23 tons.

The ratio of shearing resistance to tenacity is not constant, but varies very markedly and not very irregularly as the tenacity increases.

The size of the rivet heads and ends plays a most important part in the strength of the joints—at any rate in the case of single-riveted joints. An increase of about one third in the weight of the rivets (all this in the course, going to the heads and ends) was found to add about 8% to the resistance of the joint, the plates remaining unbroken at the full resistance of 22 tons per square inch, instead of tearing at a shearing resistance of only a little over 20 tons. The additional strength is probably due to the prevention of the distortion of the plates by the great tensile strain on the rivets.

The intensity of bearing pressure on the rivet exercises, with joints as mentioned in the ordinary way, a very important influence on their strength. So long as it does not exceed 40 tons per square inch (measured on the projected area of the rivets), it does not seem to affect their strength; but pressures of 50 to 55 tons per square inch seem to cause the rivets to fail in most cases at stresses varying from 16 to 18 tons per square inch. In ordinary joints, which are to be made equally strong in plate and rivet, the bearing pressure should therefore probably not exceed 42 or 43 tons per square inch. For double-riveted butt-joints perhaps, as will be seen, a higher pressure may be allowed, as the shearing stress may probably be more than 16 or 18 tons per square inch when the plate tears.

A margin (or net distance from outside of holes to edge of plate) equal to the diameter of the drilled hole has been found sufficient in all cases hitherto.

To attain the maximum strength of a joint, the breadth of the plates should be such as to prevent it from breaking zigzag. It has been found that the metal measured zigzag should be from 30% to 35% in excess of that measured straight across, in order to insure a straight fracture. This corresponds to a diagonal pitch of $\frac{2}{3}p + d/3$, if p be the straight pitch and d the diameter of the rivet-hole.

Visible slip or "give" occurs always in a riveted joint at a load much below its breaking load, and by no means proportional to the load. A collation of the results obtained in measuring the slip indicates that it depends upon the number and size of the rivets in the joint, rather than upon anything else; and that it is tolerably constant for a given size of rivet and given type of joint. The loads per rivet at which a joint will come to slip visibly are approximately as follows:

Diameter of Rivet.	Type of Joint,	Riveting.	Slipping Load per Rivet.
$\frac{3}{4}$ inch	Single-riveted	Hand	2.5 tons
$\frac{3}{4}$ inch	Double-riveted	Hand	3.0 to 3.5 tons
$\frac{3}{4}$ inch	Double-riveted	Machine	7 tons
$\frac{1}{2}$ inch	Single-riveted	Hand	2.2 tons
$\frac{1}{2}$ inch	Double-riveted	Hand	4.5 tons
$\frac{1}{2}$ inch	Double-riveted	Machine	8 to 10 tons

If the probable load at which a joint of any breadth will commence multiply the number of rivets in the given breadth by the proper ken from the last column of the table above. It will be understood above figures are not given as exact; but they represent very well its of the experiments.

periments point to simple rules for the proportioning of joints of in strength. Assuming that a bearing pressure of 43 tons per square y be allowed on the rivet, and that the excess tenacity of the plate its original strength, the following table gives the values of the ratio ter d of hole to thickness t of plate ($d + t$), and of pitch p to diam- ole ($p + d$) in joints of maximum strength in $\frac{3}{8}$ -inch plate.

For Single-riveted Plates.

Tenacity of Plate.	Shearing Resistance of Rivets.		Ratio. $d + t$	Ratio. $p + d$	Ratio. Plate Area Rivet Area
	Tons per sq. in.	Lbs. per sq. in.			
67,300	32	49,300	2.48	2.30	0.667
62,720	32	49,300	2.48	2.40	0.785
67,300	24	53,760	2.38	2.27	0.713
62,720	24	53,760	2.38	2.36	0.690

ble shows that the diameter of the hole (not the diameter of the ould be $2\frac{3}{8}$ times the thickness of the plate, and the pitch of the times the diameter of the hole. Also, it makes the mean plate area rivet area.

aller rivet be used than that here specified, the joint will not be of and therefore not of maximum strength; but with any other size the best result will be got by use of the pitch obtained from the formula

$$p = a \frac{d^2}{t} + d,$$

before, d is the diameter of the hole.

ue of the constant a in this equation is as follows:

For 30-ton plate and 22-ton rivets, $a = 0.524$
“ 28 “ “ 22 “ “ “ 0.558
“ 30 “ “ 24 “ “ “ 0.570
“ 28 “ “ 24 “ “ “ 0.606

mean, the pitch $p = 0.56 \frac{d^2}{t} + d$.

d be noticed that with too small rivets this gives pitches often con- smaller in proportion than $2\frac{3}{8}$ times the diameter.

double-riveted lap-joints a similar calculation to that given ut with a somewhat smaller allowance for excess tenacity, on of the large distance between the rivet-holes, shows that for joints um strength the ratio of diameter to thickness should remain pre- in single-riveted joints; while the ratio of pitch to diameter of hole s 3.64 for 30-ton plates and 22 or 24 ton rivets, and 3.82 for 28-ton h the same rivets.

ill more than in the former case, it is likely that the prescribed rivet may often be inconveniently large. In this case the diameter should be taken as large as possible; and the strongest joint for a ckness of plate and diameter of hole can then be obtained by using given by the equation

$$p = a \frac{d^2}{t} + d,$$

e values of the constant a for different strengths of plates and y be taken as follows:

Table of Proportions of Double-riveted Lap-joints,

in which $p = a \frac{d^2}{t} + d$.

Thickness of Plate.	Original tenacity of Plate, Tons per sq. in.	Shearing Resistance of Rivets, Tons per sq. in.	Value of Constant, a
$\frac{3}{8}$ inch	30	24	1.15
"	28	24	1.22
"	30	22	1.05
"	28	22	1.12
"	30	24	1.17
"	28	24	1.25
"	30	22	1.07
"	28	22	1.14

Practically, having assumed the rivet diameter as large as possible, can fix the pitch as follows, for any thickness of plate from $\frac{3}{8}$ to $\frac{3}{4}$ inch

$$\begin{aligned} \text{For 30-ton plate and 24-ton rivets } \left\{ \begin{aligned} p &= 1.16 \frac{d^2}{t} + d; \\ \text{" 28 " " " 22 " " } & p = 1.06 \frac{d^2}{t} + d; \\ \text{" 30 " " " 22 " " } & p = 1.24 \frac{d^2}{t} + d. \end{aligned} \right. \end{aligned}$$

In double-riveted butt-joints it is impossible to develop the shearing resistance of the joint without getting excessive bearing pressure because the shearing area is doubled without increasing the area on which the pressure acts. Considering only the plate resistance and the bearing pressure, and taking this latter as 45 tons per square inch, the best p would be about 4 times the diameter of the hole. We may probably with some certainty that a pressure of from 45 to 50 tons per square inch the rivets will cause shearing to take place at from 16 to 18 tons per square inch. Working out the equations as before, but allowing excess strength only 5% on account of the large pitch, we find that the proportions of double riveted butt-joints of maximum strength, under given conditions, are in of the following table:

Double-riveted Butt-joints.

Original Tenacity of Plate, Tons per sq. in.	Shearing Resistance of Rivets, Tons per sq. in.	Bearing Pressure, Tons per sq. in.	Ratio $\frac{d}{t}$	Ratio $\frac{p}{d}$
30	16	45	1.80	3.85
28	16	45	1.80	4.05
30	18	48	1.70	4.03
28	18	48	1.70	4.27
30	16	50	2.00	4.30
28	16	50	2.00	4.43

Practically, therefore, it may be said that we get a double-riveted butt-joint of maximum strength by making the diameter of hole about 1.8 times thickness of the plate, and making the pitch 4.1 times the diameter of hole.

The proportions just given belong to joints of maximum strength. If a boiler the one part of the joint, the plate, is much more affected by than the other part, the rivets. It is therefore not unreasonable to estimate the percentage by which the plates might be weakened by corrosion, before the boiler would be unfit for use at its proper steam-pressure, to add correspondingly to the plate area. Probably the best thing to do in case is to proportion the joint, not for the actual thickness of plate, but a nominal thickness less than the actual by the assumed percentage. In this case the joint will be approximately one of uniform strength, *if time it has reached its final workable condition; up to which time the plates as a whole will have been weakened, the corrosion only gradually bringing the plates down to that of rivets.*

Efficiencies of Joints.

average results of experiments by the committee gave: For double-lap-joints in $\frac{3}{8}$ -inch plates, efficiencies ranging from 67.1% to 81.2%. For riveted butt-joints (in double shear) 61.4% to 71.3%. These low results probably due to the use of very soft steel in the rivets. For single-lap-joints of various dimensions the efficiencies varied from 54.8% to

71.3%. Experiments showed that the shearing resistance of steel did not increase nearly so fast as its tensile resistance. With very soft steel, for example, of only 26 tons tenacity, the shearing resistance was about 80% of the tensile resistance, whereas with very hard steel of 52 tons tenacity the shearing resistance was only somewhere about 65% of the tensile resistance.

Relations of Pitch and Overlap of Plates to Diameter of Rivet-Hole and Thickness of Plate.

(Prof. A. B. W. Kennedy, *Proc. Inst. M. E.*, April, 1885.)

- t = thickness of plate;
 d = diameter of rivet (actual) in parallel hole;
 p = pitch of rivets, centre to centre;
 s = space between lines of rivets;
 l = overlap of plate.

The pitch should be as wide as is allowable without impairing the tightness of the joint under steam.

For single-riveted lap-joints in the circular seams of boilers which have riveted longitudinal lap-joints,

$$\begin{aligned} d &= t \times 2.25; \\ p &= d \times 2.25 = t \times 5 \text{ (nearly);} \\ l &= t \times 6. \end{aligned}$$

For double-riveted lap-joints:

$$\begin{aligned} d &= 2.25t; \\ p &= 8t; \\ s &= 4.5t; \\ l &= 10.5t. \end{aligned}$$

Single-riveted Joints.

Double-riveted Joints.

d	p	l	t	d	p	s	l
7-16	15-16	$1\frac{1}{4}$	3-16	7-16	$1\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	2
9-16	$1\frac{1}{4}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	9-16	2	1 3-16	$2\frac{3}{4}$
11-16	1 9-16	$1\frac{3}{8}$	5-16	11-16	$2\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{3}{8}$
13-16	1 7-8	$1\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{8}$	13-16	3	$1\frac{3}{4}$	4
1	2 3-16	$2\frac{3}{8}$	7-16	1	$3\frac{1}{2}$	2	$4\frac{1}{2}$
$1\frac{1}{2}$	$2\frac{1}{2}$	3	$\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{2}$	4	$2\frac{1}{4}$	$5\frac{1}{4}$
$1\frac{3}{4}$	2 13-16	$3\frac{1}{8}$	9-16	$1\frac{3}{4}$	$4\frac{1}{2}$	$2\frac{3}{8}$	$5\frac{7}{8}$

With these proportions and good workmanship there need be no fear of leakage of steam through the riveted joint.

The diagonal area, or area of plate, along a zigzag line of fracture is at least 3% in excess of the net area straight across the joint. A 3% excess is better.

Professor Cooper (*R. R. Gazette*, Aug. 22, 1890) referring to Prof. Kenna's statement quoted above, gives as a sufficiently approximate rule for the pitch between the rows in staggered riveting, one half of the diameter of the rivets in a row plus one quarter the diameter of a rivet-hole.

Excess in Strength of Perforated over Unperforated Plates. (Proc. Inst. M. E., October, 1888.)

The metal between the rivet-holes has a considerably greater tensile resistance per square inch than the unperforated metal. This excess tenacity is to more than 20%, both in $\frac{3}{8}$ -inch and $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch plates, when the diameter of the rivets was about 1.9 diameters. In other cases $\frac{3}{8}$ -inch plates showed an excess of 15% at fracture with a pitch of 2 diameters, of 10% with a pitch of 2.5 diameters, and of 6.8% with a pitch of 3.9 diameters; and $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch plates showed an excess of 7.5% with a pitch of 2.8 diameters.

(1) The "excess strength due to perforation" is increased by which tends to make the stress in the plate uniform, and to diminish effect of the narrow strip of metal at the edge of the specimen.

(2) It is diminished by increase in the ratio of p/d , of pitch to diameter hole, so that in this respect it becomes less as the efficiency of t increases.

(3) It is diminished by any increase in hardness of the plate.

(4) For a given ratio p/d , of pitch to diameter of hole, it is also diminished as the thickness of the plate is increased. The ratio of thickness of plate does not seem to affect this matter directly, within the limits of the experiments.

Test of Double-riveted Lap and Butt Joints.

(Proc. Inst. M. E., October, 1888.)

Steel plates of 25 to 26 tons per square inch T. S., steel rivets of shearing-strength per square inch.

Kind of Joint.	Thickness of Plate.	Diameter of Rivet-holes.	Ratio of Pitch to Diameter.	Com Effct Ju
Lap.....	$\frac{3}{8}$ "	0.8"	3.62	7
Butt.....	$\frac{3}{8}$ "	0.7	3.93	7
Lap.....	$\frac{3}{4}$ "	1.1	2.82	6
".....	$\frac{3}{4}$ "	1.6	3.41	7
Butt.....	$\frac{3}{4}$ "	1.1	4.00	7
".....	$\frac{3}{4}$ "	1.6	3.94	7
Lap.....	1	1.3	2.42	6
".....	1	1.75	3.00	7
Butt.....	1	1.3	3.02	7

Some Rules which have been Proposed for the Diameter of the Rivet in Single Shear. (Iron, June 18, 1889)

Browne.....	$d = 2t$ (with double covers $1\frac{1}{4}t$)
Fairbairn.....	$d = 2t$ for plates less than $\frac{3}{8}$ in.
".....	$d = 1\frac{1}{2}t$ for plates greater than $\frac{3}{8}$ in.
Lemaître.....	$d = 1.5t + 0.16$
Antoine.....	$d = 1.1\sqrt{t}$
Pohlig.....	$d = 2t$ for boiler riveting
".....	$d = 3t$ for extra strong riveting
Redtenbacher.....	$d = 1.5t$ to $2t$
Unwin.....	$d = \frac{3}{4}t + 5/16$ to $\frac{3}{8}t + \frac{3}{8}$
".....	$d = 1.2\sqrt{t}$

The following table contains some data of the sizes of rivets in practice, and the corresponding sizes given by some of these rules.

Diameter of Rivets for Different Thicknesses of Plate

Thick-ness of plate. Inches.	Diameter of Rivets, in inches.									
	Lloyd's Rules.	Liverpool Rules.	English Dock-yards.	French Veritas.	Browne Eq. (1).	Fairbairn (2 and 3).	Lemaître (4).	Antoine (5).	Unwin (10).	
$\frac{5}{16}$	$\frac{5}{8}$	$\frac{5}{8}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{5}{8}$	$\frac{5}{8}$	$\frac{5}{8}$	$\frac{5}{8}$	$\frac{11}{16}$	
$\frac{3}{8}$	$\frac{5}{8}$	$\frac{5}{8}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{23}{32}$	$\frac{11}{16}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	
$\frac{7}{16}$	$\frac{5}{8}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{5}{8}$	$\frac{3}{8}$	$\frac{21}{32}$	$\frac{13}{16}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{13}{16}$	
$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{13}{16}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	1	$\frac{15}{16}$	$\frac{15}{16}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{7}{8}$	
$\frac{9}{16}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{13}{16}$	$\frac{7}{8}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{11}{8}$	$\frac{27}{32}$	1	$\frac{13}{16}$	$\frac{7}{8}$	
$\frac{5}{8}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{7}{8}$	$\frac{7}{8}$	$\frac{11}{8}$	$\frac{15}{16}$	$\frac{11}{8}$	$\frac{7}{8}$	$\frac{13}{16}$	
$\frac{11}{16}$	$\frac{7}{8}$	$\frac{7}{8}$	$\frac{7}{8}$	$\frac{13}{16}$	$1\frac{1}{32}$	$1\frac{3}{16}$	$\frac{15}{16}$	1	
$\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{7}{8}$	$\frac{15}{16}$	1	$\frac{3}{8}$	$\frac{11}{8}$	$\frac{13}{4}$	$\frac{15}{16}$	$1\frac{1}{16}$	
$\frac{13}{16}$	$\frac{7}{8}$	1	$1\frac{7}{32}$	$\frac{13}{8}$	1	$1\frac{3}{16}$	
$\frac{7}{8}$	1	1	$1\frac{3}{8}$	
$\frac{15}{16}$	1	1	$1\frac{3}{8}$	
1	1	1	$1\frac{3}{8}$	

length of Double-riveted Seams, Calculated.—W. E. S. Jr., in *Power* for June, 1890, gives tables of relative strength of and parts of sheet between rivets in double-riveted seams, compared length of shell, based on the assumption that the shearing strength is and the tensile strength of steel are equal. The following figures are sizes in his tables which show the nearest approximation to equal strength of rivets and parts of plates between the rivets, together the percentage of each relative to the strength of the solid plate.

Pitch of rivets, inches.	Size of Rivet-holes, inches.	Percentage of Strength of Plate.		Thickness of Plate, inches.	Pitch of Rivets, inches.	Size of Rivet-holes, inches.	Percentage of Strength of Plate.	
		Rivets.	Plate.				Rivets.	Plate.
2 1/8	3/8	.739	.765	7/16	2 3/8	3/4	.734	.728
2 1/8	9/16	.795	.775	7/16	3 1/8	13/16	.758	.740
2 1/8	5/8	.785	.800	7/16	3 3/8	5/8	.758	.759
2 1/8	1 1/16	.819	.810	7/16	4 1/8	15/16	.765	.773
2 1/8	9/16	.749	.735	1/2	2 1/2	3/4	.707	.700
2 1/8	5/8	.748	.762	1/2	2 3/8	13/16	.721	.718
2 1/8	1 1/16	.761	.780	1/2	3 1/8	7/8	.740	.731
2 1/8	3/4	.780	.793	1/2	3 3/8	15/16	.736	.750
2 1/8	5/8	.727	.722	1/2	4 1/8	1	.761	.758
2 1/8	1 1/16	.755	.738	9/16	2 5/8	13/16	.701	.690
2 1/8	3/4	.754	.760	9/16	3	7/8	.714	.708
2 1/8	13/16	.762	.776	9/16	3 1/8	15/16	.727	.732
2 1/8	3/4	.777	.788	9/16	3 3/8	1	.745	.733
2 1/8	1 1/16	.714	.711	9/16	4 1/4	1 1/16	.742	.750

B. Parsons (*Am. Engr. & R. R. Jour.*, 1893) holds that it is an error to that the shearing strength of the rivet is equal to the tensile strength. Referring to the apparent excess in strength of perforated over unperforated plates, he claims that on account of the difficulty in properly matching, and of the stress caused by forcing, as is too often the case in practice, this additional strength cannot be trusted much more than friction.

Comparing the sizes of iron rivets as generally used in American practice with plates from 1/4 to 1 inch thick: the tensile strength of the plates as compared with the shearing strength of the rivets as 40,000 for single-shear and 60,000 for double-shear. Mr. Parsons calculates the following table of relative strength so that the strength of the rivets against shearing will be approximately equal to that of the plate to tear between rivet-holes. The diameter of rivets has in all cases been taken at 1/16 in. larger than the nominal diameter of the rivet is assumed to fill the hole under the power riveter.

Riveted Joints.

FOR BUTT WITH SINGLE WELT—STEEL PLATES AND IRON RIVETS.

Thickness of Plates, inches.	Diameter of Rivets, inches.	Pitch, inches.		Efficiency, per cent.	
		Single.	Double.	Single.	Double.
1/2	1/4	1 3/16	1 3/8	55.7	70.0
	3/8	1 11/16	2 1/16	52.7	68.6
	1/2	1 3/4	2 3/8	49.0	65.9
	5/8	1 11/16	2 7/16	43.6	60.4
	3/4	1 3/4	2 5/8	42.0	59.5
	7/8	1 3/4	2 7/8	38.6	55.1
	1	1 3/4	2 7/8	38.1	54.7
	1 1/8	2 3/16	2 5/8	38.1	54.7
	1 1/4	2 3/16	2 5/8	38.1	54.7
	1 1/2	2 3/16	2 5/8	38.1	54.7

Calculated Efficiencies—Steel Plates and Steel Rivets

The differences between the calculated efficiencies given in the table above are notable. Those given by Mr. Ruggles are probably too high, he assumes the shearing strength of the rivets equal to the tensile strength of the plates. Those given by Mr. Parsons are probably lower than obtained in practice, since the figure he adopts for shearing strength is rather low, and he makes no allowance for excess of strength of the rivet over the unperforated plate. The following table has been prepared by the author on the assumptions that the excess strength of the rivet is 10%, and that the shearing strength of the rivets per square inch is four fifths of the tensile strength of the plate. If t = thickness of plate, d = diameter of rivet-hole, p = pitch, and T = tensile strength per square inch, then for single-riveted plates

$$(p - d)t \times 1.10T = \frac{\pi}{4}d^2 \times \frac{4}{5}T, \text{ whence } p = .571\frac{d^2}{t} + d.$$

$$\text{For double-riveted plates, } p = 1.142\frac{d^2}{t} + d.$$

The coefficients .571 and 1.142 agree closely with the averages given in the report of the committee of the Institution of Mechanical Engineers, quoted on pages 357 and 358, *ante*.

Thickness.	Diam. of Rivet-hole.	Pitch.		Efficiency.		Thickness.	Diam. of Rivet-hole.	Pitch.		Efficiency.
		Single Riveting.	Double Riveting.	Single Riveting.	Double Riveting.			Single Riveting.	Double Riveting.	
in.	in.	in.	in.	%	%	in.	in.	in.	in.	%
3/16	7/16	1.020	1.603	57.1	72.7	1/8	3/4	1.292	2.073	46
"	1/2	1.261	2.023	60.5	75.3	"	7/8	1.749	2.624	50
"	3/4	1.071	1.642	53.3	69.6	"	1	2.142	3.284	53
"	9/16	1.285	2.008	56.2	72.0	"	1 1/8	2.570	4.016	56
5/16	9/16	1.137	1.712	50.5	67.1	3/16	3/4	1.321	1.892	43
"	5/8	1.339	2.053	53.3	69.5	"	7/8	1.652	2.429	47
"	11/16	1.551	2.415	55.7	71.5	"	1	2.015	3.030	50
3/8	5/8	1.218	1.810	48.7	65.5	"	1 1/8	2.410	3.624	53
"	3/4	1.607	2.463	53.3	69.5	"	1 1/4	2.836	4.422	53
"	7/8	2.011	3.206	57.1	72.7	"	3/4	1.264	1.778	40
7/16	5/8	1.136	1.647	45.0	62.0	"	7/8	1.575	2.374	41
"	3/4	1.484	2.218	49.5	66.2	"	1	1.914	2.877	47
"	7/8	1.869	2.864	53.2	69.4	"	1 1/8	2.281	3.438	50
"	1	2.305	3.610	56.6	72.3	"	1 1/4	2.678	4.105	53

Riveting Pressure Required for Bridge and Boiler Work.

(Wilfred Lewis, Engineers' Club of Philadelphia, Nov., 1901)

A number of 5/8-inch rivets were subjected to pressures between 10,000 lbs. and 60,000 lbs. At 10,000 lbs. the rivet swelled and filled the hole without a head. At 30,000 lbs. the head was formed and the plates were pinched. At 30,000 lbs. the rivet was well set. At 40,000 lbs. the neck plate surrounding the rivet began to stretch, and the stretching became more and more apparent as the pressure was increased to 60,000 lbs. From these experiments the conclusion might be drawn that the pressure required for cold riveting was about 300,000 lbs. per square inch section. In hot riveting, until recently there was never any call for pressure exceeding 60,000 lbs., but now pressures as high as 150,000 lbs. are common, and even 200,000 lbs. have been contemplated as desirable.

Shearing Resistance of Rivet Iron and Steel.

(Proc. Inst. M. E., 1879, *Engineering*, Feb. 20, 1880.)

The shearing resistance of the rivets cannot be ascertained from tests on riveted joints (1), because the uniform distribution of the stress in the rivets cannot be insured; (2) because of the friction of the rivets which has the effect of increasing the apparent resistance to shear-ment uncertain in amount. Probably in the case of single rivets the shearing resistance is not much affected by the friction;

	Ultimate Shearing Stress		
	Tons per sq in.	Lbs. per sq. in.	
shear (12 bars) ..	24.15	54,006	Clarke.
shear (8 bars) ..	22.10	49,504	
" ..	22.62	50,669	
" ..	22.30	49,952	Barnaby.
rivets	23.05 to 25.57	51,632 to 57,277	Rankine.
rivets	24.32 to 27.94	54,477 to 62,362	Riley.
mean value	25.0	56,000	
rivets	19.01	42,582	Greig and Eyth.
steel, $\frac{3}{4}$ -in. rivets ..	17 to 26	38,080 to 58,240	Parker.
" $\frac{5}{8}$ -in. rivets ..	31.07 to 33.69	70,941 to 75,466	Riley.
" mean value ..	30.45 to 35.73	68,208 to 80,035	
steel	22.18	49,688	Greig and Eyth.

Mr. Greig's experiments show that a rivet is 61% weaker in a drilled than in a punched hole. By rounding the edge of the rivet-hole the apparent resistance is increased 12%. Mr. Maynard found the rivets 4% weaker in drilled holes than in punched holes. But these results were obtained on riveted joints, and not by direct experiments on shearing. It is a good deal of difficulty in determining the true diameter of a rivet hole, and it is doubtful whether in these experiments the diameter was accurately ascertained. Messrs. Greig and Eyth's experiments show a greater resistance of the rivets in punched holes than in drilled holes.

As shown above, the apparent shearing resistance is less for double shear than for single shear, it is probably due to unequal distribution of the stress in the rivet sections.

The shearing resistance of a bar, when sheared in circumstances which are similar to those above, is usually less than the tenacity of the bar. The following table shows the decrease:

	Tenacity of Bar.	Shearing Resistance.	Ratio.
iron	36.4	16.5	0.62
iron	25.4	20.2	0.79
Eyth, iron ..	22.2	19.0	0.85
" steel ..	28.8	22.1	0.77

Mr. Greig's researches (in 1870) the shearing strength of iron was found to be only one-fifth of the tenacity. Later researches of Bauschinger confirm this result generally, but they show that for iron the ratio of the shearing resistance to the tenacity depends on the direction of the stress relatively to the direction of rolling. The above ratio is valid only if the shear is in a direction perpendicular to the direction of rolling, and if the tension is applied in the direction of rolling. The shearing resistance in a plane perpendicular to the direction of rolling is different from that in a plane parallel to that direction, and again differs according as the plane of shear is perpendicular or parallel to the breadth of the bar. In the former case the shearing resistance is 18 to 20% greater than in a plane perpendicular to the fibres, or parallel to the tenacity. In the latter case it is only half as great as in a plane perpendicular to the fibres.

IRON AND STEEL.

CLASSIFICATION OF IRON AND STEEL.

CLASSIFICATION OF IRON AND STEEL.

(W. Kent, *Railroad & Engineering Journal*, April, 1887.)

Generic Term.	IRON.		
	How Obtained.	<i>CAST,</i> Or obtained from a fluid mass.	<i>WROUGHT,</i> Or welded from a pasty mass.
Distinguishing Quality.	<i>Non-malleable.</i>	<i>Malleable.</i>	<i>Will Not Harden.</i>
Species.	<i>CAST IRON.</i>	<i>CAST STEEL.</i>	<i>(8) WROUGHT STEEL.</i>
	(1) Ordinary castings. (2) Malleable cast iron, obtained from No. 1 by annealing in oxides.	(3) Crucible, (4) Bessemer, and (5) Open-hearth steels. (6) Mitis.*	(7) WROUGHT IRON. <i>a.</i> Obtained by direct process from ores, as Catalan, Chenot, and other process irons. <i>b.</i> Obtained by indirect process from cast iron, as finery-hearth and puddled irons.
Varieties.			

* No. 6, Mitis is the name given to a new product (having the same general properties and produced by the same processes as soft cast steel) made by adding an alloy of aluminum to melted wrought iron or soft steel before pouring.
 † No. 8, Wrought steel is almost an obsolete product, having been replaced in commerce by cast steel.
 Sub-varieties of Nos. 3, 4, and 5, soft, mild, medium, and hard steels, according to percentage of carbon, the divisions

CAST IRON.

ing of Pig Iron.—Pig iron is commonly graded according to its number of grades, varying in different districts. In Eastern Iowa the principal grades recognized are known as No. 1 and 2 gray forge or No. 3, mottled or No. 4, and white or No. 5. Intermediate grades are sometimes made, as No. 2 A, between No. 1 and No. 2, all names are given to irons more highly silicified than No. 1, as liver-gray, and soft. Charcoal foundry pig iron is graded by number, but the quality is very different from the corresponding anthracite and coke pig. Southern coke pig iron is graded into ten grades. Grading by fracture is a fairly satisfactory method of iron made from uniform ore mixtures and fuel, but is unreliable as a determining quality of irons produced in different sections or from ores. Grading by chemical analysis, in the latter case, is the factory method. The following analyses of the five standard northern foundry and mill pig irons are given by J. M. Hartman (S. A., Feb., 1893):

	No. 1.	No. 2.	No. 3.	No. 4.	No. 4 B.	No. 5.
.....	92.27	92.21	94.05	91.48	94.05	94.05
.....	3.32	3.99	2.50	2.92	2.92
.....	.13	.27	1.52	1.98	1.43	2.93
.....	2.44	2.52	.71	.54	.52	.41
.....	1.25	1.08	.26	.19	.04	.04
.....	.02	.02	trace	.08	.04	.02
.....	.28	.79	.34	.67	2.02	.36

CHARACTERISTICS OF THESE IRONS.

roy.—A large, dark, open-grain iron, softest of all the numbers exclusively in the foundry. Tensile strength low. Elastic limit tenuous. Turns soft and tough.

roy.—A mixed large and small dark grain, harder than No. 1 iron, exclusively in the foundry. Tensile strength and elastic limit in No. 1. Fracture less rough than No. 1. Turns harder, less brittle than No. 1.

roy.—Small, gray, close grain, harder than No. 2 iron, used either in mill or foundry. Tensile strength and elastic limit higher than No. 2, less tough, and more brittle than No. 2.

mottled.—White background, dotted closely with small black spots in carbon; little or no grain. Used exclusively in the rolling-mill. Tensile strength and elastic limit lower than No. 3. Turns with difficulty; and more brittle than No. 3. The manganese in the B pig iron part of the combined carbon, making the iron harder and closing out withstanding the lower combined carbon.

white.—Smooth, white fracture, no grain, used exclusively in the mill. Tensile strength and elastic limit much lower than No. 4. Too rough and more brittle than No. 4.

Pig irons are graded as follows, beginning with the highest in No. 1 and 2 soft, Nos. 1 and 2 soft, all containing over 25 of Si, 1 and 2 foundry, respectively about 1.75%, 2.55 and 25 silicon; or "foundry forge"; No. 2 mill, or gray forge; mottled; white; several chills iron for car wheels contains, as a rule, 0.56 to 0.35 Si to 0.30 manganese, 0.05 to 0.75 phosphorus. The following is an analysis of a remarkably strong car wheel: Si, 0.734; Mn, 0.428; P, 0.428; S, 0.082; Combined C, 1.347; Copper, 0.025. The chill was 1-14 in. deep at root of flange, 1 1/2 in. deep on tread. A good iron analyzed: Si, 0.30; Graphitic C, 2.30; Combined C, 1.70; P, 0.25 (9). Its specific gravity was 7.22 and tenacity 21,734 lbs.

ing of Silicon, Phosphorus, Sulphur, and Manganese in Cast Iron.—W. J. Keep, of Detroit, in several papers (S. A. E., 1889 to 1891), discusses the influence of various chemical elements on the quality of cast iron. From these the following notes have been selected:

—Pig iron contains all the carbon that it could absorb during its formation in the blast-furnace. Carbon exists in cast iron in two forms: as "free" carbon, or as "combined" carbon. It cannot be combined with iron, but it may increase the whiteness of the fracture, in so-called

iron. Carbon mechanically mixed with the iron as graphite is varying in color from gray to black, while the fracture of the iron ran light to a very dark gray.

Silicon will expel carbon, if the iron, when melted, contains more than that it can hold and a portion of silicon be added.

Prof. Turner concludes from his tests that the amount of silicon the maximum strength is about 1.80%. But this is only true if a base is used. If an iron is used as a base which will produce a soft to begin with, each addition of silicon will decrease strength. Still a weakening agent. Variations in the percentage of silicon added iron will not insure a given strength or physical structure, but it will depend upon the physical properties of the original iron.

After enough silicon has been added to cause solid castings, the addition and consequent increase of graphite weakens the cast softness and strength given to castings by a suitable addition is, by a further increase of silicon, changed to stiffness, brittle weakness.

As strength decreases from increase of graphite and decrease of carbon, deflection increases; or, in other words, bending is increased by graphite. When no more graphite can form and silicon still in deflection diminishes, showing that high silicon not only weakens makes it stiff. This stiffness is not the same strength-stiffness caused by compact iron and combined carbon. It is a brittle-stiff.

In pig irons which received their silicon while in the blast-furnace graphite more easily separates, and the shrinkage is less than in the ordinary. As silicon increases, shrinkage also increases. Silicon increases shrinkage, though by reason of its action upon the carbonary practice it is truly said that silicon "takes the shrinkage of iron." The slower a casting crystallizes, the greater will be the amount of graphite formed within it.

Silicon of itself, however small the quantity present, hardens the iron, but the decrease of hardness from the change of the combined graphite, caused by the silicon, is so much more rapid than the decrease produced by the increase of silicon, that the total effect is to decrease, until the silicon reaches from 3 to 5%.

As practical foundry-work does not call for more than 3% of silicon ordinary use of silicon does reduce the hardness of castings; but the effect is produced through its influence on the carbon, and not its direct influence on the iron.

When the change from combined to graphite carbon has ceased, the hardness, say at from 2% to 5% of silicon, the hardening by itself becomes more and more apparent as the silicon increases.

Shrinkage and hardness are almost exactly proportional. When silicon varies, and other elements do not vary materially, castings with low silicon are soft; as shrinkage increases, the castings grow hard in proportion, not exactly, the same proportion. For ordinary foundry practice of shrinkage may be made also the scale of hardness, provided vanadium, sulphur, and phosphorus especially, are not present to complicate the result.

The term "chilling" irons is generally applied to such as, cool would be gray, but cooled suddenly, become white either to a sufficient for practical utilization (e.g., in car-wheels) or so far as to be fatal. Many irons chill more or less in contact with the cold surface of the mould in which they are cast, especially if they are thin. Softness is a valuable quality, but for general foundry purposes it is desirable to have all parts of a casting an even gray.

Silicon exerts a powerful influence upon this property of iron, and entirely removing their capacity of chilling.

When silicon is mixed with irons previously low in silicon the hardness is increased.

It is not the percentage of silicon, but the state of the carbonary action of silicon through other elements, which causes the iron to chill.

Silicon irons have always had the reputation of imparting fluidity to castings. This comes, no doubt, from the fact that up to 3% or 4% the quantity of graphite in the resulting casting.

From the statement of Prof. Turner, that the maximum strength of iron is obtained with such a percentage of silicon, and his statement that a soft quality of iron that he may need, is obtained by adding what he calls a typical foundry-

silicon of itself is not a softener or a lessener of shrinkage; its influence on carbon, and only during a certain stage, does it have effects.

3.—While phosphorus of itself, in whatever quantity present, softens iron, yet in quantities less than 1.5% its influence is not sufficient to overbalance other beneficial effects, which are exerted when the percentage reaches 1%. Probably no element of itself weakens iron, such as phosphorus, especially when present in large quantities. The shrinkage is decreased when phosphorus is increased. All high-phosphorus irons show low shrinkage. Phosphorus does not ordinarily harden cast iron, for the reason that it does not increase combined carbon.

The fluidity of the metal is slightly increased by phosphorus, but not to the extent as has been ascribed to it.

The tendency of remaining long in the fluid state must not be confounded with fluidity, for it is not the measure of its ability to make sharp castings, especially in the very thin parts of a mould. Generally speaking, the statement is true that, to some extent, phosphorus prolongs the fluidity of iron when it is filling the mould.

Some of the best irons contained about 1% of phosphorus. The foundry-irons which are most sought for for small and thin castings in the Eastern States contain, as a general thing, over 1% of phosphorus.

Some irons which contain from 4% to 7% silicon have been so much used for their ability to soften other irons that they have come to be known as "softeners" and as lesseners of shrinkage. These irons are valuable for their content of silicon; but the irons which are sold most as softeners and lesseners are those containing from 1% to 2% of phosphorus. It is therefore ascribed the reputation of some of them largely to the phosphorus and not wholly to the silicon which they contain.

More than 1% of phosphorus will do all that can be done in a beneficial way above that amount weakens the iron, without corresponding increase in fluidity. It is not necessary to search for phosphorus-irons. Most irons contain more than is needed, and the care should be to keep it within limits.

Only a small percentage of sulphur can be made to remain in iron, and it is difficult to introduce sulphur into gray cast iron. In the case of carbonized iron, although gray cast iron often takes from the furnace more sulphur as the iron originally contained. Percentages of sulphur that could be retained by gray cast iron cannot materially injure the metal, except through an increase of shrinkage. The higher the carbon, and the higher the silicon, the smaller will be the influence exerted by sulphur.

The presence of sulphur on all cast iron is to drive out carbon and to increase shrinkage, and as a general thing to

tained than when no sulphur is present. Thus, in some tests on quoted by R. Akerman, it is stated that in the foundry-iron from fuel in the manufacture of cannons, a percentage of 0.15 to 0.14 in the iron increased its strength to a considerable extent. The of sulphur found originally in the iron put in the cupola is further increased by part of the sulphur that is invariably found used. It is seldom that a coke with a small percentage of sulphur whereas coke containing 1% of it and over is very common. The of sulphur in the cupola, if no special precautions are resorted to, the of sulphur in the metal will in most cases be increased.

That the sulphur contents of pig iron may be increased by contained in the coke used, is shown by some experiments in reported by Mr. Nau. Seven consecutive heats were made.

The sulphur content of the coke was 1%, and 11.7% of fuel was in charge.

Before melting, the silicon ranged from 0.320 to 0.830 in these after melting, it was from 0.110 to 0.534, the loss in melting being to .375. The sulphur before melting was from .076 to .090, and after from .132 to .174, a gain from .044 to .098.

From the results the following conclusions were drawn :

1. In all the charges, without exception, sulphur increased in the iron after its passage through the cupola. In some cases this increase than doubled the original amount of sulphur found in the pig iron.

2. The increase of the sulphur contents in the iron follows the amount of a greater amount of silicon from that same iron. A larger limestone added to these charges would have produced a more loss and undoubtedly less sulphur would have been incorporated in the iron.

3. This coke contained 1% of sulphur, and if all its sulphur had been in the iron there would have been an average increase of 0.12 of sulphur in the seven charges, while the real increase in the pig iron amount was 0.081. This shows that two thirds of the sulphur of the coke was lost by the iron in its passage through the cupola.

MANGANESE.—Manganese is a nearly white metal, having about the appearance when fractured as white cast iron. Its specific gravity is about 8, while that of white cast iron, reasonably free from iron, is but a little above 7.5. As produced commercially, it is combined with small percentages of silicon, phosphorus, and sulphur.

It is generally produced in the blast-furnace. If the manganese is 40%, with the remainder mostly iron, and silicon not over 0.5%, called spiegeleisen, and the fracture will show flat reflecting surfaces which it takes its name.

With manganese above 50%, the iron alloy is called ferro-manganese. As manganese increases beyond 50%, the mass cracks in cooling, and as it approaches 98% the mass crumbles or falls in small pieces.

Manganese combines with iron in almost any proportion, but containing manganese is remelted, more or less of the manganese is lost by volatilization, and by oxidation with other elements present. If sulphur be present, some of the manganese will be likely to be lost and escape, thus reducing the amount of both elements in the cast iron.

Cast iron, when free from manganese, cannot hold more than 2.5% carbon, and 3.50% is as much as is generally present; but as manganese carbon also increases, until we often find it in spiegel as high as ferro-manganese as high as 6%. This effect on capacity to hold carbon is peculiar to manganese.

Manganese renders cast iron less plastic and more brittle.

Manganese increases the shrinkage of cast iron. An increase of 1% of the shrinkage 2%. Judging from some test records, manganese influence chill at all; but other tests show that with a given per cent silicon the carbon may be a little more inclined to remain in the form, and therefore the chill may be a little deeper. Hence, to get a chill to be the same, it would seem that the percentage of silicon must be a little higher with manganese than without it.

An increase of 1% of manganese increased the hardness 40%. If a chill is required, manganese gives it by adding hardness to the white iron.

J. B. Nau (*Iron Age*, March 29, 1894), discussing the influence of manganese on cast iron, says:

Manganese favors the combination between carbon and iron in the cast iron, and, when present in sufficiently large quantities, is even great enough to increase the capacity of the iron to hold carbon, which would be naturally found in pig iron.

decreases the capacity of iron to retain larger amounts of carbon in the combined state.

It is often used for foundry purposes when some chill and hardness is required in the casting. For the rolls of steel-rail put into the mixture a large amount of manganiferous iron, obtained always presented the desired hardness of surface mottled structure on the outside. The inside, which cooled slower, was gray iron. One of the standard mixtures that produced good results was the following:

dry iron with 1.3% silicon and 1.5% manganese;
dry iron with 1% silicon and 1.5% manganese;
(rail ends) with about 0.35% to 0.40% carbon.
The iron from this mixture contained about 1% of silicon and 1%

carbon, which differed but little from the preceding, was as

follows:
dry iron with about 1.3% silicon and 1.5% manganese;
dry iron with about 1% silicon and 1.5% manganese;
mottled iron with about 0.5% to 0.6% Si. and 1.2% Mn.
Steel-rail ends with about 0.35% to 0.40% C. and 0.6% to 1% Mn.
The iron in the preceding mixtures contained also invariably a small amount of phosphorus, so that the rolls obtained therefrom carried about 0.2% of that element. The last mixture used produced rolls of an average 0.8% to 1% of silicon and 1% of manganese. When used to make those rolls from a mixture containing but 0.2% to 0.3% of phosphorus, the rolls were invariably of inferior quality, grayer, and softer. Manganese iron cannot be used indiscriminately for all purposes. When greater softness is required in the castings manganese should be avoided, but when hardness to a certain extent has to be obtained, manganese iron can be used with advantage.

The addition of manganese increases the magnetism of the iron. This characteristic percentage of manganese that enters into the composition of cast iron loses all its magnetism when manganese reaches 25% of the total iron. This peculiarity has been made use of by French engineers to draw a clear line between spiegel and ferro-manganese. Cast iron containing less than 25% of manganese it is classified as spiegel, and iron containing more than 25% is classified as ferro-manganese. For cast iron containing more than 25% of manganese it should be avoided in castings of dynamo fields and other machinery, where magnetic conductivity is one of the first considerations.

Distribution of Silicon in Pig Iron.—J. W. Johnson (Eng. Mag., Nov. 12, 1891) finds in analyzing samples taken from every part of a pig iron that the silicon varies considerably, the iron in the furnace having generally the highest percentage. In one case the silicon decreased from 2.040 to 1.713 from the first bed to the last. In another case the third bed had 1.260 Si., the seventh 1.718, and the eighth 1.101. He also finds that the silicon varies in each pig, being generally higher at the point than at the butt. Some of his figures are: point of pig 1.857; butt of same 1.257; point of pig 1.834, butt of same 1.787.

Analysis of Cast Iron. (G. Lanza, *Trans. A. S. M. E.*, x., 187.)—The analyses were as follows:

	Gun Iron, per cent.	Common Iron, per cent.
Carbon.....	3.51
White.....	2.80
Hard.....	0.133	0.173
Phosphorus.....	0.155	0.413
Silicon.....	1.140	1.89

The specimens were 25 inches long and square in section; those tested with the tensile being very nearly one inch square, and those tested with the compression being cast nearly one and one quarter inches square, and reduced down to one inch square.

	Tensile Strength.	Elastic Limit.	Modulus of Elasticity.
..... 20,200 to 23,000 T. S. Av. =	22,066	6,500	13,194,333
..... 20,300 to 26,800 " " =	30,520	5,833	11,948,333
..... 27,000 to 28,775 " " =	28,175	11,000	10,000,000
..... 29,500 to 31,000 " " =	30,500	8,500	10,000,000

The elastic limit is not clearly defined in cast iron, the elongations being faster than the increase of the loads from the beginning of the test. The modulus of elasticity is therefore variable, decreasing as the load increases. For example, the following results of a test of common cast iron are reported by Prof. Lanza:

Lbs. per sq. in.	Elongation in 13.4 inches.	Sets, in.	Modulus of Elasticity.
1000	.0004	18,217,400
2000	.0013	16,777,700
3000	.0024	14,085,400
4000	.0036	13,101,200
5000	.0048	12,809,200
6000	.0061	.0000	12,319,300
8000	.0088	.0001	11,600,800
10000	.0119	.0001	10,930,500
12000	.0162	.0007	9,714,300

CHEMISTRY OF FOUNDRY IRONS.

(C. A. Meissner, *Columbia College Q'ly*, 1890; *Iron Age*, 1890.)

Silicon is a very important element in foundry irons. Its tendency not above $2\frac{1}{2}\%$ is to cause the carbon to separate out as graphite, giving casting the desired benefits of graphitic iron. Between $2\frac{1}{2}\%$ and $3\frac{1}{2}\%$ silicon is best adapted for iron carrying a fair proportion of low silicon scrap close iron, for ordinarily no mixture should run below $1\frac{1}{2}\%$ silicon to give good castings.

From $3\frac{1}{2}\%$ to 5% silicon, as occurs in silvery iron, will carry heavy amounts of scrap. Castings are liable to be brittle, however, if not handled carefully, in proportion of scrap used.

From $1\frac{1}{2}\%$ to 3% silicon is best adapted for machine work; will give clean castings if not much scrap is used with it.

Below $1\frac{1}{2}\%$ silicon seems suited for drills and castings that have to stand great variations in temperature.

Silicon has the effect of making castings fluid, strong, and open-grained, also sound, by its tendency to separate the graphite from the total carbon and consequent slight expansion of the iron on cooling, causing it to cool thoroughly. Phosphorus, when high, has a tendency to make iron retain its heat longer, thereby helping to fill out all small spaces in castings. It makes iron brittle, however, when above $3\frac{1}{2}\%$ in castings. It is especially good when high to use in a mixture of low-phosphorus irons, up to $1\frac{1}{2}\%$ silicon, good results, but, as said before, the casting should be below $3\frac{1}{2}\%$. It has a strong tendency when above $1\frac{1}{2}\%$ in pig to make the iron less graphitic, preventing the separation of graphite.

Sulphur in open iron seldom bothers the founder, as it is seldom present to any extent. The conditions causing open iron in the furnace cause sulphur. A little manganese is an excellent antidote against sulphur in the furnace. Irons above $1\frac{1}{2}\%$ manganese seldom have any sulphur of any consequence.

Graphite is the all-important factor in foundry irons; unless this is present in sufficient amount in the casting, the latter will be liable to be brittle. Graphite causes iron to slightly expand on cooling, makes it soft, tough, and fluid. (The statement as to expansion on cooling is denied by W. J. K.

Relation of the Appearance of Fracture to the Chemical Composition.—S. H. Chauvenet says when run from the blast furnace the lower bed is almost always close grain, but shows practically the same analysis as the large grain in the rest of the cast. If the iron runs rapidly, the lower bed may have as large grain as any in the cast. If the iron runs rapidly for, say, six beds and some obstruction in the ladle causes the seventh bed to fill up slowly and sluggishly, this bed will be close-grained, although the eighth bed, if the obstruction is removed, will be open-grained. Neither the graphitic carbon nor the silicon seems to have any influence on the fracture in these cases, since by analysis the graphite and silicon is the same in each. The question naturally arises whether the analysis is not better to be guided by the analysis than by the fracture. The fracture is a guide, but it is not an infallible guide. Should not the open-grained iron be analyzed in the same cast be numbered under the same name when the analysis is made? Should not the analyses made for the comparison of the

Mr. J.

analysis, and unless the condition of furnace, whether the iron ran slow, and from what part of pig bed the sample is taken, are known, the result is often very misleading. Take the following analyses:

	A.	B.	C.	D.	E.	F.
.....	4.315	4.818	4.270	3.328	3.869	3.861
.....	0.008	0.008	0.007	0.033	0.006	0.006
ic car..	3.010	2.757	2.680	2.243	3.070	3.100
carbon..	0.108	0.096

ry close-grain iron, dark color, by fracture, gray forge.

en-grain, dark color, by fracture, No. 1.

ry close-grain, by fracture, gray forge.

edium-grain, by fracture, No. 2, but much brighter and more open C. or F.

ry large, open-grain, dark color, by fracture, No. 1.

ry close-grain, by fracture, gray forge.

Comparing analyses A and B, or E and F, it appears that the close-grain is in each case the highest in graphitic carbon. Comparing A and B, the graphite is about the same, but the close-grain is highest in

Analyses of Foundry Irons. (C. A. Meissner.)

SCOTCH IRONS.

Name.	Grade.	Silicon.	Phosphorus.	Manganese.	Sulphur.	Graphite.	Comb. Carbon.
Free.....	1	2.70	0.545	1.80	0.01	3.09	0.25
.....	1	2.47	0.760	2.51	0.015
.....	1	3.44	1.000	1.70	0.015
.....	2	2.70	0.810	2.90	0.02	2.00	0.80
.....	1	2.15	0.618	2.80	0.025	3.76	0.21
.....	1	2.59	0.840	1.70	0.010	3.75	3.75
.....	1	1.70	1.100	1.83	0.008	3.50	0.40
.....	1	3.03	1.200	2.85
.....	2	4.00	0.900	3.41	0.010	1.78	0.90

AMERICAN SCOTCH IRONS.

	Silicon.	Phosphorus.	Manganese	Sulphur.	No. Grade.	
.....	6.00	0.430	1.00	1
.....	1.67	1.930	1.90	casting
.....	2.40	1.000	1.70	2
.....	1.28	0.690	1.40	2
.....	5.50	0.613	2.51	1
.....	2.90	0.733	1.40	casting
.....	3.44	1.000	1.70	0.015	1
.....	3.35	1.300	1.50	0.012	1
.....	3.68	0.503	2.90	1

DESCRIPTION OF SAMPLES.—No. 1. Well known Ohio Scotch iron, but carries two-thirds scrap; made from part black-bar steel brand. The high silicon gives it its scrap-carrying capacity. No. 2. Erie Hill Scotch castings, made at scale works; cast with less ductility than strength.

No. 3. Formerly a famous Ohio Scotch brand, not now in the market. Made mainly from black-band ore.

No. 4. A good Ohio Scotch, very soft and fluid; made from black-band ore-mixture.

Nos. 5a and 5b. Brier Hill Scotch iron and casting; made for stove purposes; 350 lbs. of iron used to 150 lbs. scrap gave very soft fluid iron; worked well.

No. 6a. Shows comparison between Summerlee (Scotch) (6a) and Brier Hill Scotch (6b). Drillings came from a Cleveland foundry, which found both irons closely alike in physical and working quality.

No. 7. One of the best southern brands, very hard to compete with, owing to its general qualities and great regularity of grade and general working.

MACHINE IRONS.

Sample No.	Silicon.	Phosphorus.	Manganese.	Sulphur.	Graphite.	Comb. Carbon.	Grade No.
8	2.80	0.492	0.61	0.015	1
9	1.30	0.262	0.70	0.030	3
10a	2.66	0.770	1.20	0.020	2.51	2
10b	3.63	0.411	1.25	0.014	3.05	1
11	2.10	0.415	0.60	0.050	2
12	1.37	0.294	1.51	0.080	2.31	0.78	2
13	3.10	0.124	trace	0.021	2
14	2.12	0.610	0.80
15	1.70	0.632	1.60
16a	1.45	0.470	1.25	0.009	2
16b	1.40	0.316	1.37	0.008
17	3.26	0.436	0.25	1
18	0.80	0.164	0.90	0.015	1

DESCRIPTION OF SAMPLES.—No. 8. A famous Southern brand noted for fine machine castings.

No. 9. Also a Southern brand, a very good machine iron.

Nos. 10a and 10b. Formerly one of the best known Ohio brands. Does not shrink; is very fluid and strong. Foundries having used this have reported very favorably on it.

No. 11. Iron from Brier Hill Co., made to imitate No. 3; was stronger than No. 3; did not pull castings; was fluid and soft.

No. 12. Copy of a very strong English machine iron.

No. 13. A Pennsylvania iron, very tough and soft. This is partially Bessemer iron, which accounts for strength, while high silicon makes it soft.

No. 14. Castings made from Brier Hill Co.'s machine brand for scale works, very satisfactory, strong, soft and fluid.

No. 15. Castings made from Brier Hill Co.'s one half machine brand, one half Scotch brand, for scale works, castings desired to be of fair strength but very fluid and soft.

No. 16a. Brier Hill machine brand made to compete with No. 3.

No. 16b. Castings (clothes-hooks) from same, said to have worked badly, castings being white and irregular. Analysis proved that some other iron too high in manganese had been used, and probably not well mixed.

No. 17. A Pennsylvania iron, no shrinkage, excellent machine iron, soft and strong.

No. 18. A very good quality Northern charcoal iron.

“Standard Grades” of the Brier Hill Iron and Coal Company.

Brier Hill Scotch Iron.—Standard Analysis, Grade Nos. 1 and 2

Silicon	2.00 to 3.00
Phosphorus	0.50 to 0.75
Manganese	2.00 to 2.50

Used successfully for scales, mowing-machines, agricultural implements, novelty hardware, sounding-boards, stoves, and heavy work requiring special strength.

Brier Hill Silvery Iron.—Standard Analysis, Grade No. 1.

Silicon	3.50 to 5.50
Phosphorus.....	1.00 to 1.50
Manganese	2.00 to 2.25

Used successfully for hollow-ware, car-wheels, etc., stoves, bumpers, and similar work, with heavy amounts of scrap in all cases. Should be mainly used where fluidity and no great strength is required, especially for heavy work. When used with scrap or close pig low in phosphorus, castings of considerable strength and great fluidity can be made

Fairly Heavy Machine Iron.—Standard Analysis, Grade No. 1.

Silicon	1.75 to 2.50
Phosphorus.....	0.50 to 0.60
Manganese	1.20 to 1.40

The best iron for machinery, wagon-boxes, agricultural implements, lamp-works, hardware specialties, lathes, stoves, etc., where no large amounts of scrap are to be carried, and where strength, combined with great fluidity and softness, are desired. Should not have much scrap with

Regular Machine Iron.—Standard Analysis, Grade Nos. 1 and 2.

Silicon.....	1.50 to 2.00
Phosphorus.....	0.30 to 0.50
Manganese.....	0.80 to 1.00

Used for hardware, lawn-mowers, mower and reaper works, oil-well machinery, drills, fine machinery, stoves, etc. Excellent for all small fine castings requiring fair fluidity, softness, and mainly strength. Cannot be well used alone for large castings, but gives good results on same when used with above-mentioned heavy machine grade; also when used with the scrap in right proportion. Will carry but little scrap, and should be used where for good strong castings.

For Axles and Materials Requiring Great Strength, Grade No. 2.

Silicon.....	1.50
Phosphorus.....	0.200 and less.
Manganese.....	0.80

This gave excellent results.

A good neutral iron for guns, etc., will run about as follows:

Silicon.....	1.00
Phosphorus.....	0.25
Sulphur.....	0.20
Manganese.....	none.

It should be open No. 1 iron.

This gives a very tough, elastic metal. More sulphur would make tough but decrease elasticity.

For fine castings demanding elegance of design but no strength, phosphorus to 3.00% is good. Can also stand 1.50% to 2.00% manganese. For work of a hard, abrasive character manganese can run 2.00% in casting.

Analyses of Castings.

Sample No.	Silicon.	Phosphorus.	Manganese	Sulphur.	Graphite.	Comb. Carbon.
81	2.50	1.400	2.20			
82	0.85	0.351	0.92	0.080		
83	1.53	0.327	1.08	0.040	3.10	0.58
84a	1.84	0.577	1.04			
84b	2.20	0.742	1.10			
84c	2.50	1.208	1.16			
85a	2.80	0.418	0.54			
85b	3.10	1.220	1.14			
85c	3.80	0.579	0.80			
85d	2.88	0.408	1.10			
	4.20	0.680	0.78			
	3.20	1.420	0.80			
	2.50	0.620	1.20	0.025		
	1.20	0.260	1.20			

No. 31. Sewing-machine casting, said to be very fluid and good. This is an odd analysis. I should say it would have been too hard and brittle, yet no complaint was made.

No. 32. Very good machine casting, strong, soft, no shrinkage.

No. 33. Drillings from an annealer-box that stood the heat very well.

No. 34a. Drillings from door-hinge, very strong and soft.

No. 34b. Drillings from clothes-hooks, tough and soft, stood severe mering.

No. 34c. Drillings from window-blind hinge, broke off suddenly at strain. Too high phosphorus.

No. 35a. Casting for heavy ladle support, very strong.

Nos. 35b and 35c. Broke after short usage. Phosphorus too high, bumpers.

No. 35d. Elbow for steam heater, very tough and strong.

No. 36. Cog-wheels, very good, shows absolutely no shrinkage.

No. 37. Heater top network, requiring fluidity but no strength.

No. 37a. Gray part of above.

No. 37b. White, honeycombed part of above. Probably bad mixture got chilled suddenly.

STRENGTH OF CAST IRON.

Rankine gives the following figures:

Various qualities, T. S.	13,400 to	29,000,	average	16.5
Compressive strength.....	82,000 to	145,000,	"	112.5
Modulus of elasticity.....	14,000,000 to	22,900,000,	"	17,000,000

Specific Gravity and Strength. (Major Wade, 1856.)

Third-class guns: Sp. Gr. 7.087, T. S. 20,148. Another lot: least Sp. Gr. T. S. 22,402.

Second-class guns: Sp. Gr. 7.154, T. S. 24,767. Another lot: mean Sp. Gr. 7.302, T. S. 27,232.

First class guns: Sp. Gr. 7.204, T. S. 28,805. Another lot: greatest Sp. Gr. 7.402, T. S. 31,027.

Strength of Charcoal Pig Iron.—Pig iron made from Sals ores, in furnaces at Wassaic and Millerton, N. Y., has shown over 49,000 T. S. per square inch, one sample giving 42,281 lbs. Muirkirk, Md. tested at the Washington Navy Yard showed: average for No. 2 iron, 43,000 lbs.; No. 3, 23,959 lbs.; No. 4, 41,329 lbs.; average density of No. 4, 7.336. (I. W., v. p. 44.)

Nos. 3 and 4 charcoal pig iron from Chaplville, Conn., showed a tensile strength per square inch of from 34,761 lbs. to 41,882 lbs. Charcoal pig iron from (Shelby, Ala. (tests made in August, 1891), showed a strength of 34,800 lbs. for No. 3; No. 4, 39,675 lbs.; No. 5, 46,450 lbs.; and a mixture of equal parts of Nos. 3, 4, and 5, 41,470 lbs. (*Bull. I. & S. A.*)

Variation of Density and Tenacity of Gun-Irons.—Increase of density invariably follows the rapid cooling of cast iron, at a general rule the tenacity is increased by the same means. The tenacity generally increases quite uniformly with the density, until the latter attains to some given point; after which an increased density is accompanied by a diminished tenacity.

The turning-point of density at which the best qualities of gun-iron attain their maximum tenacity appears to be about 7.30. At this point of density or near it, whether in proof-bars or gun-heads, the tenacity is greatest.

As the density of iron is increased its liquidity when melted is diminished. This causes it to congeal quickly, and to form cavities in the interior of the casting. (*Pamphlet of Builders' Iron Foundry, 1893.*)

Specifications for Cast Iron for the World's Fair Buildings, 1892.—Except where chilled iron is specified, all castings shall be of tough gray iron, free from injurious cold-shuts or blow-holes, of uniform pattern, and of a workmanlike finish. Sample pieces 1 in. square, cast the same heat of metal in sand moulds, shall be capable of sustaining a clear span of 4 feet 6 inches a central load of 500 lbs. when tested on a rough bar.

Specifications for Tests of Cast Iron in 12" B. L. Morings. (*Pamphlet of Builders' Iron Foundry, 1893.*)—*Charcoal Gun Iron.*—The tensile strength of the iron must average at each end at least 30,000 lbs. per square inch; and must be over 37,000 lbs. per square inch; and the elongation may be as low as 25,000 lbs. per square inch.

be measured by the clean white portion to the point where
 gin to show in the white. The grades are to be by eighths of
 $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{3}{8}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{5}{8}$, $\frac{3}{4}$, $\frac{7}{8}$, etc., until the iron is mottled; the lowest
 of an inch in depth of chill. The pigs of each cast are to be
 of depth of chill shown by its test-piece, and each grade
 itself at the furnace and in forwarding.

Cast Iron with Steel.—Car wheels are sometimes
 mixture of charcoal iron, anthracite iron, and Bessemer
 blowing shows the tensile strength of a number of tests of
 the average tensile strength of the charcoal iron used being

	lbs. per sq. in.
on with $\frac{21}{64}$ % steel	22,467
" " $\frac{33}{64}$ % steel	26,733
" " $\frac{61}{64}$ % steel and $\frac{61}{64}$ % anthracite	24,400
" " $\frac{71}{64}$ % steel and $\frac{71}{64}$ % anthracite	28,150
" " $\frac{21}{64}$ % ste-l, $\frac{21}{64}$ % wro't iron, and $\frac{61}{64}$ % anth.	25,550
" " 5 % steel, 5% wro't iron, and 10 % anth.	26,500

(*Jour. C. I. W.*, iii. p. 184.)

Partially Bessemerized.—Car wheels made of par-
 rized iron (blown in a Bessemer converter for $3\frac{1}{2}$ minutes),
 ll-test mould over an inch deep, just as a test of cold-blast
 or car wheels would chill. Car wheels made of this blown
 50,000 miles. (*Jour. C. I. W.*, vi. p. 77.)

Iron.—On October 15, 1891, the cast-iron fly-wheel of a large
 engines belonging to the Amoskeag Mfg. Co., of Manchester,
 l from centrifugal force. The fly-wheel was 30 feet diam-
 etres face, with one set of 12 arms, and weighed 116,000 lbs.
 ent, the rim castings, as well as the ends of the arms, were
 of flaws, caused chiefly by the drawing and shrinking of the
 tens of the metal were tested for tensile strength, and varied
 per square inch in sound pieces to 1000 lbs. in spongy ones.
 flaws showed on the surface, and a rigid examination of the
 ey were erected failed to give any cause to suspect their true
 timents were carried on for some time after the accident in
 Company's foundry in attempting to duplicate the flaws, but
 s in approaching the badness of these castings.

MALLEABLE CAST IRON.

Cast iron, or malleable iron castings, are castings made
 from which have been subjected to a process of decarbur-

Rules for Use of Malleable Castings, by Committee of Machine Builders' Ass'n, 1890.

1. Never run abruptly from a heavy to a light section.
2. As the strength of malleable cast iron lies in the skin, expose as much surface as possible. A star-shaped section is the strongest possible for which a casting can be made. For brackets use a number of thin ribs instead of one thick one.
3. Avoid all round sections; practice has demonstrated this to be the weakest form. Avoid sharp angles.
4. Shrinkage generally in castings will be $3/16$ in. per foot.

Strength of Malleable Cast Iron.—Experiments on the strength of malleable cast iron, made in 1891 by a committee of the Machine Builders' Association. The strength of this metal varies with the thickness as the following results on specimens from $1/4$ in. to $1 1/2$ in. in thickness show:

Dimensions.		Tensile Strength.	Elongation.	Elastic Limit.
in.	in.	lb. per sq. in.	percent in 4 in.	lb. per sq. in.
1.52	by .25	34,700	2	21,700
1.52	" .30	33,700	2	15,340
1.53	" .5	32,800	2	17,000
1.53	" .64	32,100	2	19,400
2.	" .78	25,100	$1 1/4$	15,400
1.51	" .88	33,600	$1 1/2$	19,300
1 06	" 1 02	30,600	1	17,000
1.38	" 1.3	27,400	1	
1.52	" 1.54	28,300	$1 1/4$	

The low ductility of the metal is worthy of notice. The committee give the following table of the comparative tensile resistance and ductility of malleable cast iron, as compared with other materials:

	Ultimate Strength, lb. per sq. in.	Comparative Strength; Cast Iron = 1.	Elongation Per Cent in 4 in.	Comparative Ductility Malleable Cast Iron = 1.
Cast iron	20,000	1	0.35	0.17
Malleable cast iron.	32,000	1.6	2.00	1
Wrought iron	50,000	2.5	30.00	10
Steel castings	60,000	3	10.00	3

Another series of tests, reported to the Association in 1892, gave the following:

Thickness.	Width.	Area.	Elastic Limit.	Ultimate Strength.	Elongation in 8 in.
in.	in.	sq. in.	lb. per sq.	lb. per sq. in.	percent
.271	2.81	.7615	23,520	32,620	1.5
.293	2.78	.8145	22,650	28,160	.6
.39	2.82	1.098	20,595	32,060	1.3
.41	2.79	1.144	20,220	28,850	1.9
.529	2.76	1.46	19,520	27,875	1.1
.661	2.81	1.857	18,840	25,700	.7
.8	2.76	2.308	18,390	25,120	1.1
1 025	2.82	2.890	18,220	28,720	1.3
1 117	2.81	3.138	17,050	25,510	1.3
1 021	2.82	2.879	18,410	26,950	1.3

WROUGHT IRON.

Influence of Chemical Composition on the Properties of Wrought Iron. (Beardslee on Wrought Iron and Chain Cables. Reprint by W. Kent. Wiley & Sons, 1879.)—A series of 2000 tests of mens from 14 brands of wrought iron, most of them of high repute, made in 1877 by Capt. L. A. Beardslee, U.S.N., of the United States Army Board. Forty-two chemical analyses were made of these irons, in a view to determine what influence the chemical composition had on the strength, ductility, and welding power. From the report of these by A. L. Holley the following figures are taken :

No.	Average Tensile Strength.	Chemical Composition.					
		S.	P.	Si.	C.	Mn.	Slag.
	66,598	trace	0.065	0.080	0.212	0.005	0.192
			0.084	0.105	0.512	0.029	0.452
	54,363	0.009	0.250	0.182	0.038	0.033	0.848
		0.001	0.095	0.028	0.066	0.009	1.214
	52,764	0.008	0.231	0.156	0.015	0.017
		0.003	0.140	0.182	0.027	trace	0.678
	51,754	0.005	0.291	0.221	0.051	0.053	1.724
		0.004	0.067	0.065	0.045	0.007	1.168
	51,134	0.005	0.078	0.073	0.042	0.005	0.974
		0.007	0.189	0.154	0.042	0.021

Where two analyses are given they are the extremes of two or more analyses of the brand. Where one is given it is the only analysis. Brand L may be classed as a puddled steel.

ORDER OF QUALITIES GRADED FROM NO. 1 TO NO. 19.

Brand.	Tensile Strength.	Reduction of Area.	Elongation.	Welding Power.
L	1	18	19	most imperfect.
P	6	6	3	badly.
B	12	16	15	best.
J	16	19	18	rather badly.
O	18	1	4	very good.
C	19	12	16	—

Reduction of area varied from 54.2 to 25.9 per cent, and the elongation 29.9 to 8.3 per cent.

Brand O, the purest iron of the series, ranked No. 18 in tensile strength, and was one of the most ductile; brand B, quite impure, was below the rest both in strength and ductility, but was the best in welding power; brand J, quite impure, was one of the best in every respect except welding; brand L, the highest in strength, was not the most pure, it had the least ductility, and its welding power was most imperfect. The evidence of the influence of chemical composition upon quality, therefore, is quite contrary to what is commonly supposed, and confusing. The irons differing remarkably in their mechanical properties, it was found that a much more marked influence upon their quality was caused by different treatment in rolling than by differences in chemical composition.

As regards slag Mr. Holley says: "It appears that the smallest and purest iron often has the most slag. It is hence reasonable to conclude that an iron may be dirty and yet thoroughly condensed." In his summary of "What is learned from chemical analysis," he says: "In general, it may appear that little of use to the makers or users of wrought iron has been learned. . . . The character of steel can be surely predicted from the analyses of the materials; that of wrought iron is altered by different treatment, and unobserved causes."

Influence of Reduction in Rolling from Pile to Bar on the Strength of Wrought Iron.—The tensile strength of the irons of the series Beardslee's tests ranged from 46,000 to 62,700 lbs. per sq. in. The iron of No. 19 was really a steel, not being considered. Some specimens of the iron of No. 19 were as high as 70,000 lbs. The amount of reduction of

area in rolling the bars has a notable influence on the strength and elastic limit; the greater the reduction from pile to bar the higher the strength. The following are a few figures from tests of one of the brands:

Size of bar, in. diam.:	4	3	2	1	$\frac{1}{2}$
Area of pile, sq. in.:	80	80	72	25	9
Bar per cent of pile:	15.7	8.83	4.36	3.14	2.17
Tensile strength, lb.:	46,322	47,761	48,280	51,128	52,275
Elastic limit, lb.:	23,430	26,400	31,892	36,467	39,126

Specifications for Wrought Iron (F. H. Lewis, Engineers' Code of Philadelphia, 1891).—1. All wrought iron must be tough, ductile, free and of uniform quality for each class, straight, smooth, free from pits, pockets, flaws, buckles, blisters, and injurious cracks along the edges, and must have a workmanlike finish. No specific process or provision of manufacture will be demanded, provided the material fulfils the requirements of these specifications.

2. The tensile strength, limit of elasticity, and ductility shall be determined from a standard test-piece not less than $\frac{1}{4}$ inch thick, cut from a full-sized bar, and planed or turned parallel. The area of cross-section shall not be less than $\frac{1}{4}$ square inch. The elongation shall be measured at breaking on an original length of 8 inches.

3. The tests shall show not less than the following results:

	Ultimate Strength, lbs. per sq. inch.	Limit of Elasticity, lbs. per sq. inch.	Elongation 8 inches per cent
For bar iron in tension	50,000	26,000	13
For shape iron	48,000	26,000	15
For plates under 36 in. wide,	48,000	26,000	12
For plates over 36 in. wide	46,000	25,000	10

4. When full-sized tension members are tested to prove the strength of their connections, a reduction in their ultimate strength of (500 × width bar) pounds per square inch will be allowed.

5. All iron shall bend, cold, 180 degrees around a curve whose diameter is twice the thickness of piece for bar iron, and three times the thickness for plates and shapes.

6. Iron which is to be worked hot in the manufacture must be capable of bending sharply to a right angle at a working heat without signs of fracture.

7. Specimens of tensile iron upon being nicked on one side and bent shall show a fracture nearly all fibrous.

8. All rivet iron must be tough and soft, and be capable of bending until the sides are in close contact without sign of fracture on the concave side of the curve.

Pennsylvania Railroad Specifications for Merchant Iron or Steel.—Miscellaneous merchant bar iron or steel for which special specifications defining shapes and uses are issued, should have tensile strength of 50,000 to 55,000 lbs. per square inch and an elongation 20% in a section originally 2 inches long.

No iron or steel will be accepted under this specification if tensile strength falls below 48,000 lbs. or goes above 60,000 lbs. per square inch, nor if elongation is less than 15% in 2 inches, nor if it shows a granular fracture covering more than 50% of the fractured surface, nor if it shows any difficulty in welding.

In preparing test-pieces from round or rectangular bars, they will be turned or shaped so that the tested sections may be the central portion of the bar, in all sizes up to $\frac{1}{4}$ inches in any diametrical or side measurement. In larger sizes test-pieces will be made to fall about half-way from centre to circumference.

Bars of iron $\frac{1}{4}$ in. thick or less, or tortured forms of iron, such as angle, channel, etc., will be accepted if tensile strength is above 45,000 lbs. per square inch; but the testing of such sizes and sections is optional.

ions for Wrought Iron for the World's Fair

(*Eng'g News*, March 26, 1892.)—All iron to be used in the
rs of open trusses, laterals, pins and bolts, except plate iron
ride, and shaped iron, must show by the standard test-pieces
gth in lbs. per square inch of :

$$52,000 - \frac{7,000 \times \text{area of original bar in sq. in.}}{\text{circumference of original bar in inches}}$$

limit not less than half the strength given by this formula,
tion of 30% in 8 in.

l inches wide and under, and more than 8 inches wide, must
andard test-pieces a tensile strength of 48,000 lbs. per sq. in.

limit not less than 26,000 lbs. per square inch, and an elon-
s than 12%. All plates over 24 inches in width must have a

th not less than 46,000 lbs., with an elastic limit not less than
square inch. Plates from 24 inches to 36 inches in width must

ation of not less than 10%; those from 36 inches to 48 inches in
r 48 inches in width, 5%.

on, flanges of beams and channels, and other iron not herein-
d, must show by the standard test-pieces a tensile strength in

inch of :

$$50,000 - \frac{7,000 \times \text{area of original bar}}{\text{circumference of original bar}}$$

limit of not less than half the strength given by this formula,
ion of 15% for bars 5/8 inch and less in thickness, and of 12% for

r thickness. For webs of beams and channels, specifications
apply.

a must be tough and soft, and pieces of the full diameter of
be capable of bending cold, until the sides are in close contact,

fracture on the convex side of the curve.

Iron.—Mr. Vauclain, of the Baldwin Locomotive Works,
of the American Railway Master Mechanics' Association, in

ay advocate the softest iron in the market as the best for
e believed in an iron as hard as was consistent with heading

. The higher the tensile strength of the iron, the more vibra-
and, for it is not so easily strained beyond the yield-point.

specifications for stay-bolt iron call for a tensile strength of
lbs. per square inch, the upper figure being preferred, and

g insisted upon as the minimum.

TABLE FOR UNIT STRAINS FOR IRON AND STEEL IN STRUCTURES.

H. Lewis, Engineers' Club of Philadelphia, 1891.)

g formulae for unit strains per square inch of net sectional
used in determining the allowable working stress in each mem-
berature. (For definitions of soft and medium steel see Specifi-

cal.)

Tension Members.

	Wrought Iron.	Soft Steel.	Medium Steel.
angers or forged	Will not be used	Will not be used	7000
.....	6000	" " "	7000
hangers			
riveted			
net sec-			
.....	5000	5500	7000
ams.....	8000	8000	Will not be used
members			
flanges			
net sec-			
.....	7000 (1 + $\frac{\text{min.}}{\text{max.}}$)	8% greater than iron	9000 (1 + $\frac{\text{min.}}{\text{max.}}$)
s.....	Will not be used	Will not be used	9000 (1 + $\frac{\text{min.}}{\text{max.}}$)
ross-sec-			
.....	15,000	16,000	(For eyebars only, 17,500)

Shearing.

	Wrought Iron.	Soft Steel.	Medium Steel.
On pins and shop rivets	6000	6000	7300
On field rivets,	4800	5300	Will not be used
In webs of girders,	Will not be used	5000	6000

Bearing.

	Wrought Iron.	Soft Steel.	Medium Steel.
On projected semi-intrados of main-pin holes	12,000	13,300	14,500
On projected semi-intrados of rivet-holes*	12,000	13,300	14,500
On lateral pins	15,000	16,500	18,000
Of bed-plates on masonry	250 lbs. per sq. in.		

* Excepting that in pin-connected members taking alternate stresses, the bearing stress must not exceed 9000 lbs. for iron or steel.

Bending.

On extreme fibres of pins when centres of bearings are considered as points of application of strains:

Wrought Iron, 15,000. Soft Steel, 16,000. Medium Steel, 17,000.

Compression Members.

	Wrought Iron.	Soft Steel.	Medium Steel.
Chord sections:			
Flat ends	$7000 \left(1 + \frac{\text{min.}}{\text{max.}}\right) - 30 \frac{l}{r}$	10% greater than iron	20% greater than iron
One flat and one pin end ..	$7000 \left(1 + \frac{\text{min.}}{\text{max.}}\right) - 35 \frac{l}{r}$		
Chords with pin ends and all end-posts	$7000 \left(1 + \frac{\text{min.}}{\text{max.}}\right) - 40 \frac{l}{r}$		
All trestle-posts	$7000 \left(1 + \frac{\text{min.}}{\text{max.}}\right) - 35 \frac{l}{r}$		
Intermediate posts	$7500 - 40 \frac{l}{r}$		
Lateral struts, and compression in collision struts, stiff suspenders and stiff chords.	$10,500 - 50 \frac{l}{r}$		

In which formulæ l = length of compression member in inches, and r = least radius of gyration of member in inches. No compression member shall have a length exceeding 45 times its least width, and no post should be used in which $l \div r$ exceeds 125.

Members Subject to Alternate Tension and Compression.

	Wrought Iron.	Soft Steel.	Medium Steel.
For compression only ...	Use the formulæ above		
For the greatest stress ..	$7000 \left(1 - \frac{\text{max. lesser}}{2 \text{ max. greater}}\right)$	8% greater than iron	30% greater than it

Use the formula giving the greatest area of section.
The compression flanges of beams and plate girders shall have the cross-section as the tension flanges.

Burr, discussing the formulæ proposed by Mr. Lewis, says: "Taking the results of experiments as a whole, I am constrained to believe that they indicate at least 15% increase of resistance for soft-steel columns over those for cast iron, with from 20% to 25% for medium steel, rather than 10% and 15% respectively."

The high capacity of soft steel for enduring torture fits it eminently for columns and combined stresses, and for that reason I would give it 15% over iron, with about 22% for medium steel.

The bending tests on steel seem to show that 15% and 22% increases, for the same stresses respectively, are amply justified.

I would not hesitate to assign 15% and 22% increases over values for iron in the case of bending of soft and medium steel as being within the safe margin of experience. Provision should also be made for increasing pin-bending and bearing stresses for increasing ratios of fixed to moving loads.

Maximum Permissible Stresses in Structural Materials

Buildings. (Building Ordinances of the City of Chicago, 1893.)

Crushing stress: For plates, 15,000 lbs. per square inch; for lintels, girders, or corbels, compression 13,500 lbs. per square inch, and tension 12,000 lbs. per square inch. For girders, beams, corbels, brackets, and trusses, 10,000 lbs. per square inch for steel and 12,000 lbs. for iron.

For rivets:

$$\text{Flange area} = \frac{\text{maximum bending moment in ft.-lbs.}}{CD}$$

Distance between centre of gravity of flanges in feet.

3,500 for steel.

6,000 for iron.

$$\text{Web area} = \frac{\text{maximum shear}}{C} \quad C = \begin{cases} 10,000 & \text{for steel,} \\ 6,000 & \text{for iron.} \end{cases}$$

Stresses in single shear per square inch of rivet area:

	Steel.	Iron.
Shop-driven.....	9000 lbs.	7500 lbs.
Field-driven.....	7500 "	6000 "

For cover girders:

b = breadth of beam in inches.

d = depth of beam in inches.

l = length of beam in feet.

$$S = \frac{cbd^2}{l}$$

c = $\begin{cases} 160 & \text{for long-leaf yellow pine,} \\ 120 & \text{for oak,} \\ 100 & \text{for white or Norway pine.} \end{cases}$

Proportioning of Materials in the Memphis Bridge (Geo. B. Frick, *Trans. A. S. C. E.*, 1893).

The entire superstructure of the Memphis bridge is of steel and it was all worked as steel, the rivet-holes being punched in all principal members and punched and reamed in the lighter members.

The tension members were proportioned on the basis of allowing the dead load to produce a strain of 20,000 lbs. per square inch, and the live load a strain of 10,000 lbs. per square inch. In the case of the central span, where the live load was twice the dead load, this corresponded to 15,000 lbs. total strain per square inch, this being the greatest tensile strain.

The compression members were proportioned on a somewhat arbitrary basis. A distinction was made between live and dead loads. A maximum strain of 14,000 lbs. per square inch was allowed on the chords and other compression members where the length did not exceed 16 times the least transverse dimension, this strain being reduced 750 lbs. for each additional foot of length. In long compression members the maximum length was limited to 30 times the least transverse dimension, and the strains were limited to 6,000 lbs. per square inch, this amount being increased by 200 lbs. for every unit by which the length is decreased.

Wherever reversals of strains occur the member was proportioned to resist the maximum of compression and tension on whichever basis (tension or compression) there would be the greatest strain per square inch; and, in the case of the net section, it was proportioned to resist the maximum tension, and in the case of the gross section to resist the maximum compression.

The stresses on beams and girders were calculated on the strain being limited to 10,000 lbs. per square inch in extreme fibres. Rivet-holes in cover-plates were deducted.

The rivets of steel in drilled or reamed holes were proportioned on the basis of a bearing strain of 15,000 lbs. per square inch and a shearing strain of 7500 lbs. per square inch, and special pains were taken to get the double shear in as many rivets as possible. This was the requirement for all rivets. In the case of field rivets, the number was increased one-half.

The pins were proportioned on the basis of a bearing strain of 18,000 lbs. per square inch and a bending strain of 30,000 lbs. per square inch in extreme fibre, the diameters of the pins being never made more than one half less than the width of the largest eye-bar attaching to them.

The weight on the rollers of the expansion joint on Pier II is 40,000 lbs. per linear foot of roller, or 3,333 lbs. per linear inch, the rollers being 15 in. in diameter.

As the sections of the superstructure were unusually heavy, and the strain from dead load greatly in excess of those from moving load, it was thought best to use a slightly higher steel than is now generally used for light structures, and to work this steel without punching, all holes being drilled. A somewhat softer steel was used in the floor-system and other light parts.

The principal requirements which were to be obtained as the result of tests on samples cut from finished material were as follows:

	Max. Ultimate Strength, lbs. per sq. inch.	Min. Ultimate Strength, lbs. per sq. inch.	Min. Elastic Limit, lbs. per sq. in.	Min. percentage of Elongation in 8 inches.	Min. Percentage of Reduction at Fracture
High-grade steel.	78,500	69,000	40,000	18	38
Eye-bar steel....	75,000	66,000	38,000	20	40
Medium steel....	72,500	64,000	37,000	22	44
Soft steel.....	63,000	55,000	30,000	28	50

TENACITY OF METALS AT VARIOUS TEMPERATURES.

The British Admiralty made a series of experiments to ascertain what effect of strength and ductility takes place in gun-metal compositions when raised to high temperatures. It was found that all the varieties of gun-metal suffer a gradual but not serious loss of strength and ductility up to a certain temperature, at which, within a few degrees, a great change takes place; the strength falls to about one half the original, and the ductility is almost gone. At temperatures above this point, up to 500°, there is little, if any further loss of strength; the temperature at which this great change takes place, a loss of strength takes place, although uniform in the specimens cast in the same pot, varies about 100° in the same composition cast at different temperatures, or with some varying conditions in the foundry process. The temperature at which the change took place in No. 1 series was ascertained to be about 370°, and in that of No. 2, at a little over 350°. Whether this may be the cause of this important difference in the same composition, is a fact stated may be taken as certain. Rolled Muntz metal and copper wrought iron up to 500°, and may be used as securing-bolts with safety. Wrought iron, Yorkshire and remanufactured, increase in strength up to 500°, but lose slightly in ductility up to 300°, where an increase begins to continue up to 500°, where it is still less than at the ordinary temperature of the atmosphere. The strength of Landore steel is not affected by temperature up to 500°, but its ductility is reduced more than one half. (*Iron Age*, 6, 1877.)

Tensile Strength of Iron and Steel at High Temperatures.—James E. Howard's tests (*Iron Age*, April 10, 1880), shows that the tensile strength of steel diminishes as the temperature increases from 70° until a minimum is reached between 200° and 300° F., the total decrease being about 4000 lbs. per square inch in the softer steels, and from 6000 to 8000 lbs. in steels of over 80,000 lbs. tensile strength. From this minimum the strength increases up to a temperature of 400° to 550° F., the maximum being reached in the harder steels, the increase amounting to 2,000 lbs. per square inch above the minimum strength at 70°.

on this maximum, the strength of all the steel decreases steadily proximating 10,000 lbs. decrease per 100° increase of temperature of 30,000 lbs. per square inch is still shown by .10 C. steel 0° F., and by .60 to 1.00 C. steel at about 1600° F.

Strength of wrought iron increases with temperature from 0° up to a point from 400 to 600° F., the increase being from 8000 to 10,000 lbs. per inch, and then decreases steadily till a strength of only 6000 lbs. per inch is shown at 1500° F.

Cast iron appears to maintain its strength, with a tendency to increase, up to a point reached, beyond which temperature the strength gradually decreases.

Under the highest temperatures, 1500° to 1600° F., numerous experiments on the cylindrical surface of the specimen were developed prior to this, it is remarkable that cast iron, so much inferior in strength to wrought iron at atmospheric temperature, under the highest temperatures has a strength equal to the high-temper steels then have.

Strength of Iron and Steel Boiler-plate at High Temperatures. (Chas. Huston, *Jour. F. I.*, 1877.)

AVERAGE OF THREE TESTS OF EACH.

Temperature, F.	68°	575°	925°
Iron plate, tensile strength, lbs.	55,366	63,080	65,343
" " contr. of area %.....	26	23	21
Hearth steel, tensile strength, lbs.	54,600	66,083	64,350
" " contr. %	47	38	33
Blue steel, tensile strength, lbs.	64,000	69,266	68,600
" " contr. %	36	30	21

Strength of Wrought Iron and Steel at High Temperatures. (*Jour. F. I.*, cxii., 1881, p. 241.)

Kollmann's experiments at Oberlin tests of the tensile strength of iron and steel at temperatures between 70° and 2000° F. Three kinds of metal were tested, wrought iron having an ultimate tensile strength of 52,464 lbs., an elastic limit of 25,280 lbs., and an elongation of 17.5%; fine-grained iron having an ultimate tensile strength of 56,892 lbs., 39,113 lbs., and 20%; and Bessemer steel having values of 84,826 lbs., 55,029 lbs., and 14.5%. The mean tensile strength of each material expressed in per cent of that at atmospheric temperature is given in the following table, the fifth column exhibits, for purposes of comparison, the results of experiments on by a committee of the Franklin Institute in the years

Temperature, F.	Fibrous Wrought Iron, p. c.	Fine-grained Iron, per cent.	Bessemer Steel, per cent.	Franklin Institute, per cent.
1000	100.0	100.0	100.0	96.0
1000	100.0	100.0	100.0	102.0
1000	100.0	100.0	100.0	105.0
970	100.0	100.0	100.0	106.0
955	100.0	100.0	100.0	106.0
925	98.5	98.5	98.5	104.0
885	95.5	95.5	92.0	99.5
815	90.0	90.0	68.0	92.5
675	77.5	77.5	44.0	75.5
445	51.5	51.5	36.5	53.5
260	36.0	36.0	31.0	36.0
200	30.5	30.5	26.5
180	28.0	28.0	22.0
165	23.0	23.0	18.0
135	19.0	19.0	15.0
100	15.5	15.5	12.0
70	12.5	12.5	10.0
55	10.5	10.5	8.5
45	8.5	8.5	7.5
35	7.0	7.0	6.5
35	5.0	5.0	5.0

Effect of Cold on the Strength of Iron and Steel.—The following conclusions were arrived at by Mr. Styffe in 1865:

1. The absolute strength of iron and steel is not diminished by cold, even at the lowest temperature which ever occurs in nature, and is as great as at the ordinary temperature (about 60° F.).

(2) That neither in steel nor in iron is the extensibility less in seven than at the ordinary temperature.

(3) That the limit of elasticity in both steel and iron lies higher in a cold.

(4) That the modulus of elasticity in both steel and iron is increased by reduction of temperature, and diminished on elevation of temperature; that these variations never exceed 0.05 % for a change of temperature of 1° F., and therefore such variations, at least for ordinary purposes, are of special importance.

Mr. C. P. Sandberg made in 1867 a number of tests of iron rails at various temperatures by means of a falling weight, since he was of opinion, although Mr. Styffe's conclusions were perfectly correct as regards tensile strength, they might not apply to the resistance of iron to impact at various temperatures. Mr. Sandberg convinced himself that "the breaking strength of iron, such as was usually employed for rails, " as tested by sudden shocks, is considerably influenced by cold; such iron exhibiting at only from one third to one fourth of the strength which it possesses at 84° F." Mr. J. J. Webster (Inst. C. E., 1880) gives reasons for doubting the accuracy of Mr. Sandberg's deductions, since the tests at the lower temperature were nearly all made with 21-ft. lengths of rail, while the higher temperatures were made with short lengths, the supposed every case being the same distance apart.

W. H. Barlow (Proc. Inst. C. E.) made experiments on bars of wrought iron, cast iron, malleable cast iron, Bessemer steel, and tool steel. They were tested with tensile and transverse strains, and also by impact. Half of them at a temperature of 50° F., and the other half at 5° F. The lower temperature was obtained by placing the bars in a freezing mixture care being taken to keep the bars covered with it during the whole time of the experiments.

The results of the experiments were summarized as follows:

1. When bars of wrought iron or steel were submitted to a tensile strain and broken, their strength was not affected by severe cold (5° F.), but ductility was increased about 1% in iron and 3% in steel.

2. When bars of cast iron were submitted to a transverse strain at the lower temperature, their strength was diminished about 3% and their flexibility about 16%.

3. When bars of wrought iron, malleable cast iron, steel, and ordinary cast iron were subjected to impact at a temperature of 5° F., the force required to break them, and the extent of their flexibility, were reduced as follows, viz.:

	Reduction of Force of Impact, per cent.	Reduction of Flexibility, per cent.
Wrought iron, about	3	18
Steel (best cast tool), about	3½	17
Malleable cast iron, about	4½	18
Cast iron, about	21	not taken.

The experience of railways in Russia, Canada, and other countries where the winter is severe is that the breakages of rails and tires are far more numerous in the cold weather than in the summer. On this account a softer class of steel is employed in Russia for rails than is usual in temperate climates.

The evidence extant in relation to this matter leaves no doubt that the capability of wrought iron or steel to resist impact is reduced by cold. On the other hand, its static strength is not impaired by low temperatures.

Effect of Low Temperatures on Strength of Rail Axles. (Thos. Andrews, Proc. Inst. C. E., 1891.)—Axles 6 ft. 6 in. between centres of journals, total length 7 ft. 3¼ in., diameter at middle 1½ in., at wheel-sets 5¼ in., journals 3¼ × 7 in. were tested by impact at temperatures of 0° and 100° F. Between the blows each axle was half turned, and was also replaced for 15 minutes in the water-bath.

The mean force of concussion resulting from each impact was ascertained as follows:

Let h = height of free fall in feet, w = weight of test ball, hw = "energy," or work in foot-tons, x = extent of deflections between best

$$\text{then } F^2 (\text{mean force}) = \frac{1W}{x} = \frac{hw}{x}$$

Its of these experiments show that whereas at a temperature of 179 tons was sufficient to cause the fracture of the axles, at a temperature of 100° F. a total average mean of 8 tons was requisite to produce fracture. In other words, the re-concussion of the axles at a temperature of 0° F. was only about 1/8 of what it was at a temperature of 100° F. The average total deflection at a temperature of 0° F. was 6.48 in., as against 10.06 in. with the axles at 100° F. under the conditions stated; this is an ultimate reduction of flexibility, under the test of impact, of 35 per cent. for the cold axles at 0° F., compared with the warm axles at 100° F.

EXPANSION OF IRON AND STEEL BY HEAT.

Prof. Howard, engineer in charge of the U. S. testing-machine at Watertown, Mass., gives the following results of tests made on bars 35 inches long (Age, April 10, 1890):

Material.	Marks.	Chemical composition.				Coefficient of Expansion.
		C.	Mn.	Si.	Fe by difference.	Per degree F. per unit of length.
Cast Iron.....						.0000067302
.....	1a	.09	.11		99.80	.0000067561
.....	2a	.20	.45		99.35	.0000066259
.....	3a	.31	.57		99.12	.0000065149
.....	4a	.37	.70		98.93	.0000066597
.....	5a	.51	.58	.02	98.89	.0000066202
.....	6a	.57	.93	.07	98.43	.0000063891
.....	7a	.71	.58	.08	98.63	.0000064716
.....	8a	.81	.56	.17	98.46	.0000062167
.....	9a	.89	.57	.19	98.35	.0000062335
.....	10a	.97	.80	.28	97.95	.0000061700
Cast Iron.....						.0000059261
Cast Steel.....						.0000091286

DURABILITY OF IRON, CORROSION, ETC.

Quality of Cast Iron.—Frederick Graff, in an article on the quality of water-supply, says that the first cast-iron pipe used there was made of charcoal iron, and were in constant use for 20 years. They were uncoated, and the inside was well filled with sand.

In salt water good cast iron, even uncoated, will last for a century; but it often becomes soft enough to be cut by a knife, as is the case with the iron cannon taken up from the bottom of harbors after long submersion. Close-grained, hard white metal lasts the longest in sea water.—Age, April 23, 1887, and March 26, 1892.

Strength of Iron after Forty Years' Service.—A square link 12 inches wide, 1 inch thick and about 12 feet long was taken from the Kieff bridge in 40 years old, and tested in comparison with a similar link which had been preserved in the stock-house since the bridge was built. The following table shows the record of a mean of four longitudinal test-pieces, 1 x 1 1/4 x 8 inches in size, taken from each link (Stahl und Eisen, 1890):

	Old Link taken from Bridge.	New Link from Store-house.
Strength per square inch, tons	21.8	22.2
Elongation, per cent.	11.1	11.9
Reduction, per cent.	14.05	13.42
Contraction, per cent.	17.35	18.75

Quality of Iron in Bridges. (G. Lindenthal, Eng'g, May 2, 1891).—The Old Monongahela suspension bridge in Pittsburgh, Pa., was taken down in 1882. The wires of the cables were frayed and broken, but retained half of their ultimate strength, yet on testing them after 37 years' service they were found to be as strong as when first used.

use they showed a tensile strength of from 73,700 to 100,000 lbs. per inch. The elastic limit was from 67,100 to 78,600 lbs. per square inch at point of fracture, 35% to 75%. Their diameter was 0.13 in.

A new ordinary telegraph wire of same gauge tested for comparison showed: T. S., of 100,000 lbs.; E. L., 81,550 lbs.; reduction, 5%. It used as stays or suspenders showed: T. S., 43,770 to 49,730 lbs. per inch; E. L., 26,380 to 29,200. Mr. Lindenthal draws these conclusions from his tests:

"The above tests indicate that iron highly strained for a long number of years, but still within the elastic limit, and exposed to slight vibrations, does not deteriorate in quality.

"That if subjected to only one kind of strain it will not change its texture even if strained beyond its elastic limit, for many years. It will still behave much as in a testing-machine during a long test.

"That iron will change its texture only when exposed to alternate straining, as in bending in different directions. If the bending is still very rapid, as in violent vibrations, the effect is the same."

Corrosion of Iron Bolts.—On bridges over the Thames in London, bolts exposed to the action of the atmosphere and rain-water were found after 25 years from a diameter of $\frac{3}{8}$ in. to $\frac{1}{2}$ in., and from $\frac{1}{2}$ in. to $\frac{5}{16}$ in.

Wire ropes exposed to drip in colliery shafts are very liable to corrosion. **Corrosion of Iron and Steel.**—Experiments made at the B. & O. Iron Works, Wheeling, W. Va., on the comparative liability to rust of soft Bessemer steel: A piece of iron plate and a similar piece of steel, both clean and bright, were placed in a mixture of yellow loam at which had been thoroughly incorporated some carbonate of soda, soda, ammonium chloride, and chloride of magnesium. The mixture prepared was kept moist. At the end of 33 days the pieces of metal were taken out, cleaned, and weighed, when the iron was found to have lost 1.7% of its weight and the steel 0.73%. The pieces were replaced and after 66 days weighed again, when the iron was found to have lost 2.06% of its weight and the steel 1.79%. (*Eng'g.*, June 26, 1891.)

Corrosive Agents in the Atmosphere.—The experiments of Crace Calvert (*Chemical News*, March 3, 1871) show that carbonic dioxide, the presence of moisture, is the agent which determines the rate of corrosion of iron in the atmosphere. He subjected perfectly cleaned blades of iron to the action of different gases for a period of four months, and obtained the following results:

Dry oxygen, dry carbonic acid, a mixture of both gases, dry ammonia, and ammonia: no oxidation. Damp oxygen: in three experiments one blade only was slightly oxidized.

Damp carbonic acid: slight appearance of a white precipitate on iron, found to be carbonate of iron. Damp carbonic acid and ammonia: oxidation very rapid. Iron immersed in water containing carbonic dioxide oxidized rapidly.

Iron immersed in distilled water deprived of its gases by boiling, showed iron in spots that were found to contain impurities.

Galvanic action is a most active agent of corrosion. If two dissimilar metals, one electro-negative to the other, are placed in contact and exposed to dampness.

Sulphurous acid (the product of the combustion of the sulphur in the atmosphere) is an exceedingly active corrosive agent, especially when the exposed surface is coated with soot. This accounts for the rapid corrosion of iron in bridges exposed to the smoke from locomotives. (See account of experiments by the author on action of sulphurous acid in *Jour. Frank. Inst.*, 1875, p. 437.) An analysis of sooty iron rust from a railway bridge showed the presence of sulphurous, sulphuric, and carbonic acids, chlorides, and ammonia. Bloxam states that ammonia is formed from the nitrogen in the air during the process of rusting.

Rustless Coatings for Iron and Steel.—Tinning, enameling, galvanizing, electro-chemical painting, and other preservative methods are discussed in two important papers by M. P. Wood, in *A. S. M. E.*, vols. xv and xvi.

A Method of Producing an Inoxidizable Surface on Iron and Steel by means of electricity has been developed by M. A. Leitch (*Engineering*). The article to be protected is placed in a bath of pure or distilled water, at a temperature of from 158° to 175° F., and an electric current is sent through. The water is decomposed into its elements.

and hydrogen, and the oxygen is deposited on the metal, while the anode appears at the other pole, which may either be the tank in which the current is conducted or a plate of carbon or metal. The current has sufficient electromotive force to overcome the resistance of the circuit to decompose the water; for if it be stronger than this, the oxygen combines with the iron to produce a pulverulent oxide, which has no adherence. Under the best conditions are as they should be, it is only a few minutes after the current is applied to the metal before the darkening of the surface shows that the gas has united with the iron to form the magnetic oxide Fe_3O_4 , which is well known to resist the action of the air and protect the metal from rust. After the action has continued an hour or two the coating is sufficiently solid to resist the scratch-brush, and it will then take a brilliant

polish. A piece of thickly rusted iron placed in the bath, its sesquioxide is rapidly transformed into the magnetic oxide. This outer layer adheres, but beneath it there will be found a coating which is a part of the metal itself.

In early experiments M. de Meritens employed pieces of steel only, but he found that wrought and cast iron was not successful, for the coating came off at the slightest friction. He then placed the iron at the negative pole of the battery, after it had been already applied to the positive pole. Here the current was reduced, and hydrogen was accumulated in the pores of the metal. The specimens were then returned to the anode, when it was found that the magnetic oxide appeared quite readily and was very solid. But the result was not quite perfect, and it was not until the bath was filled with distilled water and a piece of that from the public supply, that a perfectly satisfactory result was attained.

Manganese Plating of Iron as a Protection from Rust. According to the Italian *Progresso*, articles of iron can be protected from rust by sinking them near the negative pole of an electric bath composed of 10 litres of water, 50 grammes of chloride of manganese, and 200 grammes of nitrate of ammonium. Under the influence of the current the metal is coated with a film of metallic manganese which prevents rusting.

Non-oxidizing Process of Annealing is described by H. C. Jones, in *Eng'g News*, Jan. 2, 1892. The ordinary process of annealing, in which hard and brittle iron or steel is rendered soft and tough, consists in heating the metal to a good red-heat and then allowing it to cool slowly. While the metal is in a heated condition the surface becomes oxidized, and although for many classes of work the scale of oxide is of no great importance, yet in some cases it is very undesirable and even requires considerable expense in its removal.

The new process uses a non-oxidizing gas, and is the invention of Mr. C. Jones, of Hartford, Conn. The principal feature of this process is in keeping the annealing-retort in communication with the gas supply, so that the gas remains in the retort during the heating and cooling, and being allowed to expand back into the main, and being, therefore, practically constant pressure.

The retorts used are made from wrought-iron tubes. The gas used is supplied directly from the mains supplying the city with illuminating gas. It is found that if metal which had been blued or slightly oxidized was subjected to the annealing process it came out bright, the oxide being reduced to a fine powder by the action of the gas. Practical use has been made of this fact in deoxidizing iron.

Comparative tests were made of specimens of metal annealed in illuminating gas and of specimens annealed in nitrogen. The results of these tests compared with the results of tests of specimens annealed in an open retort, cooled in ashes, and of specimens of the unannealed metal, and the relative efficiency of the gas process was determined.

Specimens were made from steel wire, .188 in. in diameter and were drawn to diameters of .156 and .150 in. Different lots of wire were used in order to secure average results. The elongations were in each case reduced to an original length of 1.15 ins.

The difference in total per cent of elongation and in breaking load between specimens annealed in nitrogen and those annealed in illuminating gas was slight. The average results were as follows:

Lot.	Gas used.	No. Test Pieces.	Breaking Load, lbs. per sq. in.	Elongation.	
				Total p. c.	p. c. 2 1/2 in.
A	Nitrogen	4	62,140	29.12	22.66
B	Illuminating	4	63,140	28.08	29.82
C	Nitrogen	4	60,000	28.00	19.22
D	Illuminating	4	60,400	27.20	18.44
E	Nitrogen	5	57,330	30.88	23.71
F	Illuminating	5	57,070	29.60	22.42
G	Open fire	8	63,090	26.76	19.61
H	Unannealed	5	97,120	7.12
I	Unannealed	5	80,790	8.80

Painting Wood and Iron Structures. (E. H. Brown, Ed. Club of Phila., *Engineering News*, April 20, 1893.)—A paint consists of a portious—the pigment and the vehicle or binder. The pigment is a substance which is more or less finely ground, so as to be capable of being spread out in a thin layer or coating (if mixed with the vehicle) of being spread out in a thin layer or coating of the surface to be painted. The vehicle or binder is the liquid in which the pigment is mixed or ground, which serves to spread the pigment over the surface to be painted, and which also holds it to that surface. For painting the most generally used vehicle is linseed oil.

Linseed oil possesses the peculiar property of drying by uniting with the oxygen of the air to form a tough, leather-like compound called linoleum.

For painting on wood, zinc white has valuable pigment properties; these seem to be most fully developed when this pigment is used in conjunction with white lead, and then to the best advantage when the zinc white is used as a final coat over an elastic undercoating of white lead. So far other white base has been discovered which possesses at the same time the other properties which render white lead valuable, namely, covering and spreading capacity.

Of the inert pigments, lampblack is probably the most valuable. It is almost pure carbon, it is practically unchangeable except by fire. It has the peculiar property of absorbing great quantities of linseed oil, and hence spreading over a large surface. French ochre, an earth pigment containing more or less of the hydrated oxide of iron, possesses the property of absorbing a large quantity of oil, and hence has considerable spreading capacity and also holds very firmly to any wooden surface to which it may be applied.

The various mineral and metallic paints are almost all natural or artificial iron oxides. While these are cheap and useful for painting rough wood structures they are sometimes really quite dangerous for application to work, because, instead of preventing oxidation, they are apt to further it.

Coal tar is much used as a paint for the roughest class of work, both on wood and iron; in the latter case especially for cast-iron pipes, smokestacks, and work to be buried underground. It has the nature both of a resin and an oil. It has the disadvantage of becoming exceedingly brittle by the action of heat and softening at 115° F. Asphalt permits of somewhat wider range of temperature, but otherwise exhibits the same peculiarities. These substances, when they last, are probably the most valuable of paints, especially under conditions, but they are unfortunate in their tendency to flow or crawl on the surface to which they are applied, finally leaving the upper portions almost or entirely bare. This is the case even under ground.

Red lead has long been regarded as the best possible preservative for iron. But in order to be most effective, the iron must be perfectly clean and free from any suspicions of rust, and absolutely dry. Red lead should be perfectly pure and of the best and most careful preparation. There are many well-known corroding houses may be depended upon for purity, but always for quality. It is simply a red oxide of lead. The best type is the mineral, which is made by roasting white lead. On account of its cost this is not so frequently used as it would deserve. Red lead proper is obtained directly from the metal, which is first oxidized to the yellow litharge, then to the red oxide. This, however, does not give as good a paint as the mineral.

When red lead is mixed with linseed oil, it must be used with care. The oil should be mixed with linseed oil, it must be used with care. The oil should be mixed with linseed oil, it must be used with care. The oil should be mixed with linseed oil, it must be used with care.

Silicon is so low in this steel that its hardening effect has been considered.

With the above additions for carbon and phosphorus the following has been constructed (abridged from the original by Mr. Webster) figures given the additions for sulphur and manganese should be above.

Estimated Ultimate Strengths of Basic Bessemer Plates.

For Carbon, .06 to .34; Phosphorus, .00 to .10; Manganese and Sulphur in all cases.

Carbon.	.06	.08	.10	.12	.14	.16	.18	.20
Phos. .005	39,950	41,550	43,250	44,950	46,650	48,300	49,900	51,500
" .01	40,350	41,950	43,750	45,550	47,350	49,050	50,650	52,250
" .02	41,150	42,750	44,750	46,750	48,750	50,550	52,150	53,750
" .03	41,950	43,550	45,750	47,950	50,150	52,050	53,650	55,250
" .04	42,750	44,350	46,750	49,150	51,550	53,550	55,150	56,750
" .05	43,550	45,150	47,750	50,350	52,950	55,050	56,650	58,250
" .06	44,350	45,950	48,750	51,550	54,350	56,550	58,150	59,750
" .07	45,150	46,750	49,750	52,750	55,750	58,050	59,650	61,250
" .08	45,950	47,550	50,750	53,950	57,150	59,550	61,150	62,750
" .09	46,750	48,350	51,750	55,150	58,550	61,050	62,650	64,250
" .10	47,550	49,150	52,750	56,350	59,950	62,550	64,150	65,750
.001 Phos =	80 lbs.	80 lbs.	100 lb	120 lb	140 lb	150 lb	150 lb	150 lb

In all rolled steel the quality depends on the size of the bloom from which it is rolled, the work put on it, and the temperature at which it is finished, as well as the chemical composition.

The above table is based on tests of plates $\frac{3}{8}$ inch thick and $\frac{1}{2}$ inch wide; for other plates Mr. Webster gives the following corrections for thickness and width. They are made necessary only by the thickness and width on the finishing temperature in ordinary steel is frequently spoiled by being finished at too high a temperature.

Corrections for Size of Plates.

Plates,	Up to 70 ins. wide,	Over 70
Inches thick,	Lbs.	Lbs.
$\frac{3}{8}$ and over.....	- 2000	-
11/16 "	- 1750	-
$\frac{5}{8}$ "	- 1500	-
9/16 "	- 1250	-
$\frac{7}{8}$ "	- 1000	-
7/16 "	- 500	-
$\frac{3}{8}$ "	0	-
5/16 "	+ 3000	+

Comparing the actual result of tests of 408 plates with the above results, Mr. Webster found the variation to range as in the table below.

Summary of the Differences Between Calculated and Actual Results in 408 Tests of Plate Steel.

In the first three columns the effects of sulphur were not considered, in the last three columns the effect of sulphur was estimated at .01% each .01% of S.

	Universal Mill.	Sheared.	Both Mills.	Universal Mill.	Sheared.	Both Mills.
Per cent within 1000 lbs..	23.4	32.1	25.4	24.6	27.0	26.0
" " " 2000 "	40.9	48.9	45.6	48.5	54.9	52.0
" " " 3000 "	62.5	71.3	67.6	67.8	73.0	71.0
" " " 4000 "	75.5	81.0	78.7	82.5	85.4	84.0
" " " 5000 "	89.5	91.1	90.4	93.0	92.8	92.0

figure in the table would indicate that if specifications were drawn for steel plates not to vary more than 5000 lbs. T. S. from a specified ton to a total range of 10,000 lbs.), there would be a probability of 1 in 5 of the blooms rolled, even if the whole lot was made of identical chemical analysis. In 1000 heats only 2% of the heats meet the requirements of the orders on which they were graded; of plates was much less than 1%, as one plate was rolled from each tested before rolling the remainder of the heat.

Hadfield (*Jour. Iron & Steel Inst.*, No. 1, 1894) gives the strength of Swedish iron, remelted and tested as cast, 20.1 tons (45,024 lbs.) n.; remelted and forged, 21 tons (47,040 lbs.). The analysis of the steel was: C, 0.08; Si, 0.04; S, 0.02; P, 0.03; Mn, 0.01; Fe, 99.82.

Effect of Oxygen upon Strength of Steel.—A. Lantz, of the works, Germany, in a letter to Mr. Webster, says: "We have found the current year (1893) that oxygen plays an important rôle, till now served—such, indeed, that given a like content of carbon, phosphorus or manganese in the blows, a blow with greater oxygen content gives a harder and less ductility than a blow with less oxygen content." The method used for determining oxygen is that of Prof. Ledebur, given in *Ind. Eisen*, May, 1892, p. 193. The variation in oxygen content may make a difference in strength of nearly one-half ton per square inch. (*Iron & Steel Inst.*, No. 1, 1894.)

TABLE OF VARIATION IN STRENGTH OF BESSEMER AND OPEN-HEARTH STEELS.

The Carnegie Steel Co. in 1888 published a list of 1057 tests of Bessemer and open-hearth steel, from which the following figures are selected:

Kind of Steel.	No. of Tests.	Elastic Limit.		Ultimate Strength.		Elongation per cent in 8 inches.	
		High't.	Lowest	High't.	Lowest	High't.	Lowest
		Structural.....	100	46,570	39,230	71,300	61,450
" ".....	170	47,690	39,970	73,540	65,200	30.25	23.15
" angles.....	72	41,890	32,630	63,450	56,130	34.80	26.25
" fire-box.....	25	62,790	50,850	36.00	25.62
" ".....	19	66,062	59,440	27.50	19.25
" bridge.....	20	69,940	63,970	30.00	22.75

REQUIREMENTS OF SPECIFICATIONS.

Elastic limit, 35,000; tensile strength, 62,000 to 70,000; elong. 22% in 8 in.
 Elastic limit, 40,000; tensile strength, 67,000 to 75,000.
 Elastic limit, 30,000; tensile strength, 56,000 to 64,000; elong. 20% in 8 in.
 Tensile strength, 50,000 to 62,000; elong. 26% in 4 in.
 Tensile strength, 60,000 to 65,000; elong. 18% in 8 in.
 Tensile strength, 64,000 to 70,000; elong. 20% in 8 in.

Strength of Open-hearth Structural Steel. (Pencoyd Iron

—As a general rule, the percentage of carbon in steel determines its strength and strength. The higher the carbon the harder the steel, the lower the tenacity, and the lower the ductility will be. The following list shows the average physical properties of good open-hearth steel:

Carbon Content	Ultimate Tenacity, lbs. per sq. in.	Elastic Limit, lbs. per sq. in.	Stretch in 8 inches.	Reduction of Area, %.
0.05	57,000	34,000	28 per cent.	55 per cent.
0.06	62,000	37,000	26 "	50 "
0.07	67,000	40,000	24 "	45 "
0.08	72,000	43,000	22 "	40 "
0.09	77,000	46,000	20 "	35 "
0.10	82,000	49,000	18 "	30 "
0.11	87,000	52,000	16 "	25 "

The coefficient of elasticity is practically uniform for all grades, and is about 29,000,000 lbs. These figures form the average of a series of tests from rolled bars, and can only serve as a

proximation in single instances, when the variation from the mean is considerable. Steel below .10 carbon should be capable of bending without fracture, after being chilled from a red heat in cold water. Steel of .15 carbon will occasionally submit to the same treatment usually bend around a curve whose radius is equal to that of the specimen; about 90% of specimens stand the latter bending without fracture. As the steel becomes harder its ability to endure the test becomes more exceptional, and when the carbon ratio is little over 25% of specimens will stand the last-described bending test having about .40% carbon will usually harden sufficiently to fracture and maintain an edge.

Mehrtens gives the following tables in *Stahl und Eisen* (Iron and Steel, 1893):

Basic Bessemer Steel. 680 Charges.		Basic Open-hearth Steel 489 Charges.	
Elastic Limit, pounds per sq. in.	Charges within Range, per cent of total number.	Elastic Limit, pounds per sq. in.	Charges within Range, per cent of total number.
25,500 to 28,400	15.0	34,400 to 37,000	15.0
28,400 to 30,800	31.6	37,000 to 38,400	16.7
30,800 to 41,200	27.5	38,400 to 39,800	16.7
41,200 to 42,700	16.0	39,800 to 41,200	16.7
42,700 to 46,400	9.9	41,200 to 42,700	16.7
		42,700 to 44,100	16.7
		44,100 to 48,400	16.7
Tensile Strength, pounds per sq. in.	Charges within Range, per cent of total number.	Tensile Strength, pounds per sq. in.	Charges within Range, per cent of total number.
55,600 to 56,900	18.67	55,900 to 56,900	16.7
56,900 to 58,300	38.67	56,900 to 58,300	16.7
58,300 to 59,700	23.53	58,300 to 59,700	16.7
59,700 to 61,200	15.60	59,700 to 61,200	16.7
61,200 to 62,300	3.53	61,200 to 62,600	16.7
		62,600 to 65,100	16.7
STRUCTURAL STEEL.		RIVET STEEL, 19	
Elongation, per cent.	Charges within Range, per cent of total number.	Tensile Strength, pounds per sq. in.	Charges within Range, per cent of total number.
20 to 25	2.65	51,800	16.7
25 to 26	8.53	51,900 to 59,300	16.7
26 to 27	17.35	53,300 to 54,900	16.7
27 to 28	26.76	54,900 to 56,300	16.7
28 to 29	23.68	56,300 to 56,900	16.7
29 to 30	14.41		
30 to 32.5	6.62		
RIVET STEEL.		Elongation all above	
Elongation, per cent.	Charges within Range, per cent of total number.	Elongation, per cent.	Charges within Range, per cent of total number.
25.2 to 26	20.0	20 to 25	2.65
26 to 27	15.0	25 to 26	8.53
27 to 28	25.0	26 to 27	17.35
28 to 29	25.0	27 to 28	26.76
29 to 29.8	15.0	28 to 29	23.68
		29 to 30	14.41
		30 to 37.1	6.62

In the basic Bessemer steel over 90% was below 0.08 phosphorus, and were below 0.10; manganese was below 0.6 in over 90%, and below 0.5 in over 84%, the maximum being 0.071; carbon was below 0.05 in 84%, the maximum being 0.08; manganese below 0.10, and silicon below 0.01 in all. In the basic open-hearth steel over 90% was below 0.06 in phosphorus, the maximum being 0.08; manganese below 0.07 in 88%, the maximum being 0.12. The carbon was below 0.09 to 0.14.

Low Tensile Strength of Very Pure Steel.—Soft open-hearth steel, tested by the author in 1881, showed a tensile strength of only 42,591 lbs. per sq. in. A piece of American nail-rod steel of the same composition showed a tensile strength of 58,000 lbs. per sq. in. Both steels contained about .10 carbon and .01 sulphur, and were very low in sulphur, manganese, and silicon. The bars were about 2 x 3/8 in. section.

Low Strength Due to Insufficient Work.—Soft steel ingots, made in the open boiler, and rolled down from 10,000 to 20,000 lbs. tensile strength, and then re-rolled, showed only about 10% in 8 in., and a reduction of area of only 10% after being heated and rolled down from 3

ive from 55,000 to 65,000 lbs. tensile strength, an elongation 2% to 3%, and a reduction of area of from 55% to 70%. Any part of the above reduction in thickness ordinarily yields in its tensile tests.

of Soft Steel.—A. E. Hunt (Trans. A. I. M. E., 1883, vol. 11, p. 100). Soft steel, no matter how low in carbon, will harden to a certain degree by being heated red-hot and plunged into water, and that it will harden more by being plunged into brine and less when quenched in oil.

The following was a heat of open-hearth steel of 0.15% carbon and 0.29% of manganese. It gave the following results upon test-pieces from the same melt.

	Maximum Load. lbs. per sq. in.	Elongation in 8 in. Per cent.	Reduction of Area. Per cent.
quenched in water.....	55,000	27	62
quenched in brine.....	74,000	25	50
quenched in oil.....	84,000	22	43
	67,700	26	49

The ductility of such hardened steel does not decrease to the extent that the low tenacity would indicate, and is much superior to that of the soft steel. The high tenacity, still the greatly increased tenacity after hardening, testifies that there must be a considerable molecular change in the steel when hardened, and that if such a hardening should be created in a thin plate, there must be very dangerous internal strains caused.

Cold Rolling.—Cold rolling of iron and steel increases the ultimate strength, and decreases the ductility. Major tests were made on bars rolled and polished cold by Lauth's process. The average increase of load required to give a slight permanent set was: in tension, 10%; in torsion, 130%; in compression, 16% on short bars, and 6% on columns 8 in. long; in tension, 9%. The hardening was measured by the weight required to produce equal indentations, and it was found that the hardness was as great in the rolled bars as elsewhere. Sir W. Fairbairn's experiments showed an ultimate tensile strength of 50%, and a reduction in the elongation of 2 in. or 30%, to 0.79 in. or 7.9%.

of Tests of Full-size Eye-bars and Sample Bars of Same Steel Used in the Memphis Bridge.
(Geo. S. Morison, Trans. A. S. C. E., 1893.)

Full-size Eyebars, size $\times 1$ to $2 \frac{3}{16}$ " thick.			Sample Bars from Same Melts, about 1 in. area.			
Reduction, p. c.	Elastic Limit, lbs. per sq. in.	Max. Load, sq. in.	Reduction, p. c.	Elongation, p. c.	Elastic Limit, lbs. per sq. in.	Max. Load, sq. in.
16.8	35,100	67,490	47.5	27.5	41,580	73,050
8.2	37,680	70,160	52.6	24.4	42,650	75,620
11.8	39,700	65,500	47.9	28.8	40,280	70,280
17.3	33,140	65,060	47.5	27.5	41,580	73,050
13.5	32,860	65,600	44.5	20.0	43,750	75,000
15.3	31,110	61,060	42.7	28.8	42,210	69,730
13.7	33,990	63,220	52.2	28.1	40,380	69,730
13.5	29,330	63,100	48.3	28.8	38,090	71,300
6.9	28,080	55,160	43.2	24.2	38,320	70,220
14.1	29,670	62,140	59.6	26.3	40,200	71,080
11.8	32,700	65,400	40.3	25.0	39,360	69,360
19.3	30,500	58,870	40.3	25.0	40,910	70,360
12.3	33,360	73,550	51.5	25.5	40,410	69,900
15.7	32,520	60,710	43.6	27.0	40,400	70,490
14.9	28,000	58,720	44.4	29.5	40,000	66,800
13.1	32,290	62,270	42.8	21.9	40,530	72,270
15.1	29,970	58,680	45.7	27.0	40,610	72,270

The strength of the full-sized eye-bars was about 8000 lbs. less than that of the sample test-pieces.

TREATMENT OF STRUCTURAL STEEL.

(James Christie, Trans. A. S. C. E., 1891.)

Effect of Punching and Shearing.—There is no doubt that steel of higher tensile strength than is now accepted for structural purposes should not be punched or sheared, or that the softer material may contain elements prejudicial to its use however treated, but especially if punched. But extensive evidence is on record indicating that steel of good quality, bars of moderate thickness and below or not much exceeding 5000 lb tensile strength, is not any more, and frequently not as much, injured, wrought iron by the process of punching or shearing.

The physical effects of punching and shearing as denoted by tensile tests are for iron or steel:

Reduction of ductility; elevation of tensile strength at elastic limit; reduction of ultimate tensile strength.

In very thin material the superficial disturbance described is less than thick; in fact, a degree of thinness is reached where this disturbance practically ceases. On the contrary, as thickness is increased the light becomes more evident.

The effects described do not invariably ensue; for unknown reasons they are sometimes marked deviations from what seems to be a general result.

By thoroughly annealing sheared or punched steels the ductility is to a large extent restored and the exaggerated elastic limit reduced, the duct being modified by the temperature of reheating and the method of cooling.

It is probable that the best results combined with least expenditure can be obtained by punching all holes where vital strains are not transferred; the rivets; and by reaming for important joints where strains on rivet joints are vital, or wherever perforation may reduce sections to a minimum. The reaming should be sufficient to thoroughly remove the material disturbed by punching; to accomplish this it is best to enlarge punched holes at least $\frac{1}{8}$ in. diameter with the reamer.

Riveting.—It is the current practice to perforate holes $\frac{1}{16}$ in. less than the rivet diameter. For work to be reamed it is also a usual requirement to punch the holes from $\frac{1}{8}$ to $\frac{3}{16}$ in. less than the finished diameter the holes being reamed to the proper size after the various parts are assembled.

It is also excellent practice to remove the sharp corner at both ends of the reamed holes, so that a fillet will be formed at the junction of the rivet and head of the finished rivets.

The rivets of either iron or mild steel should be heated to a bright red-yellow heat and subjected to a pressure of not less than 50 tons per square inch of sectional area.

For rivets of ordinary length this pressure has been found sufficient to completely fill the hole. If, however, the holes and the rivets are exceptionally long, a greater pressure and a slower movement of the closing nut than is used for shorter rivets has been found advantageous in compensating for the more sluggish flow of the metal throughout the longer hole.

Welding.—No welding should be allowed on any steel that enters into structures.

Upsetting.—Enlarged ends on tension bars for screw-threads, eyebolts, etc., are formed by upsetting the material. With proper treatment a sufficient increment of enlarged sectional area over the body of the bolt or nut result is entirely satisfactory. The upsetting process should be performed so that the properly heated metal is compelled to flow without folding or lapping.

Annealing.—The object of annealing structural steel is for the purpose of securing homogeneity of structure that is supposed to be impaired by equal heating, or by the manipulation necessarily attendant on certain processes. The objects to be annealed should be heated throughout to uniform temperature and uniformly cooled.

The physical effects of annealing, as indicated by tensile tests, depend on the grade of steel, or the amount of hardening elements associated with it, and also on the temperature to which the steel is raised, and the method of cooling the heated material.

The physical effects of annealing medium-grade steel, as indicated by tensile tests, are reported very differently by different observers, some claiming opposite results from others. It is evident, when all the above factors are considered, that the obtained results must vary both in direction and amount.

ens, Trans. A. S. C. E., 1895, says: "A good mild steel can be readily as wrought iron in the shop or the field, and even heat treatment. It was, however, often thought necessary to require annealing to remove the initial strains due to rolling. The undoubtedly of great advantage to all steel above 64,000 lbs. square inch, but it is questionable whether it is necessary in The distortions due to heating cause trouble in subsequent especially of thin plates. It cannot be denied, however, that induces greater toughness.

al way all unannealed mild steel for a strength of 56,000 to be worked in the same way as wrought iron. Rough treating at a blue heat must, however, be prohibited. Such treatment is borne by wrought iron, although it does not suffer so much.

Shearing is to be avoided, except to prepare rough plates, afterwards be smoothed by machine tools or files before using. Also to be avoided, because the edges of holes are thereby and the yield point. Reaming drilled holes is not necessary, when sharp drills are used and neat work is done. A slight grinding of the edges of drilled holes is all that is necessary. Work while heated should be avoided as far as possible, and the should bear this in mind when designing structures. Upsetting, bending ought to be avoided, but when necessary the material should be annealed after completion.

ing of a mild-steel rivet should be finished as quickly as possible, to the dangerous heat. For this reason machine work is the as a special advantage in machine work from the fact that the be retained upon the rivet until it has cooled sufficiently to ation and the consequent loosening of the rivet."

g and Drilling of Steel Plates. (Proc. Inst. M. E., 1896.)—In Prof. Unwin's report the results of the greater number of experiments made on iron and steel plates lead to the general at, while thin plates, even of steel, do not suffer very much, yet in those of $\frac{1}{2}$ in. thickness and upwards the loss of tenacity ranges from 10% to 23% in iron plates and from 11% to 25% of mild steel. Mr. Parker found the loss of tenacity in steel as high as fully one third of the original strength of the plate. es, on the contrary, there is no appreciable loss of strength.

to remove the bad effects of punching by subsequent

but were subject to some of the same defects produced by rolling. In some cases the effect of the rolling was to produce a grain which was not so uniform as that of the cast metal, and in some cases it was so coarse as to be entirely unsuitable for the purposes of the wire.

Winding of Steel.—In the case of the steel wire, the effect of the rolling was to produce a grain which was not so uniform as that of the cast metal, and in some cases it was so coarse as to be entirely unsuitable for the purposes of the wire. The effect of the rolling was to produce a grain which was not so uniform as that of the cast metal, and in some cases it was so coarse as to be entirely unsuitable for the purposes of the wire.

INFLUENCE OF ANNEALING UPON MAGNETIC CAPACITY.

Prof. H. E. Hughes (Eng. Mag. Feb. 3, 1881, p. 28) has observed a "Steel Balance" for testing the condition of "tempered steel, which constituted a definite magnetic scale compared over a graduated circular magnet, a magnet coil for magnetizing the bar to be tested. He finds that the magnetic force held with every variety of iron and steel:

1. The magnetic capacity is directly proportional to the surface of the bar.

2. The resistance to a helix external magnetizing force is directly as the thickness, or molecular stability.

The magnetic balance shows that annealing not only produces softer iron, and consequent molecular freedom, but it entirely does it. One stress previously introduced by drawing or hammering. Thus a bar drawn down or hammered has a peculiar structure, say a stress set up, gives a greater mechanical strength in one direction than another. If bar is thoroughly annealed at high temperatures, because homogeneous all directions, and has no longer even traces of its previous strain, even if there has been an actual mechanical expansion into a distinct wire stress.

Effect of Annealing upon the Magnetic Capacity of Different Wires; Tests by the Magnetic Balance.

Description.	Magnetic Capacity.	
	Bright as cast.	Annealed.
	deg. on scale.	deg. on scale.
Best Swedish charcoal iron, first variety.....	230	325
" " " " second ".....	228	320
" " " " third ".....	223	307
Swedish Siemens-Martin iron.....	165	230
Puddled iron, best.....	212	303
Bessemer steel, soft.....	150	201
" " hard.....	115	172
Crucible fine cast steel.....	50	65

Crucible Fine Steel, Tempered.		Magnetic Capacity.
Bright yellow heat, cooled completely in cold water.....		28
Yellow red heat, cooled completely in cold water.....		32
" yellow, let down in cold water to straw color.....		33
" " " " " blue.....		43
" " cooled completely in oil.....		51
" " let down in water to white.....		58
" " cooled completely in water.....		66
" " " " oil.....		73
" " " " oil.....		81

SPECIFICATIONS FOR STEEL.

1 Steel.—There has been a change during the ten years from the opinions of engineers, as to the requirements in structural steel, in the direction of a preference for metal of low strength and great ductility. The following specifications of different grades are given by A. E. Hunt and G. H. Clapp, Trans. A. I. M. E. 1890,

MEMBERS.	1870.	1881.	1882.	1885.	1887.	1888.
.....	50,000	40@45,000	40,000	40,000	40,000	38,000
th.....	80,000	70@80,000	70,000	70,900	67@75,000	63@70,000
8 in.....	12%	18%	18%	18%	20%	22%
a.....	20%	30%	45%	42%	42%	45%
.....	O. H.	O. H. or B.	O. H.	Not	O. H. or B.	O. H. or B.
				spec.		

MEMBERS:

.....	Same	50@55,000	50,000	50,000	Same as tension
th.....	as	80@90,000	80,000	80,000	members.
8 in.....	ten-	12%	15%	15%	"
a.....	sion.	20%	35%	35%	"

(*Iron Age*, Nov. 3, 1892) says: Regarding steel to be used under conditions as wrought iron, that is, to be punched without reams to be a decided opinion (and a growing one) among engineers not safe to use steel in this way, when the ultimate tensile strength is above 65,000 lbs. The reason for this is, not so much because of a marked change in the material of this grade, but because all grades of Bessemer steel, has a tendency to segregations of carbon and phosphorus, producing places in the metal which are harder than they should be. As long as the percentages of carbon and phosphorus are small, the effect of these segregations is inconsiderable; but when the percentages are increased, the existence of these hard spots in the metal is more marked, and it is therefore less adapted to the treatment of wrought iron is subjected.

The general consensus of opinion that at an ultimate of 64,000 to 65,000 lbs. per sq. in. of carbon and phosphorus (which are the two harden-ers) reach a point where the steel has a tendency to become tender, when subjected to rough treatment.

Steel, therefore, running in ultimate strength from 54,000 to 64,000 lbs. per sq. in. in some cases to 64,000 lbs., is now generally considered a safe material for this class of work.

Dr. W. C. Phipps, engineer of tests of Carnegie, Phipps & Co., writes as follows regarding grades of structural steel (*Eng'g News*, June 2, 1892):

1. Steel.—Steel shall be of three grades—soft, medium, high.

—Specimens from finished material for test, cut to size shall have an ultimate strength of from 54,000 to 62,000 lbs. per sq. in.; minimum elongation 20%; minimum reduction of area at fracture 50%. This grade of steel shall be cold rolled flat on itself, without sign of fracture on the outside portion.

—Specimens from finished material for test, cut to size shall have an ultimate strength of 60,000 to 68,000 lbs. per sq. in.; minimum elongation 20%; minimum reduction of area at fracture, 40%. This grade of steel shall be cold rolled to a diameter equal to the thickness of the piece tested, or flat on the outside of the bent portion.

—Specimens from finished material for test, cut to size shall have an ultimate strength of 66,000 to 74,000 lbs. per sq. in.; minimum elongation 20%; minimum reduction of area at fracture, 35%. This grade of steel to bend shall be cold rolled to a diameter equal to three times the thickness of the test-piece, or flat on the outside of the bent portion.

The Engineers' Club of Phila., 1891, gives specifications for structural steel: The phosphorus in acid open-hearth steel must be less than 0.08%, and in all Bessemer or basic steel must be less than 0.08%.

It will be tested in specimens of at least one half square inch on the finished material. Each melt of steel will be tested on rolled, and also widely differing gauges of the same.

ture as stated above for test-bars, and be capable of bending without sign of fracture on the convex surface of the bend.

Ship, and Tank Plates. W. F. Mattes (*Iron Age*, July) recommends that the different qualities of steel plates be classified

	Tank.	Ship.	Shell.	Fire-box.
longitudinal	Limit, 75,000	55,000 to 65,000	55,000 to 65,000	55,000 to 60,000
8-in. longitu- n. per cent.				
longitudinal		Flat.	Flat	Flat.
l. t ransverse		{ Over 1 in. diam. }	{ Over ½ in. diam. }	{ Flat. 0.045
mit.	0.15	{ 0.10 0.065	{ 0.06 0.05	{ 0.045 0.05
tion.	Easy.	{ Careful.	{ Close.	{ Rigid.

manufacturing firm in Pittsburgh advertises six different grades as follows:

1. Fire-box. Extra flange. Flange. Shell. Tank.
Average phosphorus content in these grades is, respectively:
.03 .04 0.6 0.8 .10.

Specifications for steel plates are the following (1889):

U. S. Navy.—Shell: Tensile strength, 58,000 to 67,000 lbs. per sq. in., 25% in 8-in. transverse section, 25% in 8-in. longitudinal section. Tensile strength, 50,000 to 58,000 lbs.; elongation, 20% in 8 inches. Requirements: P, not over .035%; S, not over .040%.

Wig test: Specimen to stand being bent flat on itself.

Wig test: Steel heated to cherry-red, plunged in water 82° F., and rounded curve 1½ times thickness of the plate.

U. S. Navy.—Tensile strength, 58,240 to 67,300 lbs.; elongation in air cold-bending and quenching tests as U. S. Navy.

Boiler-makers' Association.—Tensile strength, 55,000 to 65,000 in 8 in., 30% for plates ¾ in. thick and under; 22% for plates 1 in.; 25% for plates ¾ in. and over.

Wig test: For plates ½ in. thick and under, specimen must bend without fracture; for plates over ½ in. thick, specimen must bend 180° around a mandril, 1½ times the thickness of the

requirements: P, not over .040%; S, not over .030%.

Shipmasters' Association.—Tensile strength, 63,000 to 72,000 lb., 16% on pieces 9 in. long.

Iron plates, heated to a low red and cooled in water the temperature which is 82° F., to undergo without crack or fracture being a curve the diameter of which does not exceed three times of the piece tested.

Shell-plates, Front Tube-plate, and Butt-strips.

(1892.)—The metal desired is a homogeneous steel having a tensile strength of 60,000 lbs. per sq. in., and an elongation of 25% in a length 8 in. long. These plates will not be accepted if the test-

strength of less than 55,000 lbs. per sq. in.; 2. An elongation originally 8 in. long less than 20%; 3. A tensile strength over 60,000 lbs. per sq. in.; should, however, the elongation be 27% or over, plates selected for high strength.

Fire-box Plates, including Back Tube-plate.

(1892.)—The metal should show a tensile strength of 60,000 lbs. and an elongation of 28% in a test section originally 8 in. long.

Composition.	Desired.	Will be Rejected.
Phosphorus	0.18 per cent.	over 0.25, below 0.15
Sulfur, not above	0.03	over 0.04
Manganese, not above	0.40	over 0.55
Carbon, not above	0.02	over 0.04
Iron, not above	0.02	over 0.05
Steel, not above	0.03	over 0.05

These plates will not be accepted if the test-piece show strength of less than 55,000 lbs. per sq. in.; 2 An elongation originally 8 in. long, less than 2% (20% in plates $\frac{1}{4}$ inch thick) strength over 65,000 lbs. per sq. in. (68,000 for plates $\frac{1}{4}$ in. thick); however, the elongation be 30% or over, plates will not be accepted; 4. Any single seam or cavity more than $\frac{1}{4}$ in. long, three fractures obtained on test for homogeneity, as described.

Homogeneity test: A portion of the test-piece is nicked, grooved on a machine, transversely about a sixteenth of an inch in three places about $1\frac{1}{4}$ in. apart. The first groove should be on one side, $1\frac{1}{4}$ in. from the square end of the piece; the second on the opposite side; and the third, $1\frac{1}{4}$ in. from the square end on the opposite side from it. The test-piece is then put in a vice and bent over a groove about $\frac{1}{4}$ in. above the jaw, care being taken to prevent the projecting end of the test-piece from being broken off by the hammer, a number of light blows being used, and the bend being made from the groove. The piece is broken at the other two grooves. The object of this treatment is to open and render visible any seams due to failure to weld up, or to foreign intermetallic cavities due to gas bubbles in the ingot. After rupture, the fracture is examined, a pocket lens being used if necessary, and the length of the seams and cavities is determined. The length of the cavity determines the acceptance or rejection of the plate.

Dr. C. B. Dudley, chemist of the Penna. R. R. (Trans. A. S. M. E., xx, p. 709), gives as an example of the progressive improvements the following: In the early days of steel boilers the force called for steel of not less than 50,000 lbs. tensile strength and 25% elongation. Some metal was received having 70,000 lbs. strength, and as the elongation was all right it was accepted. In later years plates were being flanged in the boiler-shop they cracked in pieces. As a result, an upper limit of 65,000 lbs. tensile strength was established.

Am. Ry. Master Mechanics' Assn., 1894.—Same as Penna. R. R. specifications of 1893, including homogeneity test.

Plate, Tank, and Sheet Steel. (Penna. R. R., 1888.)—Plates taken lengthwise of each plate, $\frac{1}{2}$ in. thick and over, will not be accepted if they should have a tensile strength of 60,000 lbs. per sq. in., and a 25% elongation in a section originally 2 in. long.

Sheets will not be accepted if the tests show the tensile strength less than 55,000 lbs. or greater than 70,000 lbs. per sq. in., nor if the elongation is below 20%.

Steel Billets for Main and Parallel Rods. (Penna. R. R., 1887.)—One billet from each lot of 25 billets or smaller shipment of parallel rods for locomotives will have a piece drawn free by hammer and a test-section will be turned down on this piece to a diameter of 2 in. long. Such test-piece should show a tensile strength of 85,000 lbs. and an elongation of 15%.

No lot will be acceptable if the test shows less than 85,000 lbs. strength or 12% elongation in 2 in.

Locomotive Spring Steel. (Penna. R. R., 1887.)—If the steel is more than 0.01 in. in thickness, or more than 0.02 in. in width, or which break where they are not nicked, or which are returned, the metal desired has the following composition: manganese, 0.25%; phosphorus, not over 0.05%; silicon, not over 0.05%; copper, not over 0.05%.

Shipments will not be accepted which show on analysis less than 1.10% of carbon, or over 0.50% of manganese, 0.05% of phosphorus, 0.05% of sulphur, and 0.05% of copper.

Steel for Locomotive Driving-axes. (Penna. R. R., 1887.)—Steel for driving-axes should have a tensile strength of 85,000 lbs. and an elongation of 15% in section originally 2 in. long and taken midway between centre and circumference of the axle.

Axes will not be accepted if tensile strength is less than 85,000 lbs. or elongation is below 12%.

Steel for Crank-pins. (Penna. R. R., 1886.)—Steel for

specifications of the several dates given

uniformity between the two sides of the pin was so marked that it was determined not to put the lot of 50 pins in use. To guard against this sort in future, the specifications are to be amended to require reference in ultimate strength of the two specimens shall not be less than 30,000 lbs.

Car-axes. (Penna. R. R., 1891.)—For each 100 axes ordered 101 axes to be furnished, from which one will be taken at random, and subjected to the following test:

For passenger cars and passenger locomotive and tender trucks the axle shall be made of steel and be rough turned throughout. Two test-pieces shall be cut from an axle, and the test sections of 5/8 in. diameter by 2 in. long shall be cut from any part of the axle provided that the centre line of the test-piece shall be 1 in. from the centre line of the axle. Such test-pieces should have a tensile strength of 80,000 lbs. per sq. in. and an elongation of 20%. Axes shall not be accepted if the tensile strength is less than 75,000 lbs. or the elongation is below 15%, nor if the fractures are irregular.

For freight cars and freight-locomotive tender trucks must be made of iron and will be subjected to the following test, which they must stand without fracture:

1/2 IN. DIAMETER AT CENTRE—Five blows at 20 ft. of a 1640-lb. weight, 12 in. away between supports 3 ft. apart; axle to be turned over after each blow.

1 IN. DIAMETER AT CENTRE—Five blows at 25 ft. of a 1640-lb. weight, 12 in. away between supports 3 ft. apart; axles to be turned over after each blow.

For Rails.—P. H. Dudley (Trans. A. S. C. E. 1893) recommends the following chemical composition for rails of the weights specified:

Weight per yard,	60, 65, and 70 lbs.	75 and 80 lbs.	100 lbs.
Carbon,45 to .55%	.50 to .60%	.65 to .75%
Phosphorus,05 to .07%	.05 to .07%	.05 to .07%
Sulphur,05 to .07%	.05 to .07%	.05 to .07%
Manganese,80% to 1.00%	.10% to .15%	.10% to .15%
Silicon,10% to .15%	.10% to .15%	.10% to .15%
Phosphorus,05 to .07%	.05 to .07%	.05 to .07%
Sulphur,05 to .07%	.05 to .07%	.05 to .07%

As the carbon content of the iron itself up to or over 1% increases the hardness and tensile strength increases rapidly, and at the same time decreases the elongation. The carbon in the early rails ranged from 0.25 to 0.5 of 1%, while in the later rails it has been increased to 0.5, 0.6, and 0.75 of 1%. In good irons and suitable sections it can run from 0.55 to 0.75 of 1% of carbon to the section, and obtain fine-grain tough rails with low elongation.

Carbon is a necessary ingredient in the first place to take up the oxide of iron in the bath of molten metal during the blow. It also is of great

the diameter without showing cracks or flaws. The steel must be more than .035 of 1% of phosphorus, nor more than .04 of 1% of sulphur.

A lot of 30 successive tests of rivet steel of the low tensile strength and 12 tests of the higher tensile strength gave the following results:

	Low Steel.	High Steel.
Tensile strength, lbs. per sq. in.	51,290 to 54,100	59,100 to 62,000
Elastic limit, lbs. per sq. in.	31,050 to 33,190	32,080 to 34,120
Elongation in 8 in., per cent.	30.5 to 35.25	28.5 to 32.5
Carbon, per cent.11 to .14	.10 to .13
Phosphorus027 to .029	.025 to .027
Sulphur033 to .035	.031 to .033

The safest steel rivets are those of the lowest tensile strength, and are the least liable to become hardened and fracture by hammer blow from repeated concussive and vibratory strains to which they are subjected in practice. For calculations of the strength of rivets the tensile strength may be taken as the average of the figures above, 52,665 lbs., and the shearing strength at 45,000 lbs. per sq. in.

MISCELLANEOUS NOTES ON STEEL.

May Carbon be Burned Out of Steel?—Experiments made at the Laboratory of the Penna. Railroad Co. (Specifications for Spiral Springs), show that the place from which the sample is taken for analysis has a very important influence on the amount of carbon found. If the sample is a piece of the round bar, and the carbon is taken from the end of this piece, the carbon is always higher than if borings are taken from the side of the piece. It is common to find a difference of 0.10% between the centre and side of the bar, and in some cases the difference is as high as 0.23%. Furthermore, experiments made with samples taken from the drawn out end of the bar show, usually, less carbon than samples taken from the round part of the bar, even though the bar is taken out of the side in both cases.

Apparently during the process of reducing the metal from the round bar, with successive heatings, the carbon in the outside of the bar is burned out.

"Recalescence" of Steel.—If we heat a bar of copper of constant strength, and note carefully the interval of time it takes to pass from each degree to the next higher degree, we find that the intervals increase regularly, i. e., that the bar heats more and more slowly as its temperature approaches that of the flame. If we substitute steel for one of copper, we find that these intervals increase very rapidly up to a certain point, when the rise of temperature is suddenly and in a great measure retarded or even completely arrested. After this the temperature is resumed, though other like retardations may occur as the temperature rises farther. So if we cool a bar of steel slowly, the temperature is greatly retarded when it reaches a certain point. If the steel contains much carbon, and if certain conditions are maintained, the temperature, after descending regularly, suddenly and spontaneously very abruptly, remains stationary a while, and then ascends. This spontaneous reheating is known as "recalescence."

These retardations indicate that some change which absorbs heat occurs within the metal. A retardation while the temperature is rising points to a change which absorbs heat; a retardation during cooling to some change which evolves heat. (Henry M. Howe, on "Heat of Steel," Trans. A. I. M. E., vol. xxii.)

Effect of Nicking a Steel Bar.—The statement is sometimes made that, owing to the homogeneity of steel, a bar with a surface crack in one of its edges is liable to fail by the gradual spreading of the crack, and thus break under a very much smaller load than a sound bar. It is contended this does not occur, as this metal has a fibrous structure. Benjamin Baker has, however, shown that this theory, at least where statical stress is concerned, is opposed to the facts, as he purports to show in specimens of the mild steel used at the Forth Bridge. He found that the tensile strength of the whole was thus reduced by only 10% for every inch of section. In an experiment by the Union Bridge Co. a full-sized steel counter-bar, with a screw-turned buckle at each end, was tested under a heavy statical stress, and at the same time subjected to a heavy impact of 100 lbs. was allowed to drop on it from various heights. The bar was only slightly strained by ordinary statical strain, and showed a break

per square inch. The longer of the broken parts was then placed hine and put under the following loads, whilst a weight, as already was dropped on it from various heights at a distance of five the sleeve-nut of the turn-buckle, as shown below:

ounds per sq. in.	50,000	55,000	60,000	63,000	65,000
	ft. in.	ft. in.	ft. in.	ft. in.	ft. in.
fall	2 1	2 6	3 0	4 0	5 0

right was then shifted so as to fall directly on the sleeve-nut, and the load as follows:

specimen in lbs. per square inch	65,350	65,350	68,800
fall	3	6	6

It is seen that under this trial the bar carried more than when originally statically, showing that the nicking of the bar by screwing had not materially weakened its power of resisting shocks.—*Eng'g News.*

Electric Conductivity of Steel.—Louis Campredon reports in *Le Moniteur* the results of a series of experiments made to ascertain the relation between electric resistance and chemical compositions of steel. The specimens were of No. 17, 3 mm. diameter. The results are given in the table below:

Carbon.	Silicon.	Sulphur.	Phosphorus.	Manganese.	Total.	Electric Resistance, Ohms.
0.090	0.030	0.050	0.030	0.210	0.410	127.7
0.100	0.020	0.050	0.040	0.240	0.450	133.0
0.100	0.030	0.060	0.040	0.260	0.480	137.5
0.100	0.020	0.050	0.050	0.310	0.530	140.8
0.120	0.030	0.070	0.050	0.330	0.600	142.7
0.110	0.030	0.060	0.060	0.350	0.610	144.5
0.100	0.020	0.070	0.040	0.400	0.630	149.0
0.120	0.030	0.070	0.070	0.400	0.680	150.3
0.110	0.030	0.060	0.060	0.430	0.750	156.0
0.140	0.030	0.060	0.080	0.540	0.850	173.0

A comparison of these series of figures shows that the purer and softer the steel is its electric conductivity, and, furthermore, that manganese is the element which most influences the conductivity.

Specific Gravity of Soft Steel. (W. Kent, *Trans. A. I. M. E.*, xiv, p. 100.) Five specimens of boiler-plate of C. 0.14, P. 0.03 gave an average specific gravity of 489.75, maximum variation 0.008. The pieces were first planed to remove possible scale indentations, then filed smooth, then cleaned in sulphuric acid, and then boiled in distilled water, to remove all traces of oil on the surface.

The figures of specific gravity thus obtained by careful experiment on small pieces of steel are, however, too high for use in determining the specific gravity of rolled plates for commercial purposes. The actual average specific gravity of these plates is always a little less than is shown by the calipers, and this is due to the presence of the oxide of iron on the surface, and because the surface is not perfectly smooth and regular. A number of experiments on commercial steel, in comparison of other authorities, led to the figure 7.854 as the specific gravity of open-hearth boiler-plate steel. This figure is considered as being the same figure with change of position of the decimal point (.7854) which expresses the relation of the area of a circle to the area of its circumscribed square. Taking the weight of a cubic foot of water as 62.36 lbs. (average of several authorities), this figure gives 489.775 as the weight of a cubic foot of steel, or the even figure, 490 lbs., may be taken as a convenient figure, and accurate within the limits of the error of experiment.

A convenient method of approximating the weight of iron plates is to count the number of plates to weigh 40 lbs. per square foot one inch thick. Taking this number and adding 2% gives almost exactly the weight of steel boiler-plate (40 × 12 × 1.02 = 489.6 lbs. per cubic foot).

Local Failures of Bessemer Steel.—G. H. Chalmers and A. J. Hall, in their paper on "The Inspection of Materials of Construction,"

the United States" (Trans. A. I. M. E., vol. xix), say: Numerous could be cited to show the unreliability of Bessemer steel for structures. One of the most marked, however, was the following: A 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ weighing 30 lbs. to the foot, 20 feet long, on being unloaded first broke in two about 6 feet from one end.

The analyses and tensile tests made do not show any cause for this. The cold and quench bending tests of both the original $\frac{3}{4}$ -in. rod pieces, and of pieces cut from the finished material, gave satisfactory results; the cold-bending tests closing down on themselves without fracture.

Numerous other cases of angles and plates that were so hard in to break off short in punching, or, what was worse, to break the have come under our observation, and although makers of Bessemer claim that this is just as likely to occur in open-hearth as in Bessemer, we have as yet never seen an instance of failure of this kind in open steel having a composition such as C 0.25%, Mn 0.70%, P 0.80%.

J. W. Wallis, in a paper read before the Chemical Section of the Association for the Advancement of Science, in speaking of failures of steel, states that investigation shows that "these failures in steel of one class, viz., soft steel made by the Bessemer process."
Segregation in Steel Ingots. (A. Pourcel, Trans. A. I. M. E.)
 —H. M. Howe, in his "Metallurgy of Steel," gives a résumé of observations with the results of numerous analyses, bearing upon the above mentioned segregation.

In 1881 Mr. Stubbs, of Manchester, showed the heterogeneous analyses made upon different parts of an ingot of large section. A test-piece taken 24 inches from the head of the ingot 7.5 feet gave by analysis very different results from those of a test-piece 4 inches from the bottom.

	C.	Mn.	Si.	S.
Top	0.92	0.535	0.043	0.161
Bottom	0.37	0.493	0.006	0.025

Windsor Richards says he had often observed in test-pieces taken at different points of one plate variations of 0.05% of carbon. Segregation is especially pronounced in an ingot in its central portion, and at the space of the piping.

It is most observable in large ingots, but in blocks of smaller and limited dimensions, subjected to the influence of solidification during casting within thick walls will permit, it may still be observed. An ingot of Martin steel, weighing about 1000 lbs., and having a length of 1.10 feet and a section of 10.24 inches square, gave the following:

1. Upper section:	C.	S.	P.
Border	0.330	0.040	0.033
Centre	0.530	0.077	0.057
2. Lower section:	C.	S.	P.
Border	0.380	0.029	0.016
Centre	0.290	0.030	0.038
3. Middle section:	C.	S.	P.
Border	0.320	0.025	0.025
Centre	0.320	0.048	0.043

Segregation is less marked in ingots of extra-soft metal cast in moulds of considerable thickness. It is, however, still important to plain the difference often shown by the results of tests on plates from different portions of a plate. Two samples, taken from the ends of a flat ingot, one on the outside and the other in the centre, 7.9 in the upper edge, gave:

	C.	S.	P.
Centre	0.14	0.053	0.072
Exterior	0.11	0.036	0.027

Manganese is the element most uniformly disseminated in Bessemer steel.

For cannon of large calibre, if we reject, in addition to the top sand and called the *masselotte* (sinking-head), one third of the length of the ingot, we can obtain a tube practically homogeneous in composition because the central part is naturally removed by the boring of the tube. With extra-soft steels, destined for ship- or boiler-plates, the only way to practically perfect homogeneity lies in the obtaining of a metal mass serving its name of extra-soft metal.

ious consequences of segregation must be suppressed by reduction possible, the elements subject to liquation.

Uses of Steel for Structural Purposes. (G. G. Trautman, A. S. C. E., 1893).—The Pennsylvania Railroad Company used Bessemer steel in America in locomotive boilers in the year 1850. The steel was too hard and brittle for such use. The first plates of steel boilers had a tenacity of 85,000 to 92,000 lbs. and an elongation of 10%. The results were not favorable, and the steel works were obliged to offer a material of less tenacity and more ductility. The tenacity was therefore reduced to a tenacity of 78,000 lbs. or less, and the elongation was increased to 15% or more. Even with this, between the years 1850 and 1880, many explosions occurred and many careful examinations were made to determine their cause. It was found on examining the boilers that there were incipient changes in the metal, many cracks appeared, and points near them were corroded with rust, all caused by defects in manufacturing. It was evident that the material was defective, and that the treatment must be changed. In the beginning of 1858, chief engineer of the Lloyds, stated that there was then in the possession of a steel boiler; a year later there were but five large English steamers built of steel, and there were 116 in building. The use of Bessemer steel in bridge-work was first on the Dutch State railways in 1863-64, then in England. In 1874 a bridge was built of Bessemer steel in Austria. The first use of cast steel for bridges was in America, for the St. Louis Arch Bridge, and the wire of the East River Bridge. These gave an impetus to the use of ingot metal, and before 1880 the Glasgow and Plattsmouth bridges on the Missouri River were also built of ingot metal. Steel was first used for the first time in the Glasgow Bridge. Since 1880 the use of mild steel in all kinds of engineering structures has steadily

STEEL CASTINGS.

(Engineering Congress, Dept. of Marine Eng'g, Chicago, 1893.)

American steel-founders had successfully produced a considerable variety of and difficult castings, of which the following are the most notable specimens:

up to 24,000 lbs.; stern-posts up to 54,000 lbs.; stems up to 12,000 lbs.; draulic cylinders up to 11,000 lbs.; shaft-struts up to 32,000 lbs.; up to 7500 lbs.; stern-pipes up to 8000 lbs.

The range of success in these classes of castings since 1880 has ranged from the more difficult forms to 90% in the simpler ones: the tensile strength has been from 62,000 to 78,000 lbs., elongation from 15% to 25%. The highest success recorded is that of a guide, cast in January, 1893, which had 80,000 lbs. tensile strength and 15.6% elongation.

The use of steel castings of which anything is generally known were first made for the Philadelphia & Reading R. R. in July, 1867, by the Butcher Steel Works, now the Midvale Steel Co. The moulds were made of a mixture of ground fire-brick, black-lead crucible-pots and fire-clay, and washed with a black-lead wash. The steel was cast in crucibles, and was about as hard as tool steel. The surface of the castings was very smooth, but the interior was very much honey-combed. This was before the days when the use of silicon was known for the purpose of making steel. The sponginess, which was almost universal, was a great obstacle to the general adoption.

The first step was to leave the ground pots out of the moulding mixture, and to wash the mould with finely ground fire-brick. This was a great improvement, especially in very heavy castings; but this mixture still clung so to the mould that only comparatively simple shapes could be made. A mould made of such a mixture became almost as hard as steel, and was such an obstacle to the proper shrinkage of castings, that in complicated shapes, they had so great a tendency to warp that their successful manufacture almost impossible. By this time the use of silicon had been discovered, and the only obstacle in the way of making steel castings was a suitable moulding mixture. This was ultimately overcome by the use of mixtures having the various kinds of silica sand as the binder.

The most fertile sources of defects in castings is a bad mould. The most shapes can be cast successfully if they are so designed.

cool uniformly. Mr. Cramp says while he is not yet prepared to state anything that can be cast successfully in iron can be cast in steel, the following seem to point that way in all cases where it is possible to put a suitable sinking-heads for feeding the casting.

H. L. Gantt (Trans. A. S. M. E., xii. 710) says: Steel castings will shrink much more than iron ones, but with less regularity. The amount of shrinkage varies with the composition and the heat of the metal; the greater the shrinkage; and, as we get smoother casting hot metal, it is better to make allowance for large shrinkage and permit the metal as hot as possible. Allow $\frac{3}{16}$ or $\frac{1}{4}$ in. per ft. in. for shrinkage, and $\frac{1}{4}$ in. for finish on machined surfaces, except such as "up." Cope surfaces which are to be machined should, in hard castings, have an allowance of from $\frac{3}{8}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ in. for finish, as the mass of metal slowly rising in a mould is apt to become crusty on the face, and such a crust is sure to be full of imperfections. On small castings $\frac{1}{8}$ in. on drag side and $\frac{1}{4}$ in. on cope side will be sufficient. They should have less than $\frac{1}{4}$ in. finish on a side and very large ones should have as much as $\frac{1}{2}$ in. on a side. Blow-holes can be entirely prevented by the addition of manganese and silicon in sufficient quantities both of these cause brittleness, and it is the object of the conscientious maker to put no more manganese and silicon in his steel than is sufficient to make it solid. The best results are arrived at when all parts of the castings are of a uniform thickness, or very nearly so.

The following table will illustrate the effect of annealing on the strength and elongation of steel castings:

Carbon.	Unannealed.		Annealed.	
	Tensile Strength.	Elongation.	Tensile Strength.	Elongation.
.23%	68,738	22.40%	67,210	31
.37	85,540	8.30	82,238	21
.53	90,121	2.35	106,415	9.

The proper annealing of large castings takes nearly a week.

The proper steel for roll pinions, hammer dies, etc., seems to be that containing about .60% of carbon. Such castings, properly annealed, have well and seldom broken. Miscellaneous gearing should contain carb to .60%, gears larger in diameter being softest. General machinery castings, as a rule, contain less than .40% of carbon, those exposed to shocks containing as low as .20% of carbon. Such castings will give a strength of from 60,000 to 80,000 lbs. per sq. in. and at least 15% extension in a 2 in. long specimen. Machinery and hull castings for war-vessels of the United States Navy, as well as carriages for naval guns, contain from .30% of carbon.

The following is a partial list of castings in which steel seems rapidly taking the place of iron: Hydraulic cylinders, crossheads and pistons for large engines, roughing rolls, rolling-mill spindles, coupling-box pinions, gearing, hammer-heads and dies, riveter stakes, castings for car couplers, etc.

For description of methods of manufacture of steel castings by the open-hearth, open-hearth, and crucible processes, see paper by P. G. Salom, A. I. M. E. xiv, 118.

Specifications for steel castings issued by the U. S. Navy Department (abridged): Steel for castings must be made by either the open-hearth or the crucible process, and must not show more than .06% of phosphorus. Castings must be annealed, unless otherwise directed. The tensile strength of steel castings shall be at least 60,000 lbs., with an elongation of at least 15% in 8 in. for all castings for moving parts of the machinery, and at least 10% in 8 in. for other castings. Bars 1 in. sq. shall be capable of being bent cold, without fracture, through an angle of 90°, over a radius not greater than $\frac{1}{2}$ in. All castings must be sound, free from injurious roughness, pitting, shrinkage, or other cracks, cavities, etc.

Specifications, 1888: Steel castings should have a tensile strength of at least 60,000 lbs. per sq. in. and an elongation of 15% in 8 in. Castings will not be accepted if tensile strength is less than 60,000 lbs. per sq. in. and an elongation of 15% in 8 in.

60,000 lbs., nor if the elongation is less than 12%, nor if cast-blow-holes and shrinkage cracks. Castings weighing 80 lbs. or more should be cast with them a strip to be used as a test-piece. The diameter of this strip must be 3/4 in. sq. by 12 in. long.

MANGANESE, NICKEL, AND OTHER "ALLOY" STEELS.

Manganese Steel. (H. M. Howe, Trans. A. S. M. E., vol. xii.)—Manganese steel is an alloy of iron and manganese, incidentally, and probably also, containing a considerable proportion of carbon.

At small proportions of manganese on the hardness, strength, and ductility of iron is probably slight. The point at which manganese has a predominant effect is not known: it may be somewhere between 2.5% and 6%.

As the proportion of manganese rises above 2.5% the strength of the steel diminishes, while the hardness increases. This effect reaches a maximum with somewhere about 6% of manganese. When the proportion of manganese rises beyond 6% the strength and ductility both increase. As the hardness diminishes slightly, the maximum of both strength and ductility is reached with about 14% of manganese. With this proportion the steel is still so hard that it is very difficult to cut it with steel tools. As the proportion of manganese rises above 15% the ductility falls off abruptly, remaining nearly constant till the manganese passes 18%, when it diminishes suddenly.

Steel containing from 4% to 6.5% of manganese, even if it have but 0.37% of carbon, is reported to be so extremely brittle that it can be powdered under a hammer when cold; yet it is ductile when hot.

Manganese steel is very free from blow-holes; it welds with great difficulty. Its ductility is increased by quenching from a yellow heat; its electrical conductivity is enormous, and very constant with changing temperature; its thermal conductivity. Its remarkable combination of great hardness and ductility cannot be materially lessened by annealing, and great tensile strength with astonishing toughness and ductility, at once creates and secures its usefulness. The fact that manganese steel cannot be softened, or remains so hard that it can be machined only with great difficulty, is a barrier to its usefulness.

The following comparative results of abrasion tests of manganese and carbon steels were reported by T. T. Morrell:

RESISTANCE TO ABRASION BY PRESSURE AGAINST A REVOLVING HARDENED-STEEL SHAFT.

Loss of weight of manganese steel.....	1.0
" blue-tempered hard tool steel.....	0.4
" annealed hard tool steel.....	7.5
" hardened Otis boiler-plate steel.....	7.0
" annealed " " ".....	14.0

ABRASION BY AN EMERY-WHEEL.

Loss of weight of hard manganese-steel wheels.....	1.00
" softer " " ".....	1.19
" hardest carbon-steel wheels.....	1.33
" soft " " ".....	2.85

The hardness of manganese steel seems to be of an anomalous kind. It is hard, but under some conditions not rigid. It is very hard in its resistance to abrasion; it is not always hard in its resistance to impact.

Manganese steel forges readily at a yellow heat, though at a bright white heat it is hard under the hammer. But it offers greater resistance to impact when hot, i. e., it is harder when hot, than carbon steel.

An important single use for manganese-steel is for the pins which connect the buckets of elevated dredgers. Here abrasion chiefly is to be

avoided. An important use is for the links of common chain-elevators, and for stamp-shoes, for horse-shoes, for the knuckles of an engine-coupler, manganese steel has not met expectations.

Manganese steel has been regularly adopted for the blades of the Cyclone mill. Some manganese-steel wheels are reported to have run over 100,000 miles without turning, on a New England railroad.

Nickel Steel.—The remarkable tensile strength and ductility of nickel steel are shown by the test-bars and the behavior of nickel steel under shot tests, are witness of the valuable qualities conferred by the addition of a few per cent of nickel.

The following tests were made on nickel steels by Mr. Maunsel White the Bethlehem Iron Company (*Eng. & M. Jour.*, Sept. 16, 1893):

	Specimen from—	Diam., in.	Length, in.	Tensile Str'gth, lbs. per sq. in.	Elastic Limit, lbs. per sq. in.	p. c. ex.	p. c. cont.	
33% nickel steel.	Forged bars.*	.635	4	276,800	2.75	Spec treat Anne
		"	"	246,595	4.25	6.0	
		"	"	105,300	19.25	55.0	
	1 1/4-in. round rolled bar.†	.564	4	142,800	74,000	13.0	23.2	Anne
		"	"	143,200	74,000	12.32	27.6	
		"	"	117,600	64,000	17.0	46.0	
		"	"	119,200	65,000	16.66	42.1	
		"	"	91,600	51,000	22.25	53.2	
		"	"	91,200	51,000	21.62	53.4	
		"	"	85,200	53,000	21.82	49.5	
37% nickel steel	1 1/4 in. sq. bar, rolled.‡	.798	8	115,464	51,820	36.25	66.23	Anne
		"	"	112,600	60,000	37.87	62.82	
		"	"	102,010	39,180	41.37	69.59	
	1-in. round bar, rolled.§	"	"	102,510	40,200	44.00	68.34	Anne
		.500	2	114,590	56,020	47.25	68.4	
		"	"	115,610	59,080	45.25	62.3	
		"	"	105,240	45,170	49.65	72.8	
		"	"	106,780	45,170	55.50	63.6	

* Forged from 6-in. ingot to 5/8 in. diam., with conical heads for hold

† Showing the effect of varying carbon.

‡ Rolled down from 14-in. ingot to 1 1/4-in. square billet, and turned to

§ Rolled down from 14-in. ingot to 1-in. round, and turned to size.

Nickel steel has shown itself to be possessed of some exceedingly valuable properties; these are, resistance to cracking, high elastic limit, and homogeneity. Resistance to cracking, a property to which the name of non-bility has been given, is shown more remarkably as the percentage of nickel increases. Bars of 27% nickel illustrate this property. A 1 1/4-in. square was nicked 1/4 in. deep and bent double on itself without further fracture than the splintering off, as it were, of the nicked portion. Sudden failure or rupture of this steel would be impossible; it seems to possess the toughness of rawhide with the strength of steel. With this percentage of nickel steel is practically non-corrodible and non-magnetic. The resistance to cracking shown by the lower percentages of nickel is best illustrated in many trials of nickel-steel armor.

The elastic limit rises in a very marked degree with the addition of 3% of nickel, the other physical properties of the steel remaining unchanged or perhaps slightly increased.

In such places (shafts, axles, etc.) where failure is the result of the fatigue of the metal this higher elastic limit of nickel steel will tend to prolong definitely the life of the piece, and at the same time, through its superior toughness, offer greater resistance to the sudden strains of shock.

Howe states that the hardness of nickel steel depends on the proportion of nickel and carbon jointly, nickel up to a certain percentage increases the hardness, beyond this lessening it. Thus white steel with 2% of nickel and 0.90% of carbon cannot be machined, with less than 5% nickel it can be worked cold readily, provided the proportion of carbon be low. As the proportion of nickel rises higher, cold-working becomes less easy. It is easily whether it contain much or little nickel.

The presence of manganese in nickel steel is most important, as it appears that without the aid of manganese in proper proportions, the condition of treatment would not be successful.

Tests of Nickel Steel.—Two heats of open hearth steel were made by the Cleveland Rolling Mill Co., one ordinary steel made with 9000 lbs. of scrap and pig, and 165 lbs. ferro-manganese, the other the same with the addition of 3% or 540 lbs. of nickel. Tests of six plates rolled from the heat, 0.24 to 0.3 in. thick, gave results as follows:

Ordinary steel 52,500 to 56,500; E. L. 32,800 to 37,000; elong. 23 to 25%
 Nickel steel 53,370 to 67,100; " 47,100 to 48,800; " 25 1/2 to 28 1/2%

—in fact, higher than silicon. According to Berthier, the heat of aluminum to Al_2O_3 equals 7900 cal.; silicon to SiO_2 is stated as 7800. Iron, manganese, and copper, as giving no increase of hardness to iron, are distinguished from carbon, chromium, tungsten, and nickel. For some special purposes aluminum may be employed in the manufacture of iron, at any rate with our present knowledge of its properties, this use cannot be large, especially when taking into consideration the comparative high price. Its special advantage seems to be that it combines in itself the advantages of both silicon and manganese; and as alloys containing these metals are so cheap and aluminum of extensive use seems hardly probable.

Lead, in discussion of Mr. Hadfield's paper, said: Every one of our experiments indicated that aluminum can kill the most fiery steel, providing, of course, that it is added in sufficient quantity to combine with all the oxygen in the steel contains. The metal will then be absolutely dead, and will behave like dead-melted silicon steel. If the aluminum is added as metal, and not as a compound, and if the addition is made just before the steel is cast, 1/10% is ample to obtain perfect solidity in the steel.

Chrome Steel. (F. L. Garrison, *Jour. F. I.*, Sept. 1891.)—Chromium increases the hardness of iron, perhaps also the tensile strength and elastic limit. It lessens its weldability.

Chrome, according to Berthier, is made by strongly heating the oxides of iron and chromium in brasqued crucibles, adding powdered silicon, if the oxide of chromium is in excess, and fluxes to scoriify the matter and prevent oxidation. Chromium does not appear to give iron the power of becoming harder when quenched or chilled. Howe states that some steels forge more readily than tungsten steels, and when not containing over 0.5 of chromium nearly as well as ordinary carbon steels of equivalent percentage of carbon. On the whole the status of chrome steel is not very satisfactory. There are other steel alloys coming into use, which are so different, that it would seem to be only a question of time when it will be freely out of the race. Howe states that many experienced chemists find no chromium, or but the merest traces, in chrome steel sold in the States.

Langley (*Trans. A. S. C. E.* 1892) says: Chromium, like manganese, is a hardener of iron even in the absence of carbon. The addition of 1% of chromium to a carbon steel will make a metal which gets exceedingly hard. Hitherto its principal employment has been in the production of shot and shell. Powerful molecular stresses result during cooling, and shells frequently break spontaneously months after they are made.

then, when the percentage of tungsten is high, it has to be treated very carefully; and in order to avoid breaking it, not only is it necessary to reheat it several times while it is being hammered, but when the tool has acquired the desired shape hammering must still be continued gently and with numerous blows until it becomes nearly cold. Then only can it be cooled as desired.

Tungsten is not only employed to produce steel of an extraordinary hardness, but more especially to obtain a steel which, with a moderate hardness, allies great toughness, resistance, and ductility. Steel from Assally, used for this purpose, contained carbon, 0.52%; silicon, 0.04%; tungsten, 0.1% phosphorus, 0.04%; sulphur, 0.005%.

Mechanical tests made by Styffe gave the following results :

Breaking load per square inch of original area, pounds.	172.434
Reduction of area, per cent	0.54
Average elongation after fracture, per cent	13

According to analyses made by the Duc de Luynes of ten specimens of the celebrated Oriental damasked steel, eight contained tungsten, two of them in notable quantities (0.518% to 1%), while in all of the samples analyzed nickel was discovered ranging from traces to nearly 4%.

Stein & Schwartz of Philadelphia, in a circular say : It is stated that tungsten steel is suitable for the manufacture of steel magnets, since it retains its magnetism longer than ordinary steel. Mr. Kulesche has made tungsten up to 98% fine a specialty. Dr. Heppé, of Leipzig, has written a number of articles in German publications on the subject. The following instructions are given concerning the use of tungsten: In order to produce cast iron possessing great hardness an addition of one half to one and a half of tungsten is all that is needed. For bar iron it must be carried up to 1% to 2%, but should not exceed 2½%. For puddled steel the range is large but an addition beyond 3½% only increases the hardness, so that it is brought up to 1½% only for special tools, coinage dies, drills, etc. For tires 2½% to have proved best, and for axles ½% to 1½%. Cast steel to which tungsten is added needs a higher temperature for tempering than ordinary steel and should be hardened only between yellow, red, and white. Chisels made of tungsten steel should be drawn between cherry-red and blue, and set well on iron and steel. Tempering is best done in a mixture of 5 parts yellow rosin, 3 parts of tar, and 2 parts of tallow, and then the article once more heated and then tempered as usual in water of about 15° C.

Whitworth Compressed Steel. (Proc. Inst. M. E., May, 1887, p. 167.)—In this system a gradually increasing pressure up to 6 or 8 tons per square inch is applied to the fluid ingot, and within half an hour or so after the application of the pressure the column of fluid steel is shortened 1½ inch per foot or one eighth of its length; the pressure is then kept on for several hours, the result being that the metal is compressed into a perfect solid and homogeneous material, free from blow-holes.

In large gun-ring ingots during cooling the carbon is driven to the centre, the centre containing 0.8 carbon and the outer ring 0.3. The centre is blown out until a test shows that the inside of the ring contains the same percentage of carbon as the outside.

Compressed steel is made by the Bethlehem Iron Co. and the Carnegie Steel Co. for armor-plate and for gun and other heavy forgings.

CRUCIBLE STEEL.

Selection of Grades by the Eye, and Effect of Heat Treatment. (J. W. Langley, *Amer. Chemist*, November, 1876.)—In 1874, Miller Metcalf & Parkin, of Pittsburgh, selected eight samples of steel which were believed to form a set of graded specimens, the order being based on the quantity of carbon which they were supposed to contain. They were numbered from one to eight. On analysis, the quantity of carbon was found to follow the order of the numbers, while the other elements present—silicon, phosphorus, and sulphur—did not do so. The method of selection is described as follows :

The steel is melted in black-lead crucibles capable of holding about eight pounds; when thoroughly fluid it is poured into cast-iron moulds, and when cold the top of the ingot is broken off, exposing a freshly-fractured surface. The appearance presented is that of confused groups of crystals, all appearing to have started from the outside and to have met in the centre; the general form is common to all ingots of whatever composition, but in the trained eye, and especially when long and critically exercised, a minute but is

able difference is perceived between varying samples of steel, and ference is now known to be owing almost wholly to variations in the t of combined carbon, as the following table will show. Twelve sam- lected by the eye alone, and analyses of drillings taken direct from ot before it had been heated or hammered, gave results as below:

Iron by Diff.	Carbon.	Diff. of Carbon.	Silicon.	Phos.	Sulph.
99.614	.302019	.047	.018
99.455	.490	.188	.034	.005	.016
99.363	.529	.039	.043	.047	.018
99.370	.649	.120	.039	.030	.012
99.119	.801	.152	.029	.035	.016
99.086	.841	.040	.039	.024	.010
99.044	.867	.026	.057	.014	.018
99.040	.871	.004	.053	.024	.012
98.900	.955	.084	.059	.070	.016
98.861	1.005	.050	.088	.034	.012
98.752	1.058	.053	.120	.064	.006
98.834	1.070	.021	.039	.044	.004

the carbon is seen to increase in quantity in the order of the num- ble the other elements, with the exception of total iron, bear no rela- ble numbers on the samples. The mean difference of carbon is .071. ble steels the discrimination is less perfect.

appearance of the fracture by which the above twelve selections ade can only be seen in the cold ingot before any operation, except inal one of casting, has been performed upon it. As soon as it is red, the structure changes in a remarkable manner, so that all trace primitive condition appears to be lost.

her method of rendering visible to the eye the molecular and chemi- nges which go on in steel is by the process of hardening or temper- hen the metal is heated and plunged into water it acquires an e of hardness, but a loss of ductility. If the heat to which the steel en raised just before plunging is too high, the metal acquires intense ss, but it is so brittle as to be worthless; the fracture is of a bright, ar, or sandy character. In this state it is said to be burned, and it again be restored to its former strength and ductility by annealing; ined for all practical purposes, but in just this state it again shows eces of structure corresponding with its content in carbon. The of these changes can be illustrated by plunging a bar highly heated end and cold at the other into water, and then breaking it off in of equal length, when the fractures will be found to show appear- characteristic of the temperature to which the sample was raised.

specific gravity of steel is influenced not only by its chemical anal- y by the heat to which it is subjected, as is shown by the following densities referred to 60° F.):

Specific gravities of twelve samples of steel from the ingot; also of six numbered bars, each bar being overheated at one end and cold at the other, in this state plunged into water, and then broken into pieces of equal length.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
.....	7.855	7.836	7.841	7.829	7.838	7.824	7.819	7.818	7.813	7.807	7.803	7.805
red 1..	7.818	7.791	7.789	7.752	7.744	7.690
2..	7.814	7.811	7.784	7.755	7.749	7.741
3..	7.823	7.830	7.780	7.758	7.755	7.769
4..	7.826	7.849	7.808	7.773	7.780	7.798
5..	7.831	7.806	7.812	7.790	7.819	7.811
cold 6..	7.844	7.824	7.829	7.825	7.830	7.825

* Order of samples from bar.

Effect of Heat on the Grain of Steel. (W. Metcalf, *Steel*, p. 643.)—A simple experiment will show the alteration produced in high-carbon steel by different methods of hardening. If a bar of steel be nicked at about 9 or 10 places, and about half an inch apart, a specimen is obtained for the experiment. Place one end of the bar in a good fire, so that the first nicked piece is heated to whiteness, while the other end, being out of the fire, is heated up less and less as we go to the other end. As soon as the first piece is at a good white heat, a course burns a high carbon steel, and the temperature of the rest of the bar gradually passes down to a very dull red, the metal should be taken from the fire and suddenly plunged in cold water, in which it should be quite cold. It should then be taken out and carefully dried. An examination with a file will show that the first piece has the greatest hardness, while the last piece is the softest, the intermediate pieces gradually passing from one condition to the other. On now breaking off the pieces, a nick it will be seen that very considerable and characteristic changes have been produced in the appearance of the metal. The first burnt piece opens or crystalline in fracture; the succeeding pieces become closer and closer in the grain until one piece is found to possess that even grain and velvet-like appearance which is so much prized by the best steel users. The first pieces also, which have been too much heated, will probably be cracked; those at the other end will not be broken through. Hence if it be desired to make the steel hard and strong, the temperature used must be high enough to harden the metal through, not sufficient to open the grain.

Changes in Ultimate Strength and Elasticity of Steel by Hammering, Annealing, and Tempering. (J. W. L. Trans. A. S. C. E. 1892.)—The following table gives the result of test on some round steel bars, all from the same ingot, which were subjected to tensile stresses, and also by bending till fracture took place:

Number.	Treatment.	Angle of cold bend, degrees.	Carbon.		Elastic limit, pounds per square inch.	Tensile, pounds per square inch.	Elongation, per cent.	
			Total.	Semi-graphite.				
1	Cold-hammered bar	153	1.25	.47	.575	92,430	141,500	2.60
2	Bar drawn black....	75	1.25	.47	.577	114,700	138,400	6.00
3	Bar annealed.....	175	1.31	.70	.580	68,110	98,410	10.00
4	Bar hardened and drawn black.....	30	1.09	.86	.578	152,800	248,700	5.33

The total carbon given in the table was found by the color test, and is affected, not only by the total carbon, but by the condition of the steel. The analysis of the steel was:

Silicon.....	.242	Manganese.....	
Phosphorus.....	.02	Carbon (true total carbon, combustion).....	
Sulphur.....	.009		

Heating Tool Steel. (Miller, Metcalf & Parkin, 1877.)—It is necessary to pass through three distinct stages or times of heating: First, for forging; second, for hardening; third, for tempering.

The first requisite for a good heat for forging is a clean fire and a good fuel, so that jets of hot air will not strike the corners of the piece; and the fire should be regular, and give a good uniform heat to the whole piece. It should be keen enough to heat the piece as rapidly as possible, and allow it to be thoroughly heated through, without being so hot as to overheat the corners.

Steel should not be left in the fire any longer than is necessary to clear through, as "soaking" in fire is very injurious; and, on the other hand, it is necessary that it should be hot through, to prevent surface cracks.

By observing these precautions a piece of steel may always be heated to a uniform heat, when there is much forging to be done.

and most economical of welding fluxes is clean, crude borax, to be first thoroughly melted and then ground to fine powder. If the steel is properly heated, it should be forged to shape as quickly as possible, and just as the red heat is leaving the parts intended for cutting parts should be refined by rapid, light blows, continued until they are bright.

In the second stage of heating, for hardening, great care should be used; first, the cutting edges and working parts from heating more than the body of the piece; next, that the whole part to be hardened is heated uniformly through, without any part becoming visibly hotter than the rest. A uniform heat, as low as will give the required hardness, is the best for hardening.

A variation of heat, which is great enough to be seen, there will be shown in grain, which may be seen by breaking the piece; and a variation in temperature, there is a very good chance for a defect. Many a costly tool is ruined by inattention to this point. A too high heat is to open the grain; to make the steel coarse, and an irregular heat is to cause irregular grain, irregular strains,

and if the piece is properly heated for hardening, it should be quenched thoroughly in plenty of the cooling medium, water, as the case may be.

For the purpose of the cooling bath, to do the work quickly and uniformly is very necessary to good and safe work.

For a large piece safely a running stream should be used.

When hardening is caused by the use of too small baths,

In the third stage of heating, to temper, the first important requisite is uniformity. The next is time; the more slowly a piece is brought to temper, the better and safer is the operation.

For expensive tools are to be made it is a wise precaution to try small pieces of steel at different temperatures, so as to find out how low a heat will give the necessary hardness. The lowest heat is the best for any steel.

to Forge.—The trouble in the forge fire is usually uneven heating, or too high heat. Suppose the piece to be forged has been put in the fire, and forced as quickly as possible to a high yellow heat, almost up to the scintillating point. If this be done, in a few minutes the outside will be quite soft and in a nice condition for forging, while the inside parts will not be more than red-hot. Now let the piece be struck with the hammer and forged, and the soft outside will yield so readily that the hard inside, that the outer particles will be torn off, while the inside will remain sound.

In such a case to be reversed and the inside to be much hotter than the outside is, that the inside shall be in a state of semi-fusion, while the outside is hard and firm. Now let the piece be forged, and the outside will be broken and the whole piece will appear perfectly good until it is broken, when it is found to be hollow inside.

In such a case, if the piece had been heated soft all through, or if it had been heated all through, it would have forged perfectly sound.

For a high heat is more desirable to save heavy labor but in such a case where a fine steel is to be used for cutting purposes it must be heated so that very heavy forging refines the bars as they slowly cool, and with heats such refined bars until they are soft, he raises the heat so that the steel is coarse, and he cannot get them fine again unless he has a steam-hammer at command and knows how to use it well.

Tempering. (Miller, Metcalf & Parkin.)—Annealing or softening is done by heating steel to a red heat and then cooling it very slowly, so as to prevent it from getting hard again.

For the degree of heat, the more will steel be softened, until the red heat is reached, when the steel is melted.

It follows that the higher a piece of steel is heated the softer it will be when cooled, no matter how slowly it may be cooled; this is proved by the fact that an ingot is always harder than a rolled or hammered bar.

There is nothing gained by heating a piece of steel hotter than cherry-red; on the contrary, a higher heat has several disadvantages. First, if carried too far, it may leave the steel actually harder than when it was first heated. Second, if a scale is raised on the surface of the steel it will be harsh, granular oxide of iron, and will spoil the tools that use it. Third, a high scaling heat continued for a long time

If any number of forces be applied at a point, some in one direction and others in a contrary direction, their resultant is equal to the sum of those that act in one direction, diminished by the sum of those that act in the opposite direction; or, the resultant is equal to the algebraic sum of the components.

Parallelogram of Forces.—If two forces acting on a point be represented in direction and intensity by adjacent sides of a parallelogram, their resultant will be represented by that diagonal of the parallelogram which passes through the point. Thus OR , in Fig. 88, is the resultant of OQ and OP .

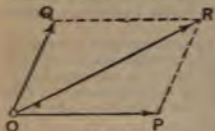


FIG. 88.

Polygon of Forces.—If several forces be applied at a point and act in a single plane, the resultant is found as follows:

Through the point draw a line representing the first force; through the extremity of this draw a line representing the second force; and so on throughout the system; finally, draw a line from the starting-point to the extremity of the last line drawn, and this will be the resultant required.

Suppose the body A , Fig. 89, to be urged in the directions $A1$, $A2$, $A3$, and $A5$ by forces which are to each other as the lengths of those lines. Suppose these forces to act successively and the body to first move from 1 to 2; the second force $A2$ then acts and finding the body at 1 would take it to 2'; the third force would then carry it to 3', the fourth to 4', and the fifth to 5'. The line $A5'$ represents in magnitude and direction the resultant of all the forces considered. If there had been an additional force, Ax , in the group, the body would be returned by that force to its original position, supposing the forces to act successively, but if they had acted simultaneously the body would never have moved at all; the tendencies to motion balancing each other.

It follows, therefore, that if the several forces which tend to move a body can be represented in magnitude and direction by the sides of a closed polygon taken in order, the body will remain at rest; but if the forces are represented by the sides of an open polygon, the body will move and the direction will be represented by the straight line which closes the polygon.

Twisted Polygon.—The rule of the polygon of forces holds true when the forces are not in one plane. In this case the lines $A1$, $A2$, $A3$, etc., form a twisted polygon, that is, one whose sides are not in one plane.

Parallelepipedon of Forces.—If three forces acting on a point be represented by three edges of a parallelepipedon which meet in a common point, their resultant will be represented by the diagonal of the parallelepipedon that passes through their common point.

Thus OR , Fig. 90, is the resultant of OQ , OS , and OP . OM is the resultant of OP and OQ , and OR is the resultant of OM and OS .

Moment of a Force.—The moment of a force (sometimes called statical moment), with respect to a point, is the product of the force by the perpendicular distance from the point to the direction of the force. The fixed point is called the centre of mo-



FIG. 90.

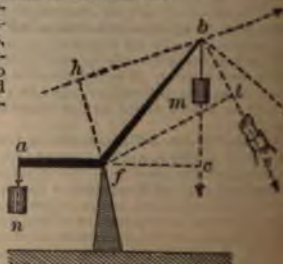


FIG. 91.

Thus the resultant of the two forces Q and P , Fig. 93, is equal R . Of any two parallel forces resultant each is proportional to the distance between the other two.

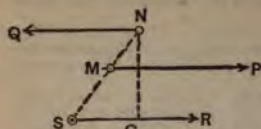


Fig. 93.

product of one of the forces by the distance between the two.

Since a couple has no single resultant, no single force can couple. To prevent the rotation of a body acted on by a couple, a pair of other forces is required, forming a second couple. P and Q forming a couple, may be balanced by a second couple formed by R and S . The point of application of either R or S may be a fixed pivot or axis.

Moment of the couple $PQ = P(c + b + a) =$ moment of $RS = Rb$. Also, $P + R = Q + S$.

The forces R and S need not be parallel to P and Q , but if not, then their components parallel to PQ are to be taken instead of the forces themselves.

Equilibrium of Forces.—A system of forces applied at points of a solid body will be in equilibrium when they have no tendency to produce motion, either of translation or of rotation.

The conditions of equilibrium are: 1. The algebraic sum of the moments of any three rectangular axes separately equal to 0.

2. The algebraic sum of the moments of the forces, with respect to three rectangular axes, must be separately equal to 0.

If the forces lie in a plane: 1. The algebraic sum of the moments of the forces, in the direction of any two rectangular axes, must be equal to 0.

2. The algebraic sum of the moments of the forces, with respect to three axes in the plane, must be equal to 0.

If a body is restrained by a fixed axis, as in case of a pulley, or a fixed axle, the forces will be in equilibrium when the algebraic sum of the moments of the forces with respect to the axis is equal to 0.

CENTRE OF GRAVITY.

The centre of gravity of a body, or of a system of bodies rigidly together, is that point about which, if suspended, all the parts are in equilibrium, that is, there will be no tendency to rotation. It is the point through which passes the resultant of the efforts of gravitation on the elementary particles of a body. In bodies of equal weight and uniform density, the centre of gravity is the centre of magnitude.

(The centre of magnitude of a figure is a point such that if it be divided into equal parts the distance of the centre of magnitude from any given plane is the mean of the distances of the several equal parts from that plane.)

If a body be suspended at its centre of gravity, it will be in equilibrium in all positions. If it be suspended at a point out of its centre of gravity, it will swing into a position such that its centre of gravity is vertically below its point of suspension.

To find the centre of gravity of any plane figure mechanically, suspend the figure by any point near its edge, and mark on it the direction of the plumb-line hung from that point; then suspend it from some other point, and again mark the direction of the plumb-line in like manner. The intersection of the two plumb-lines will be at the point of intersection of the perpendiculars from the points of suspension to the plumb-lines.

Centre of Gravity of Regular Figures.—The centre of gravity of a regular figure is its geometrical centre; for instance, a

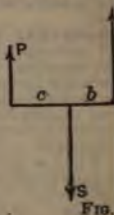


Fig. 94.

am, regular polygon, circle, circular ring, prism, cylinder, spheroid, middle frustums of spheroid, etc.

angle: On a line drawn from any angle to the middle of the opposite side, at a distance of one third of the line from the side; or at the middle of such lines drawn from any two angles.

centroid or trapezoid: Draw a diagonal, dividing it into two triangles, draw a line joining their centres of gravity. Draw the other diagonal, making two other triangles, and a line joining their centres. The intersection of the two lines is the centre of gravity required.

centre of a circle: On the radius which bisects the arc, $2cr + 3l$ from the vertex, c being the chord, r the radius, and l the arc.

centre of a circle: On the middle radius, $.4244r$ from the centre.

centre of a circle: On the middle radius, $.6002r$ from the centre.

centre of a circle: $c^2 + 12a$ from the centre. c = chord, a = area.

centroid of a parabolic surface: In the axis, $3/5$ of its length from the vertex.

centroid of a parabolic surface: $3/5$ length of the axis from the vertex, and $1/3$ of the base from the axis.

centroid of a pyramid: In the axis, $1/4$ of its length from the base.

centroid of a spheroid: In the axis, $3/8$ of its length from the vertex.

centroid of a regular prism: In the middle point of the axis.

centroid of a cone or pyramid: Let a = length of a line drawn from the vertex of the cone when complete to the centre of gravity of the base, and b = length of it between the vertex and the top of the frustum; then the centre of gravity of the frustum from centre of gravity of its base is $\frac{3a^2}{3a^2 + b^2}$.

$$\frac{4a^2 + aa' + a'^2}{3}$$

bodies, fixed one at each end of a straight bar, the common centre of gravity is in the bar, at that point which divides the distance between their respective centres of gravity in the inverse ratio of the weights; or, if the weight of the bar is neglected. But it may be considered as a third body, and allowed for as in the following directions:

method: Find the common centre of gravity of two of them; and find the common centre of gravity of these two and the third body, and so on to the last body of the group.

method, by the principle of moments: To find the centre of gravity of a system of bodies, or a body consisting of several parts, whose weights are known. If the bodies are in a plane, refer their several centres of gravity to two rectangular co-ordinate axes. Multiply each weight by its distance from one of the axes, add the products, and divide the sum by the sum of the weights: the result is the distance of the centre of gravity from that axis. Do the same with regard to the other axis. If the bodies are not in a plane, refer them to three planes at right angles to each other, and find the mean distance of the sum of the weights from each of the planes.

MOMENT OF INERTIA.

The moment of inertia of the weight of a body with respect to an axis is the sum of the products obtained by multiplying the weight of every particle by the square of its distance from the axis. If the moment of inertia with respect to any axis = I , the weight of any element = w , and its distance from the axis = r , we have $I = \sum(wr^2)$.

The moment of inertia varies, in the same body, according to the position of the axis. It is the least possible when the axis passes through the centre of gravity.

To find the moment of inertia of a body, referred to a given axis, divide the body into small parts of regular figure. Multiply the weight of each part by the square of the distance of its centre of gravity from the axis, and add the products: the sum of the products is the moment of inertia. The value of the moment of inertia thus obtained will be more nearly exact, the smaller and more numerous the parts into which the body is divided.

MOMENT OF INERTIA OF REGULAR SOLIDS.—Rod, or bar, of uniform thickness, with respect to an axis perpendicular to the length of the rod,

$$I = W \left(\frac{l^2}{3} + d^2 \right), \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

where l = length of rod, d = distance of centre of gravity from axis.

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{Square plate, axis in its} \\ \text{length} \end{array} \right\} I = W \left(\frac{l^2}{4} + d^2 \right); \dots \dots$$

of plate.

Circular plate, axis perpendicular to the plate,	} $I = W \left(\frac{r^2}{2} + d^2 \right)$,
Circular ring, axis perpendicular to its own plane,	
r and r' are the exterior and interior radii of the ring.	} $I = W \left(\frac{r^2 + r'^2}{2} + d^2 \right)$,
Cylinder, axis perpendicular to the axis of the cylinder,	
r = radius of base, l = length of the cylinder.	} $I = W \left(\frac{r^2}{4} + \frac{l^2}{3} + d^2 \right)$,

By making $d = 0$ in any of the above formulae we find the moment of inertia for a parallel axis through the centre of gravity.

The moment of inertia, Σwr^2 , numerically equals the weight of a body which, if concentrated at the distance unity from the axis of rotation, require the same work to produce a given increase of angular velocity as the actual body requires. It bears the same relation to angular acceleration which weight does to linear acceleration (Rankine). The term moment of inertia is also used in regard to areas, as the cross-sections of beams &c. In this case $I = \Sigma ar^2$, in which a is any elementary area, at distance from the centre. (See Moment of Inertia, under Strength of Materials, p. 247.)

CENTRE AND RADIUS OF GYRATION.

The *centre of gyration*, with reference to an axis, is a point at which the entire weight of a body be concentrated, its moment of inertia remain unchanged; or, in a revolving body, the point in which the weight of the body may be conceived to be concentrated, as if a pair of platinum were substituted for a pound of revolving feathers, the velocity and the accumulated work remaining the same. The distance this point from the axis is the *radius of gyration*. If W = the weight of the body, $I = \Sigma wr^2$ = its moment of inertia, and k = its radius of gyration

$$I = Wk^2 = \Sigma wr^2; \quad k = \sqrt{\frac{\Sigma wr^2}{W}}$$

The moment of inertia = the weight \times the square of the radius of gyration.

To find the radius of gyration divide the body into a considerable number of equal small parts—the more numerous the more nearly exact the result.—then take the mean of all the squares of the distances of the parts from the axis of revolution, and find the square root of the mean. Or, if the moment of inertia is known, divide it by the weight and take the square root. For radius of gyration of an area, as a cross-section of a beam, divide the moment of inertia of the area by the area and extract the square root.

The radius of gyration is the least possible when the axis passes through the centre of gravity. This minimum radius is called the *principal radius of gyration*. If we denote it by k and any other radius of gyration by k' , we have for the five cases given under the head of moment of inertia the following values:

- (1) Rod, axis perpendicular to length, } $k = l \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}}$; $k' = \sqrt{\frac{l^2}{3} + d^2}$.
- (2) Circular plate, axis in its plane, } $k = \frac{r}{2}$; $k' = \sqrt{\frac{r^2}{4} + d^2}$.
- (3) Circular plate, axis perpendicular to plane, } $k = r \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}}$; $k' = \sqrt{\frac{r^2}{2} + d^2}$.
- (4) Circular ring, axis perpendicular to plane, } $k = \sqrt{\frac{r^2 + r'^2}{2}}$; $k' = \sqrt{\frac{r^2 + r'^2}{2} + d^2}$.
- (5) Cylinder, axis perpendicular to length, } $k = \sqrt{\frac{r^2}{4} + \frac{l^2}{3}}$; $k' = \sqrt{\frac{r^2}{4} + \frac{l^2}{3} + d^2}$.

Table of Gyration and Squares of Radii of Gyration.

(of gyration of sections of columns, see page 249.)

Form or Solid.	Rad. of Gyration.	Square of R. of Gyration.
Axis at its base.....	.5773 <i>h</i>	$\frac{1}{6}h^2$
" mid-height.....	.2886 <i>h</i>	$1/12h^2$
Axis at end.....	.5773 <i>l</i>	$\frac{1}{6}l^2$
	.2886 <i>l</i>	$1/12l^2$
Referred to axis 2 <i>a</i> ... length <i>l</i> , base <i>b</i> , axis mid-breadth.....	.577 $\sqrt{b^2 + c^2}$.289 $\sqrt{4l^2 + b^2}$	$(b^2 + c^2) \div 3$ $\frac{4l^2 + b^2}{12}$
Referred to axis <i>h'</i> , axis mid-length... = <i>h</i> , " " " "	.289 $\sqrt{h^2 + h'^2}$.408 <i>h</i>	$(h^2 + h'^2) \div 12$ $\frac{h^2 + 3h'}{h^2 + 6}$
Tube: sides <i>b</i> , <i>h</i> , axis at end.....	.289 <i>h</i> $\sqrt{\frac{h+3b}{h+b}}$	$\frac{h^2}{12} \cdot \frac{h+3b}{h+b}$
Cylinder: diam. <i>h</i> , axis diam. <i>h'</i> , axis diam. <i>h'</i>	$\frac{1}{4} \sqrt{h^2 + h'^2}$	$\frac{1}{4}h'^2 = h^2 \div 16$ $(h^2 + h'^2) \div 16$
Cylinder: length <i>l</i> , axis at end.....	.289 $\sqrt{l^2 + 3r^2}$	$\frac{l^2}{12} + \frac{r^2}{4}$
Solid wheel of uniform cylinder of any diameter to axis of cyl.....	.7071 <i>r</i>	$\frac{1}{6}r^2$
Ring, or flat ring: outer and inner longitudinal axis; length.....	.7071 $\sqrt{R^2 + r^2}$.289 $\sqrt{l^2 + 3(R^2 + r^2)}$	$\frac{(R^2 + r^2) + 3}{12} R^2 + r^2$ $\frac{l^2}{12} + \frac{R^2}{4}$
Axis at its diameter.....	.289 $\sqrt{l^2 + 6R^2}$	$\frac{l^2}{12} + \frac{R^2}{2}$
Axis, longitud'l axis.....	<i>r</i>	$\frac{1}{2}r^2$
" " diam.....	.7071 <i>r</i>	$\frac{1}{6}r^2$
Axis at its diam.....	.6325 <i>r</i>	$\frac{2}{5}r^2$
Conical radius <i>r</i> , rev. about axis.....	.6325 <i>r</i>	$\frac{2}{5}r^2$
Rad. of base, rev. about axis.....	.5773 <i>r</i>	$\frac{1}{6}r^2$
Conical axis <i>a</i> , <i>b</i> , <i>c</i> ; revolving about axis.....	.4472 $\sqrt{b^2 + c^2}$	$\frac{b^2 + c^2}{5}$
Cylinder: radii <i>R</i> , <i>r</i> , revolving about axis.....	.6325 $\sqrt{\frac{R^2 - r^2}{R^2 + r^2}}$	$\frac{2}{5} \frac{R^2 - r^2}{R^2 + r^2}$ $\frac{2}{5} \frac{R^2 - r^2}{R^2 + r^2}$
Cylinder: radius <i>r</i>8165 <i>r</i>	$\frac{2}{3}r^2$
Rad. of base, rev. on axis.....	.5477 <i>r</i>	$0.3r^2$

OF OSCILLATION AND OF PERCUSSION.

Oscillation.—If a body oscillate about a fixed horizontal axis through its centre of gravity, there is a point in the line of centre of gravity perpendicular to the axis whose motion would be if the whole mass were collected at that point to vibrate as a pendulum about the fixed axis. This point is called the centre of oscillation.

Centre of Oscillation, or distance of the centre of oscillation from the axis of suspension = the square of the radius of gyration + distance of gravity from the point of suspension or axis. The radius of gyration and suspension are convertible. For a uniform thin bar or cylinder, be suspended about an axis, the centre of oscillation is a

the rod from the axis. If the point of suspension is at $\frac{1}{6}$ the length from the end, the centre of oscillation is also at $\frac{1}{6}$ the length from the axis, it is at the other end. In both cases the oscillation will be performed in the same time. If the point of suspension is at the centre of gravity, the length of the equivalent simple pendulum is infinite, and therefore the time of vibration is infinite.

For a sphere suspended by a cord, r = radius, h = distance of motion from the centre of the sphere, h' = distance of centre of oscillation from centre of the sphere, l = radius of oscillation = $h + h' = h +$

If the sphere vibrate about an axis tangent to its surface, $h = r$, and $h' = 2/5r$. If $h = 10r$, $l = 10r + \frac{r}{25}$.

Lengths of the radius of oscillation of a few regular plane figures suspended by the vertex or uppermost point.

1st. When the vibrations are flatwise, or perpendicular to the plane of the figure:

In an isosceles triangle the radius of oscillation is equal to $\frac{3}{8}$ of the height of the triangle.

In a circle, $\frac{5}{8}$ of the diameter.

In a parabola, $\frac{5}{7}$ of the height.

2d. When the vibrations are edgewise, or in the plane of the figure:

In a circle the radius of oscillation is $\frac{3}{4}$ of the diameter.

In a rectangle suspended by one angle, $\frac{3}{8}$ of the diagonal.

In a parabola, suspended by the vertex, $\frac{5}{7}$ of the height, plus $\frac{1}{25}$ of the parameter.

In a parabola, suspended by the middle of the base, $\frac{4}{7}$ of the height, plus $\frac{1}{25}$ of the parameter.

Centre of Percussion.—The centre of percussion of a body vibrating about a fixed axis is the point at which, if a blow is struck by the percussive action is the same as if the whole mass of the body were concentrated at the point. This point is identical with the centre of oscillation.

THE PENDULUM.

A body of any form suspended from a fixed axis about which it vibrates by the force of gravity is called a *compound pendulum*. The centre of mass concentrated at the centre of oscillation suspended from the centre of percussion by a string without weight, is called a *simple pendulum*. The equivalent simple pendulum has the same weight as the given body, the same moment of inertia, referred to an axis passing through the centre of suspension, and it oscillates in the same time.

The ordinary pendulum of a given length vibrates in equal times, if the angle of the vibrations does not exceed 4 or 5 degrees, that is, 2° or 3° from the vertical. This property of a pendulum is called its *isochronism*.

The time of vibration of a pendulum varies directly as the square root of the length, and inversely as the square root of the acceleration due to gravity at the given latitude and elevation above the earth's surface.

If T = the time of vibration, l = length of the simple pendulum, g = acceleration = 32.16, $T = \pi \sqrt{\frac{l}{g}}$; since π is constant, $T \propto \frac{\sqrt{l}}{\sqrt{g}}$. At a given place

g is constant and $T \propto \sqrt{l}$. If l be constant, then for any two pendulums $T \propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{g}}$. If T be constant, $gT^2 = \pi^2 l$; $l \propto g$; $g = \frac{\pi^2 l}{T^2}$. From this it follows that the force of gravity at any place may be determined if the length of a simple pendulum vibrating seconds, at that place is known. At New York this length is 39.1017 inches = 3.2585 ft., whence $g = 32.16$ ft. At London the length is 39.1393 inches. At the equator 39.0152 or 39.0168 inches, according to different authorities.

Time of vibration of a pendulum of a given length at New York

$$= t = \sqrt{\frac{l}{39.1017}} = \frac{\sqrt{l}}{6.258}$$

where t is in seconds and l in inches. Length of a pendulum having a time of vibration, t = $t^2 \times 39.1017$ inches,

The vibration of a pendulum may be varied by the addition of a weight above the centre of suspension, which counteracts the weight, and lengthens the period of vibration. By varying the height above the centre of suspension, the time is varied.

The weight of the upper bob of a compound pendulum, vibrating as a simple pendulum, is equal to the weight of the lower bob, and the distances of the weights from the centre of suspension are given:

$$w = W \frac{(39.1 + D) - D^2}{(39.1 + d) + d^2}$$

where W = weight of the lower bob, w = the weight of the upper bob; D = distance of the lower bob from the centre of suspension, in inches; d = the distance of the upper bob from the centre of suspension, in inches.

By means of a second bob, short pendulums may be constructed to vibrate as long pendulums.

By varying w or d until the lower weight is entirely counterbalanced, the period of vibration may be made infinite.

Pendulum.—A weight suspended by a cord and revolving in a circle with a speed in the circumference of a circular horizontal plane of radius r , the distance of the plane below the point of suspension being h , is in equilibrium by three forces—the tension in the cord, the centrifugal force, which tends to increase the radius r , and the force of gravity w downward. If v = the velocity in feet per second, the centre of gravity of the weight, as it describes the circumference, $g = 32.16$, and t = the time in seconds of performing one revolution is

$$t = \frac{2\pi r}{v} = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{h}{g}}; \quad h = \frac{g t^2}{4\pi^2} = .8146 t^2.$$

where $h = .8146$ foot = 9.775 inches.

The principle of the conical pendulum is used in the ordinary fly-ball governor of steam-engines. (See Governors.)

CENTRIFUGAL FORCE.

A weight revolving in a curved path of radius R in feet exerts a force, the centrifugal force, F , upon the arm or cord which restrains it from moving in a straight line, or "flying off at a tangent." If W = weight of the weight in pounds, N = number of revolutions per minute, v = linear velocity of the centre of gravity of the body, in feet per second, $g = 32.16$,

$$F = \frac{Wv^2}{gR} = \frac{Wv^2}{32.16R} = \frac{W4\pi^2RN^2}{3000g} = \frac{WRN^2}{2933} = .0003410 WRN^2 \text{ lbs.}$$

where N = number of revolutions per second, $F = 1.2276 WRN^2$, centrifugal force in fly-wheels, see Fly-wheels.)

VELOCITY, ACCELERATION, FALLING BODIES.

Velocity is the rate of motion, or the distance passed over by a body in a unit of time. If s = the distance in feet passed over in t seconds, and v = velocity in feet per second, and the velocity is uniform,

$$v = \frac{s}{t}; \quad s = vt; \quad t = \frac{s}{v}.$$

If the velocity varies uniformly, the mean velocity $v_0 = \frac{v_1 + v_2}{2}$, in which v_1 = the velocity at the beginning and v_2 the velocity at the end of the time t ,

$$s = \frac{v_1 + v_2}{2} t. \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

Acceleration is the change in velocity which takes place in a unit of time. If a = the acceleration = 1 foot per second in one second. For uniformly accelerated motion, the acceleration is a constant a .

$$\frac{v_2 - v_1}{t}; \quad v_2 = v_1 + at; \quad v_1 = v_2 - at; \quad t = \frac{v_2 - v_1}{a}$$

If the body start from rest, $v_1 = 0$; then

$$v_0 = \frac{v^2}{2}; \quad v_2 = 2v_0; \quad a = \frac{v^2}{t^2}; \quad v_2 = at; \quad v_2 - at = 0; \quad t = \frac{v_2}{a}.$$

Combining (1) and (3), we have

$$s = \frac{v_2^2 - v_1^2}{2a}; \quad s = v_1 t + \frac{at^2}{2}; \quad s = v_1 t - \frac{at^2}{2}.$$

If $v_1 = 0$, $s = \frac{v_2^2}{2a}$.

Retarded Motion.—If the body start with a velocity v_1 and come to rest, $v_2 = 0$; then $s = \frac{v_1^2}{2a}$.

In any case, if the change in velocity is v ,

$$s = \frac{v}{2}t; \quad s = \frac{v^2}{2a}; \quad s = \frac{a}{2}t^2.$$

For a body starting from or ending at rest, we have the equations

$$v = at; \quad s = \frac{v}{2}t; \quad s = \frac{at^2}{2}; \quad v^2 = 2as.$$

Falling Bodies.—In the case of falling bodies the acceleration is to gravity is 32.16 feet per second in one second, $= g$. Then if v = velocity acquired at the end of t seconds, or final velocity, and h = height or depth in feet passed over in the same time,

$$v = gt = 32.16t = \sqrt{2gh} = 8.02 \sqrt{h} = \frac{2h}{t};$$

$$h = \frac{gt^2}{2} = 16.08t^2 = \frac{v^2}{2g} = \frac{v^2}{64.32} = \frac{v^2}{2};$$

$$t = \frac{v}{g} = \frac{v}{32.16} = \sqrt{\frac{2h}{g}} = \frac{\sqrt{h}}{4.01} = \frac{2h}{v};$$

$$u = \text{space fallen through in the } T\text{th second} = g(T - \frac{1}{2}).$$

Value of g .—The value of g increases with the latitude, and decreases with the elevation. At the latitude of Philadelphia, 40°, its value is 32.15, at the sea-level, Everett gives $g = 32.173 - .082 \cos 2 \text{ lat.} - .00003 \text{ height}$ feet. At Paris, lat. 48° 50' N., $g = 32.087 \text{ cm.} = 32.181 \text{ ft.}$

Values of $\sqrt{2g}$, calculated by an equation given by C. S. Pierce, are given in a table in Smith's Hydraulics, from which we take the following:

Latitude	0°	10°	20°	30°	40°	50°	60°
Value of $\sqrt{2g}$	8.0112	8.0118	8.0137	8.0165	8.0199	8.0235	8.028

The value of $\sqrt{2g}$ decreases about .0004 for every 1000 feet increase in elevation above the sea-level.

For all ordinary calculations for the United States, g is generally taken 32.16, and $\sqrt{2g}$ at 8.02. In England $g = 32.2$, $\sqrt{2g} = 8.025$. Practical values of g for the United States, according to Pierce, are:

Latitude 49° at sea-level	$g = 32.186$
" 25° 10,000 feet above the sea	$g = 32.089$

From the above formula for falling bodies we obtain the following:

During the first second the body starting from a state of rest (resistance of the air neglected) falls $g \div 2 = 16.08$ feet; the acquired velocity is

32.16 ft. per sec.; the distance fallen in two seconds is $h = \frac{gt^2}{2} = 16.08$

64.32 ft.; and the acquired velocity is $v = gt = 64.32$ ft. The acceleration increase of velocity in each second, is constant, and is 32.16 ft. per sec. Using the equations for different times, we find for

Seconds, t	1	2	3	4	5
Acceleration, g	32.16	32.16	32.16	32.16	32.16
Velocity acquired at end of time, v	32.16	64.32	96.48	128.64	160.80
Height of fall in each second, u	16.08	48.24	80.40	112.56	144.72
Total height of fall, h	16.08	64.32	144.72	256.32	400.80

nts graphically the velocity, space, etc., of a body falling for a vertical line at the left is
 onds, the horizontal lines
 lf the acquired velocities
 ch second. The area of
 gle at the top represents
 en through. in the first
 16.08 feet, and each of the
 is an equal space. The
 gles between each pair of
 represents the height of
 ond, and the number of
 n any horizontal line and
 otal height fallen during
 figures under *h*, *u*, and *v*
 t are to be multiplied by
 the actual velocities and
 given times.

and Linear Velocity

ody.—Let *r* = radius of a
 feet, *n* = number of revo-
 lute, *v* = linear velocity of
 circumference in feet per second, and $60v$ = velocity in feet

$$v = \frac{2\pi rn}{60}, \quad 60v = 2\pi rn.$$

city is a term used to denote the angle through which any
 ly turns in a second, or the rate at which any point in it
 equal to unity is moving, expressed in feet per second. The
 velocity is the angle which at a distance = radius from the
 nded by an arc equal to the radius. This unit angle = $\frac{180}{\pi}$
 $\therefore 2\pi \times 57.3^\circ = 360^\circ$, or the circumference. If *A* = angular
 $r, A = \frac{v}{r} = \frac{2\pi n}{60}$.

Corresponding to a Given Acquired Velocity.

Velocity.	Height.	Velocity.	Height.	Velocity.	Height.	Velocity.	Height.	Velocity.	Height.
feet	feet.	feet	feet.	feet	feet.	feet	feet.	feet	feet.
sec.	feet.	p. sec.	feet.	p. sec.	feet.	p. sec.	feet.	p. sec.	feet.
13	2.62	34	17.9	55	47.0	76	89.8	97	146
14	3.04	35	19.0	56	48.8	77	92.2	98	149
15	3.49	36	20.1	57	50.5	78	94.6	99	152
16	3.98	37	21.3	58	52.3	79	97.0	100	155
17	4.49	38	22.4	59	54.1	80	99.5	105	171
18	5.03	39	23.6	60	56.0	81	102.0	110	188
19	5.61	40	24.9	61	57.9	82	104.5	115	205
20	6.22	41	26.1	62	59.8	83	107.1	120	224
21	6.85	42	27.4	63	61.7	84	109.7	130	263
22	7.52	43	28.7	64	63.7	85	112.3	140	304
23	8.21	44	30.1	65	65.7	86	115.0	150	350
24	8.94	45	31.4	66	67.7	87	117.7	175	476
25	9.71	46	32.9	67	69.8	88	120.4	200	622
26	10.5	47	34.3	68	71.9	89	123.2	300	1399
27	11.3	48	35.8	69	74.0	90	125.9	400	2488
28	12.2	49	37.3	70	76.2	91	128.7	500	3887
29	13.1	50	38.9	71	78.4	92	131.6	600	5597
30	14.0	51	40.4	72	80.6	93	134.5	700	7618
31	14.9	52	42.0	73	82.9	94	137.4	800	9952
32	15.9	53	43.7	74	85.1	95	140.3	900	12600
33	16.9	54	45.3	75	87.5	96	143.2	1000	15563



Fig. 95.

**Falling Bodies: Velocity Acquired by a Body Fall
Given Height.**

Height.	Velocity.	Height.	Velocity.	Height.	Velocity.	Height.	Velocity.	Height.	Velocity.	Height.	Velocity.
feet.	feet p.sec.	feet.	feet p.sec.	feet.	feet p.sec.	feet.	feet p.sec.	feet.	feet p.sec.	feet.	feet p.sec.
.005	.57	.39	5.01	1.20	8.79	5.	17.9	23.	38.5	73	72
.010	.80	.40	5.07	1.32	8.87	.2	18.3	.5	38.9	74	73
.015	.98	.41	5.14	1.34	8.94	.4	18.7	24.	39.3	75	74
.020	1.13	.42	5.20	1.36	9.01	.6	19.0	.5	39.7	76	75
.025	1.27	.43	5.26	1.38	9.08	.8	19.3	25.	40.1	77	76
.030	1.39	.44	5.32	1.39	9.15	6.	19.7	26	40.9	78	77
.035	1.50	.45	5.38	1.32	9.21	.2	20.0	27	41.7	79	78
.040	1.60	.46	5.44	1.34	9.29	.4	20.3	28	42.5	80	79
.045	1.70	.47	5.50	1.36	9.36	.6	20.6	29	43.2	81	80
.050	1.79	.48	5.56	1.38	9.43	.8	20.9	30	43.9	82	81
.055	1.88	.49	5.61	1.40	9.49	7.	21.2	31	44.7	83	82
.060	1.97	.50	5.67	1.43	9.57	.2	21.5	32	45.4	84	83
.065	2.04	.51	5.73	1.44	9.62	.4	21.8	33	46.1	85	84
.070	2.12	.52	5.78	1.46	9.70	.6	22.1	34	46.8	86	85
.075	2.20	.53	5.84	1.48	9.77	.8	22.4	35	47.4	87	86
.080	2.27	.54	5.90	1.50	9.82	8.	22.7	36	48.1	88	87
.085	2.34	.55	5.95	1.52	9.90	.2	23.0	37	48.8	89	88
.090	2.41	.56	6.00	1.54	9.96	.4	23.3	38	49.4	90	89
.095	2.47	.57	6.06	1.56	10.0	.6	23.5	39	50.1	91	90
.100	2.54	.58	6.11	1.58	10.1	.8	23.8	40	50.7	92	91
.105	2.60	.59	6.16	1.60	10.2	9.	24.1	41	51.4	93	92
.110	2.66	.60	6.21	1.65	10.3	.2	24.3	42	52.0	94	93
.115	2.72	.62	6.32	1.70	10.5	.4	24.6	43	52.6	95	94
.120	2.78	.64	6.42	1.75	10.6	.6	24.8	44	53.2	95	95
.125	2.84	.66	6.52	1.80	10.8	.8	25.1	45	53.8	96	96
.130	2.89	.68	6.61	1.90	11.1	10.	25.4	46	54.4	97	97
.14	3.00	.70	6.71	2.	11.4	.5	26.0	47	55.0	98	98
.15	3.11	.72	6.81	2.1	11.7	11.	26.6	48	55.6	99	99
.16	3.21	.74	6.90	2.2	11.9	.5	27.2	49	56.1	100	100
.17	3.31	.76	6.99	2.3	12.2	12.	27.8	50	56.7	125	125
.18	3.40	.78	7.09	2.4	12.4	.5	28.4	51	57.3	150	150
.19	3.50	.80	7.18	2.5	12.6	13.	28.9	52	57.8	175	175
.20	3.59	.82	7.26	2.6	12.9	.5	29.5	53	58.4	200	200
.21	3.68	.84	7.35	2.7	13.2	14.	30.0	54	59.0	225	225
.22	3.76	.86	7.44	2.8	13.4	.5	30.5	55	59.5	250	250
.23	3.85	.88	7.53	2.9	13.7	15.	31.1	56	60.0	275	275
.24	3.93	.90	7.61	3.	13.9	.5	31.6	57	60.6	300	300
.25	4.01	.92	7.69	3.1	14.1	16.	32.1	58	61.1	350	350
.26	4.09	.94	7.78	3.2	14.3	.5	32.6	59	61.6	400	400
.27	4.17	.96	7.86	3.3	14.5	17.	33.1	60	62.1	450	450
.28	4.25	.98	7.94	3.4	14.8	.5	33.6	61	62.7	500	500
.29	4.32	1.00	8.02	3.5	15.0	18.	34.0	62	63.2	550	550
.30	4.39	1.02	8.10	3.6	15.2	.5	34.5	63	63.7	600	600
.31	4.47	1.04	8.18	3.7	15.4	19.	35.0	64	64.2	700	700
.32	4.54	1.06	8.26	3.8	15.6	.5	35.4	65	64.7	800	800
.33	4.61	1.08	8.34	3.9	15.8	20.	35.9	66	65.2	900	900
.34	4.68	1.10	8.41	4.	16.0	.5	36.3	67	65.7	1000	1000
.35	4.74	1.12	8.49	.2	16.4	21.	36.8	68	66.1	2000	2000
.36	4.81	1.14	8.57	.4	16.8	.5	37.2	69	66.6	3000	3000
.37	4.88	1.16	8.64	.6	17.2	22.	37.6	70	67.1	4000	4000
.38	4.94	1.18	8.72	.8	17.6	.5	38.1	71	67.6	5000	5000

Parallelogram of Velocities.—The principle of the composition and resolution of forces may also be applied to velocities or to moved in given intervals of time. Referring to Fig. 88, page IV, at *O* has a force applied to it which acting alone would give represented by *OQ* per second, and at the same time it is

Another force which acting alone would give it a velocity OP per second, the result of the two forces acting together for one second will carry it to E , OR being the diagonal of the parallelogram of OQ and OP ; and the resultant velocity. If the two component velocities are uniform, the resultant will be uniform and the line OR will be a straight line; but if either velocity is a varying one, the line will be a curve. Fig. 96 shows the resultant velocities, also the path traversed by a body acted on by two forces, one of which would carry it at a uniform velocity over the intervals 1, 2, 3, B , and the other of which would carry it by an accelerated motion over the intervals a , b , c , D in the same times. At the end of the respective intervals the body will be found at C_1 , C_2 , C_3 , C , and the mean velocity during each interval is represented by the distances between these points. Such a curved path is traversed by a shot, the impelling force from the gun giving it a uniform velocity in the direction the gun is aimed, and gravity giving it an accelerated velocity downward. The path of a projectile is a parabola. The distance it will travel is greatest when its initial direction is at an angle 45° above the horizontal.

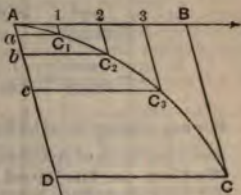


FIG. 96.

Mass—Force of Acceleration.—The mass of a body, or the quantity of matter it contains, is a constant quantity, while the weight varies according to the variation in the force of gravity at different places. If g is the acceleration due to gravity, and w = weight, then the mass $m = \frac{w}{g}$, $w = mg$. Weight here means the resultant of the force of gravity on the particles of a body, such as may be measured by a spring-balance, or by the extension or deflection of a rod of metal loaded with the given weight.

Force has been defined as that which causes, or tends to cause, or to destroy, motion. It may also be defined (Kennedy's Mechanics of Machinery) as the cause of acceleration; and the unit of force as the force required to produce unit acceleration in a unit of free mass.

Force equals the product of the mass by the acceleration, or $f = ma$. Also, if v is the velocity acquired in the time t , $ft = mv$; $f = mv + t$; the acceleration being uniform.

The force required to produce an acceleration of g (that is, 32.16 ft. per sec.) in one second is $f = mg = \frac{w}{g}g = w$, or the weight of the body. Also,

$$f = ma = m \frac{v_2 - v_1}{t}, \text{ in which } v_2 \text{ is the velocity at the end, and } v_1 \text{ the velocity at the beginning of the time } t, \text{ and } f = mg = \frac{w}{g} \frac{(v_2 - v_1)}{t} = \frac{w}{g} a;$$

or, the force required to give any acceleration to a body is to the weight of the body as that acceleration is to the acceleration produced by gravity. (The weight w is the weight where g is measured.)

EXAMPLE.—Tension in a cord lifting a weight. A weight of 100 lbs. is lifted vertically by a cord a distance of 80 feet in 4 seconds, the velocity uniformly increasing from 0 to the end of the time. What tension must be maintained in the cord? Mean velocity = $v_0 = 20$ ft. per sec.; final velocity = $v_1 = 3v_0 = 40$; acceleration $a = \frac{v_2 - v_1}{t} = \frac{40 - 0}{4} = 10$. Force $f = ma = \frac{100}{32.16} \times 10 = 31.1$ lbs. This is the force required to produce the acceleration only; to it must be added the force required to lift the weight without acceleration, or 100 lbs., making a total of 131.1 lbs.

The Resistance to Acceleration is the same as the force required to produce the acceleration = $\frac{w}{g} \frac{(v_2 - v_1)}{t}$.

Formulae for Accelerated Motion.—For cases of uniformly accelerated motion other than those of falling bodies, we have the formulae given, $f = \frac{w}{g} a$, $= \frac{w}{g} \frac{v_2 - v_1}{t}$. If the body starts from rest, $v_1 = 0$, v_2

= v , and $f = \frac{wv}{g t}$, $f g t = wv$. We also have $s = \frac{v t}{2}$. Transforming substituting for g its value 32.16, we obtain

$$f = \frac{wv^2}{64.32s} = \frac{wv}{32.16t} = \frac{wv}{16.08t^2}; \quad w = \frac{32.16ft}{v} = \frac{64.32fs}{v^2};$$

$$s = \frac{wv^2}{64.32f} = \frac{16.08ft^2}{w} = \frac{vt}{2}; \quad v = 8.02 \sqrt{\frac{fs}{w}} = \frac{32.16ft}{w};$$

$$t = \frac{wv}{32.16f} = \frac{1}{4.01} \sqrt{\frac{ws}{f}}$$

For any change in velocity $f = w \left(\frac{v_2^2 - v_1^2}{64.32s} \right)$.

(See also Work of Acceleration, under Work.)

Motion on Inclined Planes.—The velocity acquired by a descending on an inclined plane by the force of gravity (friction neglected) is equal to that acquired by a body falling freely from the height of the plane. The times of descent down different inclined planes of the same height vary as the length of the planes.

The rules for uniformly accelerated motion apply to inclined planes. α is the angle of the plane with the horizontal, $\sin \alpha =$ the ratio of the height to the length = $\frac{h}{l}$, and the constant accelerating force is $g \sin \alpha$. The velocity at the end of t seconds is $v = gt \sin \alpha$. The distance passed over t seconds is $l = \frac{1}{2} g t^2 \sin \alpha$. The time of descent is

$$t = \sqrt{\frac{2l}{g \sin \alpha}} = \frac{l}{4.01 \sqrt{h}}$$

MOMENTUM, VIS-VIVA.

Momentum, or quantity of motion in a body, is the product of the mass by the velocity at any instant = $mv = \frac{w}{g}v$.

Since the moving force = product of mass by acceleration, $f = ma$; $a = \frac{v}{t}$, the velocity acquired in t seconds = v , or $a = \frac{v}{t}$, $f = \frac{mv}{t}$; $ft = mv$; that is, the product of a constant force into the time in which it acts equals numerically the momentum.

Since $ft = mv$, if $t = 1$ second $mv = f$, whence momentum might be defined as numerically equivalent to the number of pounds of force that stop a moving body in 1 second, or the number of pounds of force which acting during 1 second will give it the given velocity.

Vis-viva, or living force, is a term used by early writers on Mechanics to denote the energy stored in a moving body. Some defined it as the product of the mass into the square of the velocity, $mv^2 = \frac{w}{g}v^2$ others as half of this quantity or $\frac{1}{2}mv^2$, or the same as what is now known as energy. The term is now practically obsolete, its place being taken by the word energy.

WORK, ENERGY, POWER.

Work is the overcoming of resistance through a certain distance, measured by the product of the resistance into the space through which it is overcome. It is also measured by the product of the moving force into the distance through which the force acts in overcoming the resistance. Thus in lifting a body from the earth against the attraction of gravity, resistance is the weight of the body, and the product of this weight into the distance the body is lifted is the work done.

A **Unit of Work**, in British measures, is the *foot-pound*, or the work done in overcoming a pressure or weight equal to 1 pound through 1 foot.

work performed by a piston in driving a fluid before it, or by a fluid ing a piston before it, may be expressed in either of the following

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Resistance} \times \text{distance traversed} \\ & = \text{intensity of pressure} \times \text{area} \times \text{distance traversed}; \\ & = \text{intensity of pressure} \times \text{volume traversed.} \end{aligned}$$

work performed in lifting a body is the product of the weight of the ito the height through which its centre of gravity is lifted. A machine lifts the centres of gravity of several bodies at once to heights the same or different, the whole quantity of work performed in so s the sum of the several products of the weights and heights; but aulty can also be computed by multiplying the sum of all the s into the height through which their common centre of gravity is (Rankine.)

er is the rate at which work is done, and is expressed by the quo- the work divided by the time in which it is done, or by units of work ond, per minute, etc., as foot-pounds per second. The most common power is the *horse-power*, established by James Watt as the power of 2 London draught-horse to do work during a short interval, and used to measure the power of his steam-engines. This unit is 33,000 foot- per minute = 550 foot-pounds per second = 1,980,000 foot-pounds per

Expressions for Force, Work, Power, etc.

undamental conceptions in Dynamics are:

ce, **Time, Space**, represented by the letters *F, T, S*.

city = space divided by time, $V = \frac{S}{T}$, if *V* be uniform.

rk = product of force into space = $FS = W = FVT$. (*V* uniform.)

er = rate of work = work divided by time = $\frac{FS}{T} = P =$ product of ito velocity = FV .

er exerted for a certain time produces work; $PT = FS = FVT = W$. **rt** is a name applied to a force which acts on a body in the direction otion.

istance is that which is opposed to a moving force. It is equal and e force.

se-power Hours, an expression for work measured as the t of a power into the time during which it acts = PT . Sometimes it ummation of a variable power for a given time, or the average power fed by the time.

rgy, or stored work, is the capacity for performing work. It is ed by the same unit as work, that is, in foot-pounds. It may be *potential*, as in the case of a body of water stored in a reservoir, e of doing work by means of a water-wheel, or *actual*, sometimes *kinetic*, which is the energy of a moving body. Potential energy is ed by the product of the weight of the stored body into the distance h which it is capable of acting, or by the product of the pressure it into the distance through which that pressure is capable of acting. al energy may also exist as stored heat, or as stored chemical energy, uel, gunpowder, etc., or as electrical energy, the measure of these s being the amount of work that they are capable of performing. energy of a moving body is the work which it is capable of performing, a retarding resistance before being brought to rest, and is equal to rk which must be done upon it to bring it from a state of rest to its velocity.

measure of actual energy is the product of the weight of the body e height from which it must fall to acquire its actual velocity. If *v* = city in feet per second, according to the principle of falling bodies,

weight due to the velocity = $\frac{v^2}{2g}$, and if *w* = the weight, the energy =

wh . As the quantity $\frac{mv^2}{2g}$ is called the mass = *m*, energy is equal to half s in the square of the velocity = $\frac{1}{2}mv^2$. Since energy is the capacity forming work, the units of work and energy are equivalent, or $FS = \frac{mv^2}{2g} = wh$. Energy exerted = work done.

The actual energy of a rotating body whose angular velocity moment of inertia $\Sigma wr^2 = I$ is $\frac{A^2 I}{2g}$, that is, the product of the moment of inertia into the height due to the velocity, A , of a point whose distance from the axis of rotation is unity; or it is equal to $\frac{wv^2}{2g}$, in which w is the weight of the body and v is the velocity of the centre of gyration.

Work of Acceleration.—The work done in giving acceleration to a body is equal to the product of the force producing the acceleration, the resistance to acceleration, into the distance moved in a given time, as already stated equals the product of the mass into the acceleration.

or $f = ma = \frac{w}{g} \frac{v_2 - v_1}{t}$. If the distance traversed in the time t is s ,
work = $fs = \frac{w}{g} \frac{v_2 - v_1}{t} s$.

EXAMPLE.—What work is required to move a body weighing 100 lbs. through a distance of 80 ft. in 4 seconds, the velocity uniformly in friction neglected?

Mean velocity $v_0 = 20$ ft. per second; final velocity = $v_2 = 2v_0 = 40$ ft. per second; $v_1 = 0$; acceleration, $a = \frac{v_2 - v_1}{t} = \frac{40}{4} = 10$; force = $\frac{w}{g} a = 31.1$ lbs.; distance 80 ft.; work = $fs = 31.1 \times 80 = 2488$ foot-pounds.

The energy stored in the body moving at the final velocity of 40 ft. per second is

$$\frac{1}{2} w v^2 = \frac{1}{2} \frac{w}{g} v^2 = \frac{100 \times 40^2}{2 \times 32.16} = 2488 \text{ foot-pounds,}$$

which equals the work of acceleration,

$$fs = \frac{w}{g} \frac{v_2}{t} s = \frac{w}{g} \frac{v_2}{t} \frac{v_2 t}{2} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{w}{g} v_2^2.$$

If a body of the weight W falls from a height H , the work of acceleration is simply WH , or the same as the work required to raise the body to the same height.

Work of Accelerated Rotation.—Let A = angular velocity, r = radius of solid body rotating about an axis, that is, the velocity of a particle whose radius is unity. Then the velocity of a particle whose radius is r is $v = rA$. If the angular velocity is accelerated from A_1 to A_2 , the increase in the velocity of the particle is $v_2 - v_1 = r(A_2 - A_1)$, and the work of acceleration is

$$\frac{w}{g} \times \frac{v_2^2 - v_1^2}{2} = \frac{wr^2}{g} \frac{A_2^2 - A_1^2}{2},$$

in which w is the weight of the particle.

The work of acceleration of the whole body is

$$\Sigma \left\{ \frac{w}{g} \times \frac{v_2^2 - v_1^2}{2} \right\} = \frac{A_2^2 - A_1^2}{2g} \times \Sigma wr^2.$$

The term Σwr^2 is the moment of inertia of the body.

“Force of the Blow” of a Steam Hammer or Other

Weight.—The question is often asked: “With what force does a falling hammer strike?” The question cannot be answered directly, it is based upon a misconception or ignorance of fundamental mechanical laws. The energy, or capacity of doing work, of a body raised to a certain height and let fall cannot be expressed in pounds, simply, but only in foot-pounds, which is the product of the weight into the height through which it falls, or the product of its weight + 64.32 into the square of the height in feet per second, which it acquires after falling through the given height. If F = weight of the body, M its mass, g the acceleration due to gravity, S the height of fall, and v the velocity at the end of the fall, the energy of the body just before striking, is $FS = \frac{1}{2} Mv^2 = Wv^2 + 2g = Wv^2$, which is the general equation of energy of a moving body. The energy of the body is the product of a force into a distance, so that it does when it strikes, is the manifestation of a force, which is expressed simply in foot-pounds, is the overcoming of a resistance through a certain distance, expressed as the product of the force

the distance through which it is exerted. If a hammer weighing 10 lb., its energy is 1000 foot-pounds. Before being brought to rest it must do 1000 foot-pounds of work against one or more resistances. These resistances may be of various kinds, such as that due to motion imparted to the body of the hammer against friction, or against resistance to shearing or tearing, or against crushing and heating of both the falling body and the work. The distance through which these resisting forces act is generally indeterminate, and therefore the average of the resisting forces, which themselves generally vary with the distance, is also indeterminate.

Impact of Bodies.—If two inelastic bodies collide, they will move on as one mass, with a common velocity. The momentum of the combined mass is equal to the sum of the momenta of the two bodies before impact. If m_1 and m_2 are the masses of the two bodies and v_1 and v_2 their respective velocities before impact, and v their common velocity after impact, $v = \frac{m_1 v_1 + m_2 v_2}{m_1 + m_2}$.

$$v = \frac{m_1 v_1 + m_2 v_2}{m_1 + m_2}.$$

If the bodies move in opposite directions $v = \frac{m_1 v_1 - m_2 v_2}{m_1 + m_2}$, or, the velocity of the combined mass after impact is equal to the algebraic sum of their momenta before impact, divided by the sum of their masses.

If two perfectly elastic bodies of equal momenta impinge directly upon one another in opposite directions they will be brought to rest.

Impact of Inelastic Bodies Causes a Loss of Energy, and the energy lost is equal to the sum of the energies due to the velocities lost and the energies of the bodies, respectively.

$$\frac{1}{2} m_1 v_1^2 + \frac{1}{2} m_2 v_2^2 - \frac{1}{2} (m_1 + m_2) v^2 = \frac{1}{2} m_1 (v_1 - v)^2 + \frac{1}{2} m_2 (v_2 - v)^2.$$

Let $v_1 = 10$, $m_1 = 10$, $m_2 = 8$, $v_2 = 15$, $v = 8$. The velocity gained by m_2 is $v - v_2 = 8 - 15 = -7$.

If the bodies collide they will come to rest, for $v = \frac{10 \times 10 - 8 \times 15}{10 + 8} = 0$.

The energy loss is

$$\frac{1}{2} \times 10 \times 10^2 + \frac{1}{2} \times 8 \times 15^2 - \frac{1}{2} \times 18 \times 0^2 = \frac{1}{2} \times 10 \times (10 - 0)^2 + \frac{1}{2} \times 8 \times (15 - 0)^2 = 1630 \text{ ft. lbs.}$$

How much of the energy is lost? Ans. It is used doing internal work in themselves, changing their shape and heating them.

Perfectly Elastic Bodies. Let e be the elasticity, that is, the ratio of the force of restitution, or the internal force tending to restore the body after it has been compressed, bears to the force of compression. Let m_1 and m_2 be the masses, v_1 and v_2 their velocities before impact, v_1' and v_2' their velocities after impact; then

$$v_1' = \frac{m_1 v_1 + m_2 v_2}{m_1 + m_2} - \frac{m_2 e (v_1 - v_2)}{m_1 + m_2};$$

$$v_2' = \frac{m_1 v_1 + m_2 v_2}{m_1 + m_2} + \frac{m_1 e (v_1 - v_2)}{m_1 + m_2}.$$

If the bodies are perfectly elastic, their relative velocities before and after impact are the same. That is: $v_1' - v_2' = v_2 - v_1$.

If the bodies are perfectly inelastic, the sum of their momenta after impact is the same as the sum of their momenta before impact.

$$m_1 v_1' + m_2 v_2' = m_1 v_1 + m_2 v_2.$$

For a demonstration of these and other laws of impact, see Smith's Memoirs, Weisbach's Mechanics.

Recoil of Guns.—(Eng'g, Jan. 25, 1884, p. 72.)

- W the weight of the gun and carriage;
- v the maximum velocity of recoil;
- w the weight of the projectile;
- V the muzzle velocity of the projectile.

Since the momentum of the gun and carriage is equal to the momentum of the projectile, we have $WV = wv$, or $V = \frac{wv}{W}$.

This statement by Prof. W. D. Marks, in Nystrom's Mechanics, is incorrect, that this formula is in error is itself erroneous.

Taking the case of a 10-inch gun firing a 400-lb. projectile with a muzzle velocity of 1400 feet per second, the weight of the gun and carriage being 49,380 lbs., we find the velocity of recoil =

$$V = \frac{1400 \times 400}{49,380} = 11 \text{ feet per second.}$$

Now the energy of a body in motion is $WV^2 + 2g$.

$$\text{Therefore the energy of recoil} = \frac{49,380 \times 11^2}{2 \times 32.2} = 92,593 \text{ foot-pounds.}$$

$$\text{The energy of the projectile is} = \frac{400 \times 1400^2}{2 \times 32.2} = 12,173,913 \text{ foot-pounds.}$$

Conservation of Energy.—No form of energy can ever be produced except by the expenditure of some other form, nor annihilated except by being reproduced in another form. Consequently the sum total of energy in the universe, like the sum total of matter, must always remain the same. (S. Newcomb.) Energy can never be destroyed or lost; it can be transformed, can be transferred from one body to another, but whatever matter what transformations are undergone, when the total effects of the exertion of a given amount of energy are summed up the result will be exactly equal to the amount originally expended from the source. This is called the Conservation of Energy. (Cotterill and Slade.)

A heavy body sustained at an elevated position has potential energy. When it falls, just before it reaches the earth's surface it has actual kinetic energy, due to its velocity. When it strikes it may penetrate the earth a certain distance or may be crushed. In either case friction results by which the energy is converted into heat, which is gradually radiated into the earth or into the atmosphere, or both. Mechanical energy and heat are mutually convertible. Electric energy is also convertible into heat; mechanical energy, and either kind of energy may be converted into the other.

Sources of Energy.—The principal sources of energy on the earth's surface are the muscular energy of men and animals, the energy of the wind, of flowing water, and of fuel. These sources derive their energy from the rays of the sun. Under the influence of the sun's rays vegetation grows and wood is formed. The wood may be used as fuel under a steam boiler, its carbon being burned to carbonic acid. Three tenths of its heat energy escapes in the chimney and by radiation, and seven tenths appear as potential energy in the steam. In the steam-engine, of this seven tenths six parts are dissipated in heating the condensing water and are wasted, the remaining one tenth of the original heat energy of the wood is converted into mechanical work in the steam-engine, which may be used to drive machinery. This work is finally, by friction of various kinds, or possibly after transformation into electric currents, transformed into heat which is radiated into the atmosphere, increasing its temperature. The all the potential heat energy of the wood is, after various transformations, converted into heat, which, mingling with the store of heat in the atmosphere, apparently is lost. But the carbonic acid generated by the combustion of the wood is, again, under the influence of the sun's rays, absorbed by vegetation, and more wood may thus be formed having potential energy equal to the original.

Perpetual Motion.—The law of the conservation of energy, in which no law of mechanics is more firmly established, is an absolute bar to all schemes for obtaining by mechanical means what is called "perpetual motion," or a machine which will do an amount of work greater than is equivalent of the energy, whether of heat, of chemical combination, of electricity, or mechanical energy, that is put into it. Such a result would be the creation of an additional store of energy in the universe, which is impossible by any human agency.

The Efficiency of a Machine is a fraction expressing the ratio of the useful work to the whole work performed, which is equal to the energy expended. The limit to the efficiency of a machine is unity, denoting an efficiency of a perfect machine in which no work is lost. The difference between the energy expended and the useful work done, or the loss, is usually expended either in overcoming friction or in doing work on the body surrounding the machine from which no useful work is received. This loss is the portion of the vessel part of the energy exerted in the engine.

of work of giving motion to the vessel, and the remainder is overcoming the friction of the machinery and in making currents the surrounding water.

ANIMAL POWER.

a Man against Known Resistances. (Rankine.)

of Exertion.	R , lbs.	V , ft. per sec.	$\frac{T''}{3600}$ (hours per day).	RV , ft.-lbs. per sec.	RVT , ft.-lbs. per day.
own weight up adder	143	0.5	8	72.5	2,088,000
weights with rope, using the rope un-	40	0.75	6	30	648,000
weights by hand	44	0.55	6	24.2	522,720
weights up-stairs rning unloaded	143	0.13	6	18.5	399,600
up earth to a 5 ft. 3 in	6	1.3	10	7.8	280,800
earth in barrow up 1 in 12, $\frac{1}{2}$ horiz. ft. per sec. and re-	132	0.075	10	9.9	356,400
pulling horizon-					
stan or oar)	26.5	2.0	8	53	1,526,400
crank or winch	12.5	5.0	?	62.5
	18.0	2.5	8	45	1,296,000
	30.0	14.4	2 min.	988
	13.2	2.5	10	33	1,188,000
g	15	?	8?	?	480,000

R .— R , resistance; V , effective velocity = distance through overcome \div total time occupied, including the time of moving away; T'' , time of working, in seconds per day; $T'' \div 3600$, same as per day; RV , effective power, in foot-pounds per second; Rk .

Performance of a Man in Transporting Loads Horizontally. (Rankine.)

of Exertion.	L , lbs.	V , ft.-sec.	$\frac{T}{3600}$ (hours per day).	LV , lbs. con- veyed 1 foot.	LVT , lbs. con- veyed 1 foot.
loaded, transport-					
own weight	146	5	10	700	25,200,000
load L in 2-whd.					
return unloaded ..	224	$1\frac{1}{2}$	10	373	13,438,000
wh. barrow, ditto..	132	$1\frac{1}{2}$	10	230	7,920,000
with burden	90	$2\frac{1}{2}$	7	225	5,670,000
burden, returning					
1	140	$1\frac{1}{2}$	6	233	5,032,800
burden, for 30 sec-	252	0	0
	126	11.7	1474.2
	0	23.1

L .— L , load; V , effective velocity, com-
ing, in seconds per day; $T \div 3600$, same as
per second, in lbs. conveyed one foot; L .

In the first line only of each of the two tables above is the man taken into account in computing the work done.

Clark says that the average net daily work of an ordinary pump, a winch, or a crane taken at 8300 foot-pound or one-tenth of a horse hours a day; but for shafts from four to five times be exerted.

Mr. Glynn says that exert a force of 25 lbs. of a crane for short periods for continuous work a foot is all that should be assumed through 230 feet per minute.

Man-wheel.—Fig. of a very efficient maning-machine which the Bernese, Switzerland, in 1850. The diameter of the wheel was wide enough for three men to walk abreast, and nine men could work in it.

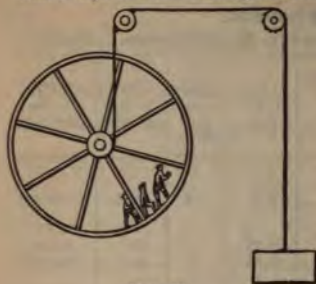


FIG. 97.

Work of a Horse against a Known Resistance

Kind of Exertion.	R.	V.	$\frac{T}{3600}$	RV
1. Canter and trotting, drawing a light railway carriage (thoroughbred).....	min. 29½ mean 30½ max. 50	14½	4	447
2. Horse drawing cart or boat, walking (draught-horse)....	130			
3. Horse drawing a gin or mill, walking.....	100			
4. Ditto, trotting.....	66	6.5	4½	429

EXPLANATION.—R, resistance, in lbs.; V, velocity, in feet per second; T, time in hours; RV, work per second; RVT, work per hour. The average power of a draught-horse, as given in line 2 of the table, is 432 foot-pounds per second, is 432/550 = 0.785 of the conveyance assigned by Watt to the ordinary unit of the rate of work of a horse. It is the mean of several results of experiments, and may be considered as an average of ordinary performance under favorable circumstances.

Performance of a Horse in Transporting a Load Horizontally. (Rankine.)

Kind of Exertion.	L.	V.	T.	LV
5. Walking with cart, always loaded.....	1500	3.6	10	5400
6. Trotting, ditto.....	750	7.2	4½	5400
7. Walking with cart, going loaded, returning empty; V, mean velocity.....	1500	2.0	10	3000
8. Carrying burden, walking.....	270	3.6	10	972
9. Ditto, trotting.....	180	7.2	7	1296

EXPLANATION.—L, load in lbs.; V, velocity in feet per second; T, time in hours; LV, transport per second; LVT, transport per hour. This table has reference to conveyance on common roads on level ground, in bad order as respects the resistance to traction upon the wheels. In this machine a horse works less advantageously than on a straight track. In order to draw a

results may be realized with a horse-gin, the diameter of the circle in which the horse walks should not be less than about forty

4. Mules, Asses.—Authorities differ considerably as to the power of animals. The following may be taken as an approximative comparison between them and draught-horses (Rankine):

Load, the same as that of average draught-horse; best velocity and work one-third of horse.

—Load, one half of that of average draught-horse; best velocity, same with horse; work one half.

—Load, one quarter that of average draught-horse; best velocity the same with horse; work one quarter.

Effect of Draught of Horses by Increase of Grade

Experiments. (*Engineering Record*, Prize Essays on Roads, 1892.)—Experiments on English roads by Gayffier & Parnell:

Load that can be drawn on a level 100:

Grade of 1 in 100. 1 in 50. 1 in 40. 1 in 30. 1 in 26. 1 in 20. 1 in 10.
Load can draw only 90. 81. 72. 64. 54. 40. 25.

Resistance of Carriages on Roads is (according to General Rankine) approximately by the following empirical formula:

$$R = \frac{W}{r} [a + b(u - 3.28)].$$

formula R = total resistance; r = radius of wheel in inches; W = weight of carriage; u = velocity in feet per second; while a and b are constants, whose values are: For good broken-stone road, $a = .4$ to $.55$, $b = .024$ to $.026$; for ordinary roads, $a = .27$, $b = .0684$.

General Rankine states that on gravel the resistance is about double, and on rough roads, the resistance on good broken-stone roads.

ELEMENTS OF MACHINES.

The object of a machine is usually to transform the work or mechanical energy exerted at the point where the machine receives its motion into the point where the final resistance is applied.

The specific end may be to change the character or direction of motion from circular to rectilinear, or vice versa; to change the velocity, or to overcome resistance by the application of a force. In all cases the total energy equals the total work done, the latter being the overcoming of all the frictional resistances of the machine as well as the work performed. No increase of power is obtained from any machine, since this is impossible according to the law of conservation of energy. In a frictionless machine the work done at the driving-point equals the work done at the resisting-point.

The velocity of the driving-point, when the machine moves in a given interval of time, equals the product of the resistance and the distance through which the resistance is overcome in the same time.

The simplest machines, or elementary machines, are reducible to three classes, viz., the Cord, and the Inclined Plane. The first class includes every machine consisting of a solid body capable of revolving about a fixed point, as the Wheel and Axle.

The second class includes every machine in which the force is transmitted by means of flexible cords, ropes, etc., as the Pulley.

The third class includes every machine in which the force is applied to a hard surface inclined to the direction of motion, as the Wedge and the Screw.

The fourth class includes every machine in which an inflexible rod capable of motion about a fixed point is used. The rod may be straight or bent at any angle, or curved. It is generally regarded, at first, as without weight, but its weight

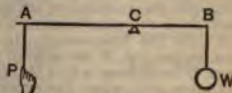


FIG. 98.

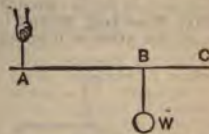


FIG. 99.

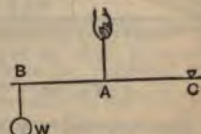


FIG. 100.

considered as another force applied in a vertical direction at l gravity.

The arms of a lever are the portions of it intercepted between P , and fulcrum, C , and between the weight, W , and fulcrum.

Lever arms are divided into three kinds or orders, according to positions of the applied force, weight, and fulcrum.

In a lever of the first order, the fulcrum lies between the point the force and weight act. (Fig. 98.)

In a lever of the second order, the weight acts at a point l fulcrum and the point of action of the force. (Fig. 99.)

In a lever of the third order, the point of action of the force that of the weight and the fulcrum. (Fig. 100.)

In all cases of levers the relation between the force exerted P , and the weight lifted, or resistance overcome, W , is expressed by the equation $P \times AC = W \times BC$, in which AC is the lever-arm of P , is the lever-arm of W , or moment of the force = the moment of $ance$. (See Moment.)

In cases in which the direction of the force (or of the resistance) right angles to the arm of the lever on which it acts, the "lever-length" of a perpendicular from the fulcrum to the line of direction of the force (or of the resistance). $W : P :: AC : BC$, or, the ratio of their lever-arms is the inverse ratio of their lever-arms. Also, $V_p = W \times V_w$.

If Sp is the distance through which the applied force acts, and distance the weight is lifted or through which the resistance is $W : P :: Sp : Sw$; $W \times Sw = P \times Sp$, or the weight into the distance equals the force into the distance through which it is exerted.

These equations are general for all classes of machines as levers, it being understood that friction, which in actual machine the resistance, is not at present considered.

The Bent Lever.—In the bent lever (see Fig. 91, page 416) arm of the weight m is cf instead of bf . The lever is in equilibrium $u \times af = m \times cf$, but it is to be observed that the action of a bent lever is very different from that of a straight lever. In the latter, the force and the resistance act in lines parallel to each other, the lever-arms remains constant, although the lever itself changes position with the horizontal. In the bent lever, however, this ratio thus, in the cut, if the arm bf is depressed to a horizontal direction cf lengthens while the horizontal projection of af shortens becoming zero when the direction of af becomes vertical. As l approaches the vertical, the weight m which may be lifted by force s is very great, but the distance through which it may be lifted is very small. In all cases the ratio of the weight m to the weight s is very great, but the distance through which it may be lifted is very small. In all cases the ratio of the weight m to the weight s is very great, but the distance through which it may be lifted is very small. In all cases the ratio of the weight m to the weight s is very great, but the distance through which it may be lifted is very small.

The Moving Strut (Fig. 101) is similar to the bent lever, but one of the arms is missing, and that the force and the resistance overcome act at the same single arm. The resistance case shown in the cut, weight W , but its resistance being moved, R , which implies that due to its friction horizontal plane, or some opposing force. When the angle between the strut and the plane changes, the ratio of the resistance to the applied force changes. When the angle is very small, a moderate force overcomes a very great weight, which tends to become

the angle approaches zero. If α = the angle, $P \times \cos \alpha = R$)
 $\alpha = 5$ degrees, $\cos \alpha = .99619$, $\sin \alpha = .08716$, $R = 11.44 P$.

The stone-crusher (Fig. 102) shows a practical example of the moving struts.

The Toggle-joint is an elbow or knee-joint consisting of two connected struts which may be brought into a straight line and in this position the resistance is very great when a force is applied to bring the

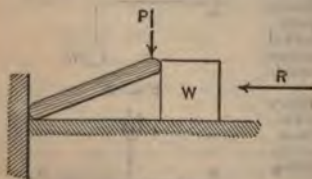


FIG. 101.

It is a case of two moving struts placed end to end, the moving force applied at their point of junction, in a direction at right angles to the direction of the resistance, the other end of one of the struts resting on a fixed abutment, and that of the other against the body to be raised.

If α = the angle each strut makes with the straight line joining the ends about which their outer ends rotate, the ratio of the resistance to the applied force is $R : P :: \cos \alpha : 2 \sin \alpha$; $2R \sin \alpha = P \cos \alpha$. The



FIG. 102.



FIG. 103.

resistance varies when the angle varies, becoming infinite when the angle is zero.

A toggle-joint is used where great resistances are to be overcome in very small distances, as in stone-crushers (Fig. 103).

Inclined Plane, as a mechanical element, is supposed perfectly smooth, unless friction be considered. It assists in sustaining a body by its reaction. This reaction, however, being normal to the plane, cannot entirely counteract the weight of the body, which acts vertically downward. Some other force must therefore be applied to act upon the body, in order that it may be sustained.

If the sustaining force act parallel to the plane, the force is to the weight as the height of the plane is to its length, measured on the incline. If the force act parallel to the base of the plane, the force is to the weight as the height is to the

length. If the force act at any other angle, let i = the angle of the plane with the horizon, and e = the angle of the direction of the applied force with the perpendicular of the plane. $P : W :: \sin i : \cos e$; $P \times \cos e = W \sin i$. The problems of the inclined plane may be solved by the parallelogram of forces thus:

If the weight W be kept at rest on the incline by the force P , acting in the direction BP , parallel to the plane. Draw the vertical line ba to represent the weight; also bb' perpendicular to the plane, and complete the parallelogram $bb'c$. Then the vertical weight ba is the resultant of bb' , the measure of the force given by the plane to the weight, and bc , the force of gravity tending to draw the weight down the plane. The force required to maintain the weight in equilibrium is represented by this force bc . Thus the force P is to the weight as bc is to ba . Since the triangle of forces abc is similar to the triangle of the incline ABC , the latter may be substituted for the former in determining the relative magnitude of the forces, and

$$P : W :: bc : ab :: BC : AB.$$

Wedge is a pair of inclined planes united by their bases. In the application of pressure to the head or butt end of the wedge, to cause it to raise a resisting body, the applied force is to the resistance as the thickness of the wedge is to its length. Let t be the thickness, l the length, R the resistance, and P the applied force or pressure on the head of the wedge. Then, friction neglected, $P : W :: t : l$; $P = \frac{Wt}{l}$; $W = \frac{Pl}{t}$.

Screw is an inclined plane wrapped around a cylinder in such a manner that the height of the plane is parallel to the axis of the cylinder. If a screw is formed upon the internal surface of a hollow cylinder, it is called a nut. When force is applied to raise a weight, the force is overcome by means of a screw and nut, either the screw or the nut may

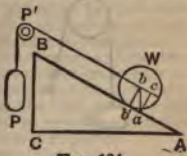


FIG. 104.

be fixed, the other being movable. The force is generally applied at the end of a wrench or lever-arm, or at the circumference of a wheel. If $r =$ radius of the wheel or lever-arm, and $p =$ pitch of the screw, or distance between threads, that is, the height of the inclined plane for one revolution of the screw, $P =$ the applied force, and $W =$ the resistance overcome, then, neglecting resistance due to friction, $2\pi r \times P = Wp$; $W = 6.283Pr + p$. The ratio of P to W is thus independent of the diameter of the screw. In actual screws, much of the power transmitted is lost through friction.

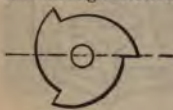


FIG. 105.

The Cam is a revolving inclined plane. It may be either an inclined plane wrapped around a cylinder in such a way that the height of the plane is radial to the cylinder, such as the ordinary lifting-cam, used in stamp-mills



FIG. 106.

(Fig. 105), or it may be an inclined plane curved edge-wise, and rotating plane parallel to its base (Fig. 106). The relation of the weight to the applied force is calculated in the same manner as in the case of the screw.

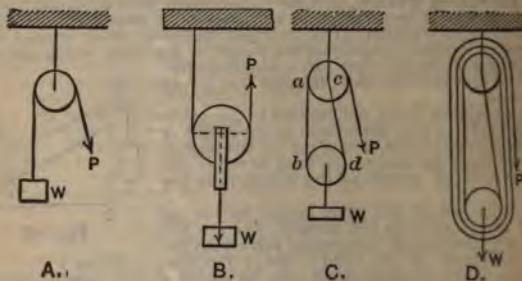


FIG. 107.

Pulleys or Blocks.— $P =$ force applied, or pull; $W =$ weight or resistance. In the simple pulley *A* (Fig. 107) the point *P* on the rope descends the same amount that the weight is lifted, therefore $P = W$. In *B* and *C* the point *P* moves twice as far as the weight is lifted, therefore $W = 2P$. In *B* and *C* there is one movable block, and two plies of rope engage with it. In *D* there are three sheaves in the movable block, each with two plies engaged, or six in all. Six plies of the rope are shortened by the same amount that the weight is lifted, and the point *P* moves six times as far as the weight, consequently $W = 6P$. In general the ratio of W to P is equal to the number of plies that engage the block. If the lower block has 2 sheaves and the upper 3, the end of the rope is fastened to a hook in the top of the lower block, and then three plies shortened instead of 6, and $W = 5P$. If $V =$ velocity of W and $v =$ velocity of P , then in all cases $VW = vP$, whatever the number of plies or their arrangement. If the hauling rope, at the pulling end, passes around a sheave in the upper or stationary block, it makes no difference what direction the rope is led from this block to the point at which the force is applied; but if it first passes around the movable block, it is necessary that the pull be exerted in a direction parallel to the line of resistance, or a line joining the centres of the two blocks, in order to obtain the maximum effect. If the rope pulls on the lower block, the block will be pulled out of the line drawn between the centres of the upper block, and the effective pull will be less than the actual

in the ratio of the cosine of the angle the pulling rope makes vertical, or line of action of the resistance, to unity.

Antial Pulley. (Fig. 108).—Two pulleys, B and C , of different radii, are fixed as one piece about a fixed axis, A . An endless rope, $BDECKH$, passes over both pulleys. The pulleys are shaped so as to hold the chain and prevent slipping. One of the bights or loops in the chain hangs, DE , passes under and supports the weight F . The other loop or bight, HKL , hangs from the pulley C . It is evident that the velocity-ratio of the hauling part is equal to that of the pulley B .

For the velocity-ratio may be exactly uniform, the pulley F should be an exact mean bevel pulley of B and C .

Let the point B of the cord BD moves through a distance $= AB$, during the same time the point C of the cord CE will move downward a distance $= AC$. The length of the bight or loop $BDEC$ will be $2AB - AC$, which will cause the pulley F to rise through a distance of $\frac{1}{2}(AB - AC)$. If P = the pulling force on the hauling part, and W the weight lifted at F , then $P \times \frac{1}{2}(AB - AC) = W$.

The length of chain required for a differential pulley is the following sum: Half the circumference of the pulley B + half the circumference of the pulley C + the greatest distance of F from A + the length of loop HKL . The last quantity is fixed for convenience.

Differential Windlass (Fig. 109) is identical in principle with the differential pulley, the difference in construction being that in the differential windlass the running block hangs in the bight of a rope whose two parts are wound round, and have their ends respectively made fast to two barrels of different radii, which rotate as one piece about the axis A . The differential windlass is little used in practice, because of the great length of rope which it requires.

The Differential Screw (Fig. 110) is a compound screw of different pitches, in which the threads wind the same way. N_1 and N_2 are the two nuts; S_1S_1 , the longer-pitched thread; S_2S_2 , the shorter-pitched thread: in the figure both these threads are left-handed. At each turn of the screw the nut N_2 advances relatively to N_1 through a distance equal to the difference of the pitch. The use of the differential screw is to combine the slowness of a fine pitch with the strength of thread which can be obtained by means of a coarse pitch only.

Worm and Axle, or Windlass, resembles two pulleys on one axis, the diameters being different. If a weight be lifted by means of a rope wound round the wheel, the force being applied at the axle, the action is like that of a wheel and axle.

If the shorter arm is equal to the radius of the wheel, the force applied at the axle plus half the thickness of the rope, and the longer arm is equal to the radius of the wheel, the action is like that of a wheel and axle. A wheel and axle is therefore sometimes classed as a wheel and axle lever.

If P = the applied force, D = diameter of the wheel, d = diameter of the axle, and W = weight lifted, and d the diameter of the axle + the diameter of the rope, then $P \times D = W \times d$.

Worm-wheel Gearing is a combination of two or more wheels (Fig. 111). If a series of wheels and pinions gear into each other, and friction neglected, the weight lifted, or resistance overcome, is in the ratio of the force applied inversely as the distances through which the force is applied in a given time. If R, R_1, R_2 be the radii of the successive wheels, r, r_1, r_2 the radii of the pinions, P the applied force, and W the weight lifted, then



FIG. 108.

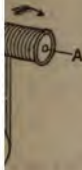


FIG. 109.

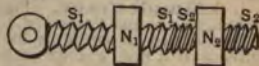


FIG. 110.

$R \times R_1 \times R_2 = W \times r \times r_1 \times r_2$, or the applied force is to the weight as the product of the radii of the pinions is to the product of the radii of the wheels; or, as the product of the numbers expressing the teeth in each pinion is to the product of the numbers expressing the teeth in each wheel.

Endless Screw, or Worm-gear. (Fig. 112.)—This gear is commonly used to convert motion at high speed into motion at very

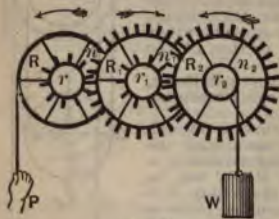


FIG. 111.



FIG. 112.

speed. When the handle P describes a complete circumference, the line of the cog-wheel moves through a distance equal to the pitch of the screw, and the weight W is lifted a distance equal to the pitch of the screw multiplied by the ratio of the diameter of the axle to the diameter of the pitch-circle of the wheel. The ratio of the applied force to the weight lifted is inversely as their velocities, friction not being considered; but friction in the worm-gear is usually very great, amounting sometimes three or four times the useful work done.

If v = the distance through which the force P acts in a given time, second, and V = distance the weight W is lifted in the same time, r = radius of the crank or wheel through which P acts, t = pitch of the screw, and also of the teeth on the cog-wheel, d = diameter of the axle, and D = diameter of the pitch-line of the cog-wheel, $v = \frac{6.28}{\pi} r \times \frac{V}{t}$, $\times V$; $V = v \times td + 6.283rd$. $Pv = WV + \text{friction}$.

STRESSES IN FRAMED STRUCTURES.

Framed structures in general consist of one or more triangles, so arranged that the triangle is the one polygonal form whose shape cannot be changed without distorting one of its sides. Problems in stresses of framed structures may generally be solved either by the application of the triangle, parallelogram, or polygon of forces, by the principle of the lever, or by the method of moments. We shall give a few examples, referred to the works of Burr, Dubois, Johnson, and others for more detailed treatment of the subject.

1. **A Simple Crane.** (Figs. 113 and 114.)— A is a fixed mast, B a boom, T a tie, and P the load. Required the strains in B and T . The weight P , considered as acting at the end of the boom, is held in equilibrium by three forces: first, gravity acting downwards; second, the tension in the tie; third, the thrust of B . Let the length of the line p represent the magnitude of the downward force exerted by the load, and draw a parallelogram with sides bt parallel, respectively, to B and T , such that p is the diagonal of the parallelogram. Then b and t are the components drawn to the same scale as p , p being the resultant. Then if the length p represents the load, the tension in the tie, and b is the compression in the brace.

Or, more simply, T , B , and that portion of the mast included between A' and A may represent a triangle of forces, and the forces are proportional to the length of the sides of the triangle; that is, if the height of the triangle = the load, then B = the compression in the brace, and T = the tension in the tie; or if P = the load in pounds, the tension in $T = P \times \frac{T}{A'}$, and the

$B = P \times \frac{B}{A'}$. Also, if α = the angle the inclined member makes with the horizontal, then the length of the inclined member = height of the triangle $\sec \alpha$, and the strain in the inclined member = $P \sec \alpha$. Also, the strain in the horizontal member = $P \tan \alpha$. The relations by the triangle or parallelogram of forces, and the equations $T = P \times T/A'$, and Compression in $B = P \times B/A'$, hold true even if the angle is not right-angled, as in Fig. 115; but the trigonometrical relations

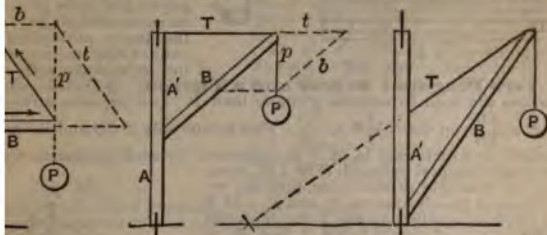


FIG. 113.

FIG. 114.

FIG. 115.

do not hold, except in the case of a right-angled triangle. As α decreases, the strain in both T and B increases, tending to infinity as α approaches zero. If the tie T is not attached to the ground, but is extended to the ground, as shown in the dotted line, the strain in T remains the same.

Crane or Derrick. (Fig. 116.)—The strain in B is, as B/A' , A' being that portion of the vertical included between B and T . T may be attached to A . If, however, the tie T is attached to B at its extremity, there may be in addition a bending strain in B due to its weight P , acting about the point of attachment of T as a fulcrum.

The strain in T may be calculated by the principle of moments. The moment of P , that is, its weight \times its perpendicular distance from the line of its direction, is the strain into the perpendicular distance from the line of its

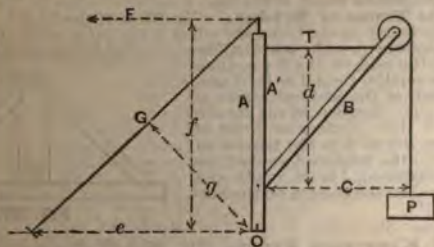


FIG. 116.

the same point of rotation of B , or Td . The strain in T therefore, as d decreases the strain on T increases, tending to infinity as d approaches zero.

The strain on the guy-rope is also calculated by the method of moments. The moment of the load about the bottom of the mast O is, as before, Pc . The horizontal strain in it is F and its moment is Ff , and $F = P \times \frac{Pc}{f}$. If f is inclined, the moment is the strain $G \times$ the perpendicular distance from O , or Gg , and $G = Pc \div g$. The strain having the least strain is the horizontal one F , and the strain

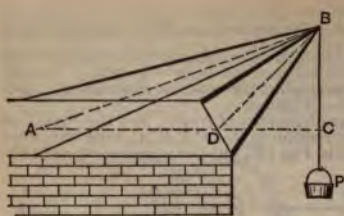


FIG. 117.

Two Diagonal Braces and a Tie-rod. (Fig. 117.)—Resultant strain in both masts = $+BC$. Resultant strain guys = $P \times AB + BC$. This is true only if CB and BD are of equal length, in which case $\frac{1}{2}$ of P is supported by each abutment C and A . If P is the load applied at the point B on the lever CD , the fulcrum being D , then $R_1 \times CD = P \times BD + CD$; $R_2 \times CD = P \times BC + CD$.

The strain on $AC = R_1 \times AC + AB$, and on $AD = R_2 \times AD + AB$.

The strain on the tie = $R_1 \times CB + AB = R_2 \times BD + AB$.

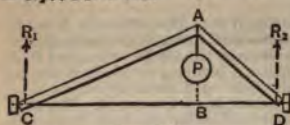


FIG. 119.

apex equals the tensile strain in the tie.

King-post Truss or Bridge. (Fig. 120.)—If the load is distributed over the whole length of the truss, the effect is the same as if half were placed at the centre, the other half being carried by the abutment.

$P =$ one half the load on the truss, then tension in the vertical tie $AB = P$. Compression in each of the inclined braces = $\frac{1}{2}P \times AD + AB$. Tension in the tie $CD = \frac{1}{2}P \times BD + AB$. Horizontal thrust of inclined brace AD at $D =$ the tension in the tie. If $W =$ the total load on one truss uniformly distributed, $l =$ its length and $d =$ its depth, then the tension on the horizontal tie = $\frac{Wl}{8d}$.

Inverted King-post Truss. (Fig. 121.)—If $P =$ a load at B , or one half of a uniformly distributed load, then compression on (the floor-beam CD not being considered) to have any resistance to a slight deflection. Tension on AC or $AD = \frac{1}{2}P \times AD$. Compression on $CD = \frac{1}{2}P \times BD$.

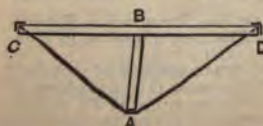


FIG. 121.

in $G =$ the strain in $F \times$ tangent of the angle between G . As G is made more vertical g decreases, a strain increases, becoming infinite when $g = 0$.

3. Shear-poles. (Fig. 117.)—Resultant strain in both masts = $+BC$. Resultant strain guys = $P \times AB + BC$. This is true only if CB and BD are of equal length, in which case $\frac{1}{2}$ of P is supported by each abutment C and A .

Guis. (Fig. 117.)—Resultant strain in both masts = $+BC$. Resultant strain guys = $P \times AB + BC$. This is true only if CB and BD are of equal length, in which case $\frac{1}{2}$ of P is supported by each abutment C and A .

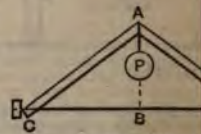


FIG. 118.

When $CB = BD$, $R_1 = R_2$. Tension on CB and BD is the same, the braces are of equal length, and is equal to $\frac{1}{2}P \times \frac{1}{2}CD$.

If the braces support a uniformly distributed load, the strain by such a load are equivalent to one half of the load at the centre. The horizontal thrust of the braces against each other

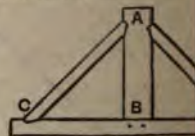


FIG. 120.

Queen-post Truss. (Fig. 122.)—If $P =$ a load at B , or one half of a uniformly distributed load, then compression on (the floor-beam CD not being considered) to have any resistance to a slight deflection. Tension on AC or $AD = \frac{1}{2}P \times AD$. Compression on $CD = \frac{1}{2}P \times BD$.

Three equal parts, two parts Q_1 and P_1 , are concentrated at the

mainder is equally divided between the abutments and supported directly. The two parts P_1 and P_2 only are considered to affect

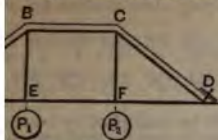


FIG. 122.

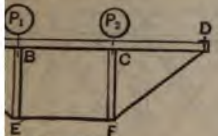


FIG. 123.

Truss of Five Panels. (Fig. 124.)—Four fifths of the load may be concentrated at the points E , K , L and F , the other fifth being

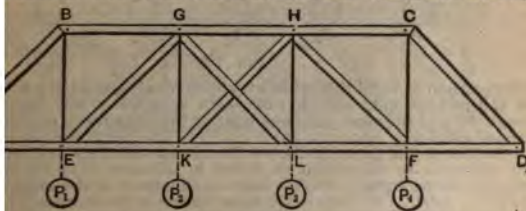


FIG. 124.

directly by the two abutments. For the strains in BA and CD may be considered as a queen-post truss, with the loads P_1 , P_2 at E and the loads P_3 , P_4 concentrated at F . Then, compression on $AB = (P_1 + P_2) \times AB + BE$. The strain on CD is the same if panel lengths are equal. The tensile strain on BE or $CF =$ that portion of the truss between E and F may be considered as queen-post truss, supporting the loads P_2 , P_3 at K and L . The G or $HF = P_2 \times EG + GK$. The diagonals GL and KH receive no stress if the truss is unequally loaded. The verticals GK and HL each receive strain equal to P_2 or P_3 .

The strain in the horizontal members: BG and CH receive a thrust equal to the horizontal component of the thrust in AB or CD , $= (P_1 + P_2) \times AB \sin \theta$, or $(P_1 + P_2) \times AE + BE$. GH receives this thrust and also a thrust equal to the horizontal component of the thrust in BE or, in all, $(P_1 + P_2 + P_3) \times AE + BE$. The strain on AE or FD equals the thrust in BG or HC , and the tension on BE and LF equals the thrust in GH .

Whipple Truss. (Fig. 125.)—In this truss the diagonals are struts and the verticals are struts or columns.

Consider first the method of distribution of strains: Consider first the truss having six bays or panels, $5/6$ of the load is transmitted to the abutment H , and $1/6$ to the abutment O , on the principle of the lever. The $5/6$ of the load must be transmitted through JA and AH , write on these members the load $5/6$. The one sixth is transmitted successively through DL , etc., passing alternately through a tie and a strut. Write on DL , etc., up to the strut GO inclusive, the figure 1. Then consider the load P_1 of which $4/6$ goes to AH and $2/6$ to GO . Write on KB , BJ , JA , the figure 4, and on KD , DL , LE , etc., the figure 2. The load P_2

the members of the truss. Strain in the vertical ties BE and CF each equals P_1 or P_2 . Strain on AB and CD each $= P_1 \times CD + CF$. Strain on the tie AE or EF or $ED = P_1 \times FD + CF$. Thrust on $BC =$ tension on EF .

For stability to resist heavy unequal loads the queen-post truss should have diagonal braces from B to F and from C to E .

Inverted Queen-post Truss. (Fig. 123.)—Compression on EB and FC each $= P_1$ or P_2 . Compression on AB or BC or $CD = P_1 \times AB + FB$. Tension on AE or $FD = P_1 \times AE + EB$. Tension on $EF =$ compression on BC . For stability to resist unequal loads, ties should be run from C to E and from B to F .



FIG. 117.

Two Diagonal Braces are used to sustain a simple beam. If the beam is of length AB , and the braces are of length AC and AD , the strain on AC is $\frac{1}{2}P \times \frac{AD}{AB}$; on $AD = \frac{1}{2}P \times \frac{CD}{AD}$. The strain on AD is $\frac{1}{2}P \times \frac{CD}{AD}$, in which case $\frac{1}{2}$ of P is applied at C , and $\frac{1}{2}$ at D . If the braces are unequal in length (Fig. 117), by the principle of the lever, the reactions of the abutments B_1 and B_2 are E_1 and E_2 . If P is the load applied at the point A , the lever CD , the fulcrum being D , $E_1 \times CD = P \times BD$ and $E_2 \times CD = P \times AD$. $E_1 = P \times BD \div CD$; $E_2 = P \times AD \div CD$.

The strain on $AC = E_1 \times AD \div CD$.
The strain on $AD = E_2 \times AD \div CD$.

The strain on the tie BC is H_1
 $= E_1 \times BD \div AB$.

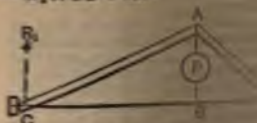


FIG. 118.

apex equals the tension in the tie.

King-post Truss is used to sustain a simple beam over the whole length of the beam. The king-post is a vertical member, which is fixed at the apex of the truss, and is supported at the base by the reaction forces R_1 and R_2 .

If the king-post is of length AC , and the beam is of length AB , the strain on AC is $\frac{1}{2}P \times \frac{AD}{AB}$.

The strain on AD is $\frac{1}{2}P \times \frac{CD}{AD}$.

The strain on the tie BC is H_1 .

The strain on the tie CD is H_2 .

The strain on the tie AD is H_3 .

The strain on the tie AC is H_4 .

The strain on the tie BC is H_5 .

The strain on the tie CD is H_6 .

The strain on the tie AD is H_7 .

The strain on the tie AC is H_8 .

The strain on the tie BC is H_9 .

The strain on the tie CD is H_{10} .

The strain on the tie AD is H_{11} .

The strain on the tie AC is H_{12} .

The strain on the tie BC is H_{13} .

The strain on the tie CD is H_{14} .

The strain on the tie AD is H_{15} .

The strain on the tie AC is H_{16} .

The strain on the tie BC is H_{17} .

The strain on the tie CD is H_{18} .

The strain on the tie AD is H_{19} .

The strain on the tie AC is H_{20} .

Method of Moments.—Let the truss be supported at the left end by an abutment on which a load W is supported at a distance x from the left end. Length of the truss = L . Horizontal strain at that point (reaction on the lower chord) = W/L . Horizontal distance from the nearest support to the point where the strain is to be found = M in Fig. 125 in the chord where the strain is to be found. Horizontal strain at that point (reaction on the lower chord) = H . Depth of the truss = D . By the method of moments, about the point where the strain is to be found, take the difference of the moment of the resistance, about the point where the strain is to be found, and of the load between, about the point where the strain is to be found. This difference with the moment of the resistance, or of the load, about the point where the strain is to be found, considered with reference to a point in the chord where the strain is to be found, is the moment about which the truss would turn if the first chord were removed.

The moment of the reaction of the abutment is $W \times L$. The moment of the load about the point where the strain is to be found is $W \times x$, or moment = $Wx^2/2L$. Moment of the resistance about the point where the strain is to be found = $Wx^2/2L$, whence $H = \frac{W}{2L} \left(x - \frac{x^2}{L} \right)$. If $x = 0$ or L , $H = 0$. If $x = \frac{L}{2}$, $H = \frac{WL}{8D}$, which is the horizontal strain at the middle of the chord.

Warren Truss. (Fig. 126.)—In the Howe truss the diagonals are verticals and the ties are horizontal. The calculation of strains may be made as follows:



FIG. 126.

Warren Girder. (Fig. 127.)—In the Warren girder, or triangular truss, there are no vertical struts, and the diagonals may transmit either tension or compression.

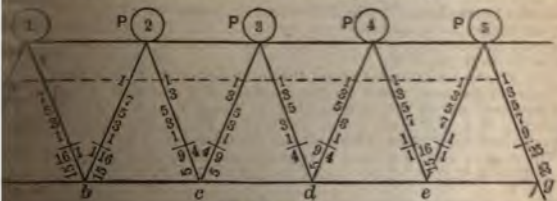


FIG. 127.

The strains in the diagonals may be calculated by the method of distribution of strains as in the case of the rectangular truss. In the principle of the lever, the load P_1 being $1/10$ of the length of the truss from the line of the nearest support a , transmits $9/10$ of its weight to a and $1/10$ to b . Write 9 on the right hand of the strut $1a$, to represent compression, and 1 on the right hand of $1b$, $2c$, $3d$, etc., to represent compression. The load P_2 being $2/10$ of its weight to a and $8/10$ to b . Write 8 on each member from 2 to g , to represent compression, and 2 on the right hand of the member, and those representing tension. Proceed in the same manner with all the loads, then

transmit $3/6$ in each direction; write 3 on each of the members which this stress passes, and so on for all the loads, when the figure several members will appear as on the cut. Adding them up, we find following totals:

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{Tension on diagonals } \left\{ \begin{array}{l} AJ \quad BH \quad BK \quad CJ \quad CL \quad DK \quad DM \quad EL \quad EN \quad FM \\ 15 \quad 0 \quad 10 \quad 1 \quad 6 \quad 3 \quad 3 \quad 6 \quad 1 \quad 10 \end{array} \right. \\ \text{Compression on verticals } \left\{ \begin{array}{l} AH \quad BJ \quad CK \quad DL \quad EM \quad FN \quad G \\ 15 \quad 10 \quad 7 \quad 6 \quad 7 \quad 10 \quad 1 \end{array} \right. \end{array}$$

Each of the figures in the first line is to be multiplied by $1/6P \times \sec$ angle $H AJ$, or $1/6P \times AJ + AH$, to obtain the tension, and each figure lower line is to be multiplied by $1/6P \theta$ to obtain the compression. The diagonals $H B$ and $F O$ receive no strain.

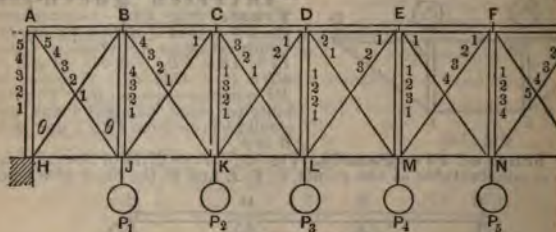


Fig. 125.

It is common to build this truss with a diagonal strut at $H B$ instead of $A J$; in which case $5/6$ of the load P is through $J B$ and the strut $B H$, which latter then receives a strain = secant of $H B J$.

The strains in the upper and lower horizontal members or chords from the ends to the centre, as shown in the case of the Burr truss, receives a thrust equal to the horizontal component of the tension in $A J B$. $B C$ receives the same thrust + the horizontal component of the tension in $B K$, and so on. The tension in the lower chord of one panel is the same as the thrust in the upper chord of the same panel. (Evaluation of the chord strains by the method of moments, see below.)

The maximum thrust or tension is at the centre of the chords and $\frac{WL}{8D}$, in which W is the total load supported by the truss, L is the span and D the depth. This is the formula for maximum stress in the chord of a truss of any form whatever.

The above calculation is based on the assumption that all the loads, etc., are equal. If they are unequal the value of each has to be taken into account in distributing the strains. Thus the tension in $A J$, with unequal loads, instead of being $15 \times 1/6 P$ secant θ would be $\sec \theta \times (5/6 P_1 + 3/6 P_2 + 2/6 P_3 + 1/6 P_5)$. Each panel load, P_1 , etc., includes its share of the weight of the truss.

General Formula for Strains in Diagonals and Verticals

Let n = total number of panels, x = number of any vertical cut from the nearest end, counting the end as 1, r = rolling load for each panel, P = total load for each panel,

$$\text{Strain on verticals} = \frac{[(n-x) + (n-x)^2 - (x-1) + (x-1)^2]P}{2n} + \frac{r(x-1) + P}{2n}$$

For a uniformly distributed load, leave out the last term,

$$[r(x-1) + (x-1)^2] + 2n.$$

Strain on principal diagonals = strain on verticals \times secant θ , secant of the angle the diagonal makes with the vertical.

Strain on the counterbraces: The strain on the counterbrace in a panel is θ , if the load is uniform. On the 2d, 3d, 4th, etc., it is P

$$\times \frac{1}{n}, \frac{1+2}{n}, \frac{1+2+3}{n}, \text{ etc., } P \text{ being the total load in one panel.}$$

Strain in the Chords - Method of Moments.—Let the truss be uniformly loaded, the total load acting on it = W . Weight supported at each end, or reaction of the abutment = $W/2$. Length of the truss = L . Weight on a unit of length = W/L . Horizontal distance from the nearest support to the point (say M in Fig. 125) in the chord where the strain is to be determined = x . Horizontal strain at that point (tension on the lower chord, compression in the upper) = H . Depth of the truss = D . By the method of moments we take the difference of the moments, about the point M , of the reaction of the abutment and of the load between and the abutments, and equate that difference with the moment of the resistance, or of the strain in the horizontal chord, considered with reference to a point in the opposite chord, about which the truss would turn if the first chord were fixed at M .

The moment of the reaction of the abutment is $Wx/2$. The moment of the load from the abutment to M is $W/Lx \times$ the distance of its centre of gravity from M , which is $x/2$, or moment = $Wx^2/2L$. Moment of the stress in the chord = $HD = \frac{Wx}{2} - \frac{Wx^2}{2L}$, whence $H = \frac{W}{2D} \left(x - \frac{x^2}{L} \right)$. If $x = 0$ or L , $H = 0$. If $x = L/2$, $H = \frac{WL}{8D}$, which is the horizontal strain at the middle of the chords, as before given.

The Howe Truss. (Fig. 126.)—In the Howe truss the diagonals are ties, and the verticals are ties. The calculation of strains may be made



FIG. 126.

the same method as described above for the Pratt truss.

The Warren Girder. (Fig. 127.)—In the Warren girder, or triangular truss, there are no vertical struts, and the diagonals may transmit either

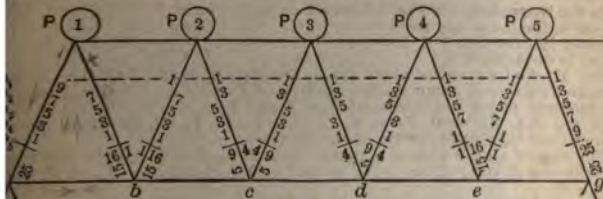


FIG. 127.

compression or tension. The strains in the diagonals may be calculated by the method of distribution of strains as in the case of the rectangular truss. In the principle of the lever, the load P_1 , being $1/10$ of the length of the truss from the line of the nearest support a , transmits $9/10$ of its weight to a and $1/10$ to g . Write 9 on the right hand of the strut $1a$, to represent compression, and 1 on the right hand of $1b$, $2c$, $3d$, etc., to represent tension. The load P_2 transmits $7/10$ of its weight to a and $3/10$ to g . Write 7 on each member from a and 3 on each member from 2 to g , placing the figures representing compression on the right hand of the member, and those representing tension on the left. Proceed in the same manner with all the loads, then

sum up the figures on each side of each diagonal, and write the difference of each sum beneath, and on the side of the greater sum, to show whether the difference represents tension or compression. The results are as follows: Compression, *1a*, 25; *2b*, 15; *3c*, 5; *3d*, 5; *4e*, 15; *5g*, 25. Tension, *1b*, 15; *5; 4d*, 5; *5e*, 15. Each of these figures is to be multiplied by 1/10 of one of the loads as P_1 , and by the secant of the angle the diagonals make with the vertical line.

The strains in the horizontal chords may be determined by the method of moments as in the case of rectangular trusses.

Roof-truss.—*Solution by Method of Moments.*—The calculation of strains in structures by the method of statical moments consists in taking a cross-section of the structure at a point where there are not more than three members (struts, braces, or chords).

To find the strain in either one of these members take the moment about the intersection of the other two as an axis of rotation. The sum of the moments of these members must be 0 if the structure is in equilibrium. But the moments of the two members that pass through the point of reference or axis are both 0, hence one equation containing one unknown quantity can be found for each cross-section.

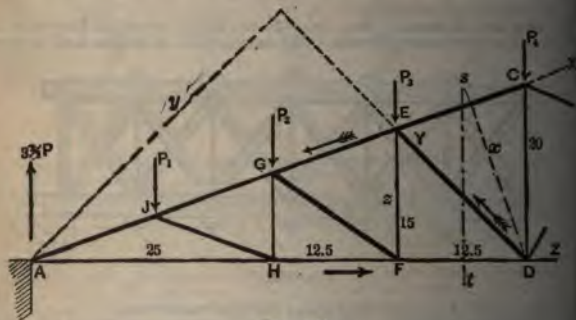


FIG. 128.

In the truss shown in Fig. 128 take a cross-section at *ts*, and determine the strain in the three members cut by it, viz., *CE*, *ED*, and *DF*. Let $X =$ force exerted in direction *CE*, $Y =$ force exerted in direction *DE*, $Z =$ force exerted in direction *FD*.

For X take its moment about the intersection of Y and Z at $D = Xx$. For Y take its moment about the intersection of X and Z at $A = Yy$. For Z take its moment about the intersection of X and Y at $E = Zz$. Let $s = 12.5$, $t = 18.6$, $y = 38.4$, $AD = 50$, $CD = 30$ ft. Let P_1, P_2, P_3, P_4 be equal loads shown, and $3\frac{3}{4}P$ the reaction of the abutment *A*.

The sum of all the moments taken about *D* or *A* or *E* will be 0 when the structure is at rest. Then $-Xx + 3.5P \times 50 - P_3 \times 12.5 - P_2 \times 25 - P_1 \times 37.5 = 0$.

The + signs are for moments in the direction of the hands of a watch, "clockwise" and - signs for the reverse direction or anti-clockwise. $3.5P = P_1 = P_2 = P_3$, $-18.6X + 175P - 75P = 0$; $-18.6X = -100P$; $X = \frac{100P}{18.6} + 18.6 = 5.376P$.

$-Yy + P_3 \times 37.5 + P_2 \times 25 + P_1 \times 12.5 = 0$; $38.4Y = 75P$; $Y = \frac{75P}{38.4} = 1.953P$.

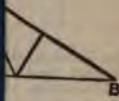
$-Zz + 3.5P \times 37.5 - P_1 \times 25 - P_2 \times 12.5 - P_3 \times 0 = 0$; $15Z = 6.25P$.

In the same manner the forces exerted in the other members are found as follows: $EG = 6.73P$; $GJ = 8.07P$; $JA = 9.42P$; $JH = 1.59P$; $AH = 8.75P$; $HF = 7.50P$.

The Fink Roof-truss. (Fig. 129.)—An analysis by Prof. Van der Brick (*Van N. Mag.*, Aug. 1880) gives the following results:

STANDARD
RIVET HOLE
DISTANCES
U.S.A.

Joe L. White



- $PL/D - 3 PD/L;$
- $PS + L;$
- $PS + L;$
- $PS + D;$
- $S + D;$
- $2 PS + D.$

16 ft., with four
tons each at the
transmit no strain
= 32 ft., $D = 16$
472, $S + D = 2,$
are as follows:

- = 25.94 tons,
- = 3.58 "
- = 7.16 "
- = 4 "
- = 8 "
- = 12 "

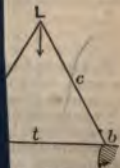


Fig. 129a.
T (soft steel),

sum up the figures on each side of each diagonal, and of each sum beneath, and on the side of the greater sum the difference represents tension or compression. Tension, Compression, 1a, 25; 2b, 15; 3c, 5; 3d, 5; 4e, 15; 5g, 5; 4d, 5; 5e, 15. Each of these figures is to be multiplied by the loads as P_1 , and by the secant of the angle the vertical line.

The strains in the horizontal chords may be determined as in the case of rectangular trusses.

Roof-truss.—*Solution by Method of Moments.*—To find the strains in structures by the method of statical moments, cut a cross-section of the structure at a point where three members (struts, braces, or chords) meet.

To find the strain in either one of these members, take the intersection of the other two as an axis of moments of these members must be 0 if the structure is at rest. But the moments of the two members that pass through the axis are both 0, hence one equation containing the strain can be found for each cross-section.

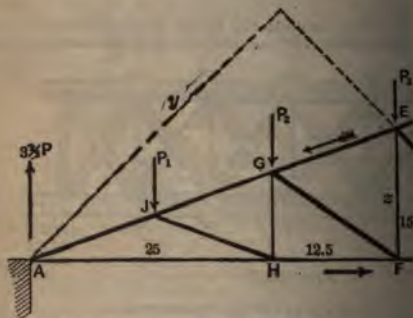


FIG. 128.

In the truss shown in Fig. 128 take a cross-section XY through it, and find the strain in the three members cut by it, viz., CE , ED , and GF . X = force exerted in direction CE , Y = force exerted in direction ED , Z = force exerted in direction GF .

For X take its moment about the intersection of Y and Z . Y take its moment about the intersection of X and Z . Z take its moment about the intersection of X and Y . At A , $AD = 50$, $CD = 30$ ft. Let P_1 , P_2 , P_3 be the loads shown, and $3\frac{1}{2}P$ the reaction of the abutment A .

The sum of all the moments taken about D or A of the structure is at rest. Then $-Xx + 3.5P \times 50 - P_1 \times 37.5 = 0$.

The + signs are for moments in the direction of "clockwise" and - signs for the reverse direction. $P = P_1 = P_2 = P_3$, $-18.6X + 175P - 75P = 0$; $-100P + 18.6 = 5.376P$.

$-Yy + P_2 \times 37.5 + P_2 \times 25 + P_3 \times 12.5 = 0$; $38.4Y = 1953P$.

$-Zz + 3.5P \times 37.5 - P_1 \times 25 - P_2 \times 12.5 - P_3 \times 0 = 0$; $6.25P = Zz$.

In the same manner the forces exerted in the other two members can be found as follows: $EG = 6.73P$; $GJ = 8.07P$; $JA = 9.41P$; $AH = 8.75P$; $HF = 7.50P$.

The Pink Roof-truss. (Fig. 129).—An analysis of the Pink Roof-truss (Fig. 129), Aug. 1880) gives the following results:

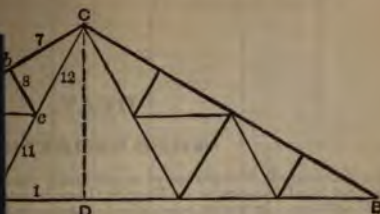


FIG. 129.

load on roof;
 panels on both rafters;
 load at each joint *b*, *d*, *f*, etc.;
 load at *A* = $\frac{1}{2}W = \frac{1}{2}NP = 4P$;
 $C = L$; $CD = D$;
 load on *De*, *eg*, *gA*, respectively;
 reaction on *Cb*, *bd*, *df*, and *fA*.

7, or $bC = c_1 = 7/2 PL/D - 3 PD/L$;
 8, " bc or $fg = PS + L$;
 9, " $de = 2PS + L$;
 10, " cd or $dg = \frac{1}{2}PS + D$;
 PD/L ; 11, " $ec = PS + D$;
 $2PD/L$; 12, " $cC = 3/2 PS - D$.

roof-truss of span 64 ft., depth 16 ft., with four
 panels cut; total load 32 tons, or 4 tons each at the
 joints *A* and *B*, which transmit no strain
 to the supports. $W = 32$ tons, $P = 4$ tons, $S = 32$ ft., $D = 16$
 ft., $L = 64$ ft., $C = 64$ ft., $CD = 16$ ft., $S + D = 48$
 ft., $D + L = 80$ ft., $L + D = 144$ ft., $S + D = 48$
 ft., on the numbered members then are as follows:

tons;	7,	31.3 - 12 × .447 = 25.94 tons.
"	8,	4 × .8944 = 3.58 "
"	9,	8 × .8944 = 7.16 "
"	10,	2 × 2 = 4 "
"	11,	4 × 2 = 8 "
"	12,	6 × 2 = 12 "

Example.—A structure of tri-
 supported at *a* and *b*. It
 consists of two members *ac*
 and *bc* being in compression,
 and the angle θ so that the
 structure shall be a minimum.
 (See *Engineering*, Jan. 17, 1895, gives a solu-
 tion.)

$$\text{The result } \tan \theta = \sqrt{\frac{C+T}{T}}$$

where *C* is the crushing and the ten-
 sile strength of the material employed.
 For $C = T$, $\tan \theta = 1$
 (pine), $\tan \theta = 43.3^\circ$. For $C = 0.8T$ (soft steel),
 (cast iron), $\tan \theta = 69.1^\circ$.

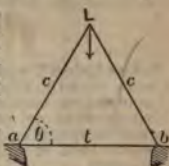


FIG. 129a.

For $C = 0.8T$ (soft steel),

HEAT.

THERMOMETERS.

The Fahrenheit thermometer is generally used in English-speaking countries, and the Centigrade, or French thermometer, in countries that use the metric system. In many scientific treatises in English, however, the Centigrade temperatures are also used, either with or without their Fahrenheit equivalents. The Réaumur thermometer is used in Russia, Sweden, Turky and Egypt. (Clark.)

In the Fahrenheit thermometer the freezing-point of water is taken at the level, 14.7 lbs. per sq. in., is taken at 212°, the distance between these points being divided into 180°. In the Centigrade and Réaumur thermometers the freezing-point is taken at 0°. The boiling-point is 100° in the Centigrade scale, and 80° in the Réaumur.

1 Fahrenheit degree	= 5/9 deg. Centigrade	= 4/9 deg. Réaumur.
1 Centigrade degree	= 9/5 deg. Fahrenheit	= 4/5 deg. Réaumur.
1 Réaumur degree	= 9/4 deg. Fahrenheit	= 5/4 deg. Centigrade.
Temperature Fahrenheit	= $9/5 \times \text{temp. C.} + 32^\circ$	= $9/4 \text{ R.} + 32^\circ$.
Temperature Centigrade	= $5/9 (\text{temp. F.} - 32^\circ)$	= $5/4 \text{ R.}$
Temperature Réaumur	= $4/5 \text{ temp. C.}$	= $4/9 (\text{F.} - 32^\circ)$.

Mercurial Thermometer. (Rankine, S. E., p. 234.)—The rate of expansion of mercury with rise of temperature increases as the temperature becomes higher; from which it follows, that if a thermometer showing the dilatation of mercury simply were made to agree with an air thermometer at 32° and 212°, the mercurial thermometer would show lower temperatures than the air thermometer between those standard points, and higher temperatures beyond them.

For example, according to Regnault, when the air thermometer marks 350° C. (= 662° F.), the mercurial thermometer would mark 362.16° C. (683.89° F.), the error of the latter being in excess 12.16° C. (= 21.89° F.).

Actual mercurial thermometers indicate intervals of temperature proportional to the difference between the expansion of mercury and that of air.

The inequalities in the rate of expansion of the glass (which are not different for different kinds of glass) correct, to a greater or less extent, errors arising from the inequalities in the rate of expansion of the mercury.

For practical purposes connected with heat engines, the mercurial thermometer made of common glass may be considered as sensibly coincident with the air-thermometer at all temperatures not exceeding 500° F.

PYROMETRY.

Principles Used in Various Pyrometers.—Contraction of solids by heat, as in the Wedgwood pyrometer used by potters. Not accurate, the contraction varies with the quality of the clay.

Expansion of air, as in the air-thermometers, Wiborgh's pyrometer, Linné and Steinbart's pyrometer, etc.

Specific heat of solids, as in the copper-ball, platinum-ball, and first-class pyrometers.

Relative expansion of two metals or other substances, as copper and iron, as in Brown's and Bulkley's pyrometers, etc.

Melting-points of metals, or other substances, as in approximate determinations of temperature by melting pieces of zinc, lead, etc.

Measurement of strength of a thermo-electric current produced by joining the junction of two metals, as in Le Chatelier's pyrometer.

Changes in electric resistance of platinum, as in the Siemens pyrometer.

Time required to heat a weighed quantity of water enclosed in a vessel, as in the water pyrometer.

Thermometer for Temperatures up to 800° F.—Mercury in a tube with hydrogen in the tube above the mercury. Made by Questenberry.

TEMPERATURES, CENTIGRADE AND FAHRENHEIT.

F.	C.	F.	C.	F.	C.	F.	C.	F.	C.	F.	C.	F.
40.	36	78.8	92	197.6	158	316.4	224	435.2	290	554	950	1742
38.2	27	80.6	93	199.4	159	318.2	225	437.	290	572	960	1760
36.4	23	82.4	94	201.2	160	320.	226	438.8	310	590	970	1778
34.6	20	84.2	95	203.	161	321.8	227	440.6	320	608	980	1796
32.8	30	86.	96	204.8	162	323.6	228	442.4	330	626	990	1814
31.	31	87.8	97	206.6	163	325.4	229	444.2	340	644	1000	1832
29.2	32	89.6	98	208.4	164	327.2	230	446.	350	662	1010	1850
27.4	33	91.4	99	210.2	165	329.	231	447.8	360	680	1020	1868
25.6	34	93.2	100	212.	166	330.8	232	449.6	370	698	1030	1886
23.8	35	95.	101	213.8	167	332.6	233	451.4	380	716	1040	1904
22.	36	96.8	102	215.6	168	334.4	234	453.2	390	734	1050	1922
20.2	37	98.6	103	217.4	169	336.2	235	455.	400	752	1060	1940
18.4	38	100.4	104	219.2	170	338.	236	456.8	410	770	1070	1958
16.6	39	102.2	105	221.	171	339.8	237	458.6	420	788	1080	1976
14.8	40	104.	106	222.8	172	341.6	238	460.4	430	806	1090	1994
13.	41	105.8	107	224.6	173	343.4	239	462.2	440	824	1100	2012
11.2	42	107.6	108	226.4	174	345.2	240	464.	450	842	1110	2030
9.4	43	109.4	109	228.2	175	347.	241	465.8	460	860	1120	2048
7.6	44	111.2	110	230.	176	348.8	242	467.6	470	878	1130	2066
5.8	45	113.	111	231.8	177	350.6	243	469.4	480	896	1140	2084
4.	46	114.8	112	233.6	178	352.4	244	471.2	490	914	1150	2102
2.2	47	116.6	113	235.4	179	354.2	245	473.	500	932	1160	2120
1.4	48	118.4	114	237.2	180	356.	246	474.8	510	950	1170	2138
3.2	50	122.	116	240.8	182	359.6	247	476.6	520	968	1180	2156
5.	51	124.8	117	242.6	183	361.4	248	478.4	530	986	1190	2174
6.8	52	125.6	118	244.4	184	363.2	249	480.2	540	1004	1200	2192
8.6	53	127.4	119	246.2	185	365.	250	482.	550	1022	1210	2210
10.4	54	129.2	120	248.	186	366.8	252	485.6	560	1040	1220	2228
12.2	55	132.8	122	251.6	188	370.4	254	489.2	570	1058	1230	2246
4.	56	134.8	123	253.4	189	372.2	255	491.	580	1076	1240	2264
5.8	57	136.4	124	255.2	190	374.	256	492.8	590	1094	1250	2282
7.6	58	138.4	125	257.	191	375.8	257	494.6	600	1112	1260	2300
9.4	59	138.2	125	257.	191	375.8	257	494.6	610	1130	1270	2318
1.2	60	140.	126	258.8	192	377.6	258	496.4	620	1148	1280	2336
3.	61	141.8	127	260.6	193	379.4	259	498.2	630	1166	1290	2354
4.8	62	143.6	128	262.4	194	381.2	260	500.	640	1184	1300	2372
6.6	63	145.4	129	264.2	195	383.	261	501.8	650	1202	1310	2390
8.4	64	147.2	130	266.	196	384.8	262	503.6	660	1220	1320	2408
10.2	65	149.	131	267.8	197	386.6	263	505.4	670	1238	1330	2426
12	66	150.8	132	269.6	198	388.4	264	507.2	680	1256	1340	2444
13.8	67	152.6	133	271.4	199	390.2	265	509.	690	1274	1350	2462
15.6	68	154.4	134	273.2	200	392.	266	510.8	700	1292	1360	2480
17.4	69	156.2	135	275.	201	393.8	267	512.6	710	1310	1370	2498
19.2	70	158.	136	276.8	202	395.6	268	514.4	720	1328	1380	2516
21	71	159.8	137	278.6	203	397.4	269	516.2	730	1346	1390	2534
22.8	72	161.6	138	280.4	204	399.2	270	518.	740	1364	1400	2552
24.6	73	163.4	139	282.2	205	401.	271	519.8	750	1382	1410	2570
26.4	74	165.2	140	284.	206	402.8	272	521.6	760	1400	1420	2588
28.2	75	167.	141	285.8	207	404.6	273	523.4	770	1418	1430	2606
30	76	168.8	142	287.6	208	406.4	274	525.2	780	1436	1440	2624
31.8	77	170.6	143	289.4	209	408.2	275	527.	790	1454	1450	2642
33.6	78	172.4	144	291.2	210	410.	276	528.8	800	1472	1460	2660
35.4	79	174.2	145	293.	211	411.8	277	530.6	810	1490	1470	2678
37.2	80	176.	146	294.8	212	413.6	278	532.4	820	1508	1480	2696
39	81	177.8	147	296.6	213	415.4	279	534.2	830	1526	1490	2714
40.8	82	179.6	148	298.4	214	417.2	280	536.	840	1544	1500	2732
42.6	83	181.4	149	300.2	215	419.	281	537.8	850	1562	1510	2750
44.4	84	183.2	150	302.	216	420.8	282	539.6	860	1580	1520	2768
46.2	85	185.	151	303.8	217	422.6	283	541.4	870	1598	1530	2786
48	86	186.8	152	306.6	218	424.4	284	543.2	880	1616	1540	2804
50	87	188.6	153	307.4	219	426.2	285	545.	890	1634	1550	2822
51.8	88	190.4	154	309.2	220	428.	286	546.8	900	1652	1560	2840
53.6	89	192.2	155	311.	221	429.8	287	548.6	910	1670	1570	2858
55.4	90	194.	156	312.8	222	431.6	288	550.4	920	1688	1580	2876
57.2	91	195.8	157	314.6	223	433.4	289	552.2	930	1706	1590	2894
59	92								940	1724	1600	2912

F.	C.	F.	C.	F.	C.	F.	C.	F.	C.	F.	C.
-40	-40.	26	- 2.3	92	33.3	158	70.	224	106.7	250	143.3
-39	-39.4	27	- 2.8	93	33.9	159	70.6	225	107.2	251	143.9
-38	-38.9	28	- 2.2	94	34.4	160	71.1	226	107.8	252	144.4
-37	-38.3	29	- 1.7	95	35.	161	71.7	227	108.3	253	145.
-36	-37.8	30	- 1.1	96	35.6	162	72.2	228	108.9	254	145.6
-35	-37.2	31	- 0.6	97	36.1	163	72.8	229	109.4	255	146.1
-34	-36.7	32	0.	98	36.7	164	73.3	230	110.	256	146.7
-33	-36.1	33	+ 0.6	99	37.2	165	73.9	231	110.6	257	147.3
-32	-35.6	34	1.1	100	37.8	166	74.4	232	111.1	258	147.8
-31	-35.	35	1.7	101	38.3	167	75.	233	111.7	259	148.3
-30	-34.4	36	2.2	102	38.9	168	75.6	234	112.2	260	148.9
-29	-33.9	37	2.8	103	39.4	169	76.1	235	112.8	261	149.4
-28	-33.3	38	3.3	104	40.	170	76.7	236	113.3	262	150.
-27	-32.8	39	3.9	105	40.6	171	77.2	237	113.9	263	150.6
-26	-32.2	40	4.4	106	41.1	172	77.8	238	114.4	264	151.1
-25	-31.7	41	5.	107	41.7	173	78.3	239	115.	265	151.7
-24	-31.1	42	5.6	108	42.2	174	78.9	240	115.6	266	152.2
-23	-30.6	43	6.1	109	42.8	175	79.4	241	116.1	267	152.8
-22	-30.	44	6.7	110	43.3	176	80.	242	116.7	268	153.3
-21	-29.4	45	7.2	111	43.9	177	80.6	243	117.2	269	153.9
-20	-28.9	46	7.8	112	44.4	178	81.1	244	117.8	270	154.4
-19	-28.3	47	8.3	113	45.	179	81.7	245	118.3	271	155.
-18	-27.8	48	8.9	114	45.6	180	82.2	246	118.9	272	155.6
-17	-27.2	49	9.4	115	46.1	181	82.8	247	119.4	273	156.1
-16	-26.7	50	10.	116	46.7	182	83.3	248	120.	274	156.7
-15	-26.1	51	10.6	117	47.2	183	83.9	249	120.6	275	157.2
-14	-25.6	52	11.1	118	47.8	184	84.4	250	121.1	276	157.8
-13	-25.	53	11.7	119	48.3	185	85.	251	121.7	277	158.3
-12	-24.4	54	12.2	120	48.9	186	85.6	252	122.2	278	158.9
-11	-23.9	55	12.8	121	49.4	187	86.1	253	122.8	279	159.4
-10	-23.3	56	13.3	122	50.	188	86.7	254	123.3	280	160.
-9	-22.8	57	13.9	123	50.6	189	87.2	255	123.9	281	160.6
-8	-22.2	58	14.4	124	51.1	190	87.8	256	124.4	282	161.1
-7	-21.7	59	15.	125	51.7	191	88.3	257	125.	283	161.7
-6	-21.1	60	15.6	126	52.2	192	88.9	258	125.6	284	162.2
-5	-20.6	61	16.1	127	52.8	193	89.4	259	126.1	285	162.8
-4	-20.	62	16.7	128	53.3	194	90.	260	126.7	286	163.3
-3	-19.4	63	17.2	129	53.9	195	90.6	261	127.2	287	163.9
-2	-18.9	64	17.8	130	54.4	196	91.1	262	127.8	288	164.4
-1	-18.3	65	18.3	131	55.	197	91.7	263	128.3	289	165.
0	-17.8	66	18.9	132	55.6	198	92.2	264	128.9	290	165.6
+ 1	-17.2	67	19.4	133	56.1	199	92.8	265	129.4	291	166.1
2	-16.7	68	20.	134	56.7	200	93.3	266	130.	292	166.7
3	-16.1	69	20.6	135	57.2	201	93.9	267	130.6	293	167.2
4	-15.6	70	21.1	136	57.8	202	94.4	268	131.1	294	167.8
5	-15.	71	21.7	137	58.3	203	95.	269	131.7	295	168.3
6	-14.4	72	22.2	138	58.9	204	95.6	270	132.2	296	168.9
7	-13.9	73	22.8	139	59.4	205	96.1	271	132.8	297	169.4
8	-13.3	74	23.3	140	60.	206	96.7	272	133.3	298	170.
9	-12.8	75	23.9	141	60.6	207	97.2	273	133.9	299	170.6
10	-12.2	76	24.4	142	61.1	208	97.8	274	134.4	300	171.1
11	-11.7	77	25.	143	61.7	209	98.3	275	135.	301	171.7
12	-11.1	78	25.6	144	62.2	210	98.9	276	135.6	302	172.2
13	-10.6	79	26.1	145	62.8	211	99.4	277	136.1	303	172.8
14	-10.	80	26.7	146	63.3	212	100.	278	136.7	304	173.3
15	- 9.4	81	27.2	147	63.9	213	100.6	279	137.2	305	173.9
16	- 8.9	82	27.8	148	64.4	214	101.1	280	137.8	306	174.4
17	- 8.3	83	28.3	149	65.	215	101.7	281	138.3	307	175.
18	- 7.8	84	28.9	150	65.6	216	102.2	282	138.9	308	175.6
19	- 7.2	85	29.4	151	66.1	217	102.8	283	139.4	309	176.1
20	- 6.7	86	30.	152	66.7	218	103.3	284	140.	310	176.7
21	- 6.1	87	30.6	153	67.2	219	103.9	285	140.6	311	177.2
			31.1	154	67.8	220	104.4	286	141.1	312	177.8
			31.7	155	68.3	221	105.	287	141.7	313	178.3
			32.2	156	68.9	222	105.6	288	142.2	314	178.9
			32.8	157	69.4	223	106.1	289	142.8	315	179.4

Iron or Copper Ball Pyrometer.—A weighed piece of iron, copper, or iron is allowed to remain in the furnace or heated air until it has attained the temperature of its surroundings. It is then quickly taken out and dropped into a vessel containing water of a known weight and temperature. The water is stirred rapidly and its maximum temperature taken. Let W = weight of the water, w the weight of the ball, t the original and T the final heat of the water, and S the specific heat of the metal; then the temperature of fire may be found from the formula

$$x = \frac{W(T-t)}{wS} + T.$$

The mean specific heat of platinum between 32° and 446° F. is .03393 or that of water, and it increases with the temperature about .000305 for 100° F. For a fuller description, by J. C. Hoadley, see *Trans. A. S. M. E.*, 8, Compare also Henry M. Howe, *Trans. A. I. M. E.*, xviii, 738.

Accuracy corrections are required for variations in the specific heat of water and of the metal at different temperatures, for loss of heat by radiation from the metal during the transfer from the furnace to the water, from the apparatus during the heating of the water; also for the heat-absorbing capacity of the vessel containing the water.

Clay or fire-brick may be used instead of the metal ball.

Chatelier's Thermo-electric Pyrometer.—For a very full description see paper by Joseph Struthers, *School of Mines Quarterly*, vol. 20, 1891; also, paper read by Prof. Roberts-Austen before the Iron and Steel Institute, May 7, 1891.

The principle upon which this pyrometer is constructed is the measurement of a current of electricity produced by heating a couple composed of two wires, one platinum and the other platinum with 10% rhodium—the current produced being measured by a galvanometer.

The composition of the gas which surrounds the couple has no influence on the indications.

For temperatures above 2500° F. are to be studied, the wires must have a supporting support and must be of good length, so that all parts of a furnace can be reached.

The Siemens furnace, about 11½ feet is the general length. The wires are supported in an iron tube, ½ inch interior diameter and held in place by a layer of refractory clay having two holes bored through, in which the wires are placed. The shortness of time (five seconds) allows the temperature to be taken without deteriorating the tube.

Tests made by this pyrometer in measuring furnace temperatures under a variety of conditions show that the readings of the scale uncorrected are within 45° F. of the correct temperature, and in the majority of trials measurements this is sufficiently accurate. Le Chatelier's pyrometer is sold by Queen & Co., of Philadelphia.

Division of Le Chatelier's Pyrometer.—W. C. Roberts-Austen in his *Researches on the Properties of Alloys*, Proc. Inst. M. E. 1892.

The electromotive force produced by heating the thermo-junction at a given temperature is measured by the movement of the spot of light on a scale graduated in millimetres. A formula for converting the divisions of the scale into thermometric degrees is given by M. Le Chatelier; but in order to calibrate the scale by heating the thermo-junction to temperatures which have been very carefully determined by the aid of the air-thermometer, and then to plot the curve from the data so obtained. Many boiling-points have been established by concurrent evidence of several kinds, and are now very generally accepted. The following table shows certain of these:

F. Deg. C.		Deg. F.	Deg. C.	
100	Water boils.	1733	945	Silver melts.
326	Lead melts.	1859	1015	Potassium sulphate melts.
358	Mercury boils.			
415	Zinc melts.	1913	1045	Gold melts.
448	Sulphur boils.	1929	1054	Copper melts.
625	Aluminum melts.	2734	1500	Palladium melts.
665	Selenium boils.	3227	1775	Platinum melts.

Temperatures Developed in Industrial Furnaces.—Le Chatelier states that by means of his pyrometer he has discovered temperatures which occur in melting steel and in other industries which have been hitherto overestimated.

M. Le Chatelier finds the melting heat of white cast iron 1135° (8) and that of gray cast iron 1220° (22° 28' F.). Mild steel melts at 1475° F., semi-mild at 1455° (2651° F.), and hard steel at 1410° (2570° F. furnace for hard porcelain at the end of the baking has a heat, (2498° F.). The heat of a normal incandescent lamp is 1800° (3272° it may be pushed to beyond 2100° (3812° F.).

Prof. Roberts-Austen (Recent Advances in Pyrometry, Trans. A. Chicago Meeting, 1893) gives an excellent description of modern pyrometers. The following are some of his temperature determina

GOLD-MELTING, ROYAL MINT.

	Degrees.
	Centigrade.
Temperature of standard alloy, pouring into moulds.	1180
Temperature of standard alloy, pouring into moulds (on a previous occasion, by thermo-couple)	1147
Annealing blanks for coinage, temperature of chamber.	800

SILVER-MELTING, ROYAL MINT.

Temperature of standard alloy, pouring into mould.	980
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TEN-TON OPEN-HEARTH FURNACE, WOOLWICH ARSENAL.

Temperature of steel, 0.3% carbon, pouring into ladle.	1945
Temperature of steel, 0.3% carbon, pouring into large mould.	1580
Reheating furnace, Woolwich Arsenal, temperature of interior	990
Cupola furnace, temperature of No. 2, cast-iron pouring into ladle.	1600

The following determinations have been effected by M. Le Chatelier

BESSEMER PROCESS.

Six-ton Converter.

	Degrees.
	Centigrade
A. Bath of slag	1580
B. Metal in ladle	1640
C. Metal in ingot mould	1580
D. Ingot in reheating furnace.	1300
E. Ingot under the hammer	1080

OPEN-HEARTH FURNACE (Siemens).

Semi-Mild Steel.

A. Fuel gas near gas generator	730
B. Fuel gas entering into bottom of regenerator chamber	400
C. Fuel gas issuing from regenerator chamber	1300
Air issuing from regenerator chamber	1000

CHIMNEY GASES.

Furnace in perfect condition	300
--	-----

OPEN-HEARTH FURNACE.

End of the melting of pig charge	1430
Completion of conversion	1500

MOLTEN STEEL.

In the ladle—Commencement of casting	1580
End of casting	1490
In the moulds	1530

For very mild (soft) steel the temperatures are higher by 50° C.

SIEMENS CRUCIBLE OR POT FURNACE.

1600° C., 2912° F.

ROTARY PUDDLING FURNACE.

	Degrees
	Centigrade
Furnace	1240-1250
Puddled ball—End of operation	1200

air-volume V' to the air-volume V , can be measured by a manometer. This pressure is of course a function of the temperature T . In the production of V' , we have the two separate air-volumes, V at temperature T and V' at the temperature t , both under the atmospheric pressure. After the forcing in of V' into the globe, we have, on the whole, the volume V of the temperature T , but under the pressure

of the air-pyrometer is adapted for use at blast-furnaces, smelting-furnaces, and tempering furnaces, etc., where determinations of temperature from 0° to 2400° F. are required.

Fire-clay Pyrometer. (H. M. Howe, *Eng. and Mining* 7, 1890.)—Professor Seger uses a series of slender triangular pyramids, about 3 inches high and $\frac{5}{8}$ inch wide at the base, and less fusible than the next: these he calls "normal pyramids" ("normal" being the German word for "normal"). When the series is placed in a furnace whose temperature is gradually raised, one after another will bend over as its range of temperature is reached; and the temperature at which it has bent, or "wept," when its apex touches the hearth of the furnace or other level surface, is selected as a point on Seger's scale. These points are usually determined by some absolute method, or they may be determined to give comparative results. Unfortunately, these pyrometers are of no use when the temperature is stationary or falling.

And Nouel's Pyrometric Telescope. (*Ibid.*)—Mesuré's pyrometric telescope gives us an immediate determination of the temperature of incandescent bodies, and is therefore much better adapted for cases where a great number of observations are to be made, and where the temperature is gradually rising, than Seger's. Such cases arise in the careful heating of metals. The telescope, carried in the pocket or hung from the neck, can be used at any moment.

It is in the fact that a plate of quartz, cut at right angles to the plane of polarization of polarized light to a degree nearly equal to the square of the length of the waves; and, in the fact that while a body at dull redness merely emits red light, as the temperature rises, the orange, yellow, green, and blue waves appear.

If a plate of quartz is placed between two Nicol prisms at such an angle that a ray of monochromatic light which passes the first, or

and the suction is obtained by an aspirator and regulated water of constant height.

The tension in the chamber between the apertures is measured by a manometer.

The Air-thermometer. (Prof. R. C. Carpenter, *Eng'g* 1893.)—Air is a perfect thermometric substance, and if a given mass be considered, the product of its pressure and volume divided by its absolute temperature is in every case constant. If the mass and volume remain constant, the temperature will vary with the pressure; if the pressure remain constant, the temperature will vary with the volume. The former condition is more easily attained in an air-thermometer constructed of constant volume, in which case the absolute temperature will vary with the pressure.

If we denote pressure by p and p' , the corresponding absolute temperatures by T and T' , we should have

$$p : p' :: T : T' \quad \text{and} \quad T' = p' \frac{T}{p}.$$

The absolute temperature T is to be considered in every case rather than the thermometer-reading expressed in Fahrenheit degrees. In the form of the above equation, if the pressure p corresponding to the absolute temperature T be known, T' can be found. The constant which may be used in all determinations with this instrument is the pressure on the instrument can be expressed in inches of mercury. Evidently the atmospheric pressure b as shown by a barometer minus an additional amount h shown by a manometer attached to the thermometer.

That is, in general, $p = b - h$.

The temperature of 32° F. is fixed as the point of melting of ice. In case $T = 460 + 32 = 492^\circ$ F. This temperature can be produced by surrounding the bulb in melting ice and leaving several minutes. The temperature of the confined air shall acquire that of the surroundings. When the air is at that temperature, note the reading on the manometer h , and that of a barometer; the sum will be the pressure p corresponding to the absolute temperature of 492° F. The constant $K = 492 - p$, once obtained, can be used in all future

bar of iron, slowly heated in contact with air, assumes the fol-
lowing temperatures (Claudel):

Cent.	Fahr.	Cent.	Fahr.
235	437	288	550
243	473	293	559
265	509	332	630
277	531	400	752

BOILING POINTS AT ATMOSPHERIC PRESSURE.

14.7 lbs. per square inch.

Mercuric	100° F.	Average sea-water	213.2° F.
Phosphide	118	Saturated brine	236
	140	Nitric acid	248
	140	Oil of turpentine	315
	145	Phosphorus	554
	150	Sulphur	570
	173	Sulphuric acid	590
	176	Linseed oil	597
	212	Mercury	676

Boiling points of liquids increase as the pressure increases. The boil-
ing point of water at any given pressure is the same as the temperature of
steam at the same pressure. (See Steam.)

BOILING-POINTS OF VARIOUS SUBSTANCES.

Boiling figures are given by Clark (on the authority of Pouillet,
Wilson), except those marked *, which are given by Prof. Rob-
inson in his description of the Le Chatelier pyrometer. These latter
are the most reliable figures.

Acetic acid	- 148° F.	Alloy, 1 tin, 1 lead	370 to 466° F.
Alcohol	- 108	Tin	442 to 446
Ammonia	- 39	Cadmium	442
Antimony	+ 9.5	Bismuth	504 to 507
Carbonic acid	14	Lead	608 to 618*
Chloroform	16	Zinc	680 to 779*
Diethyl ether	32	Antimony	810 to 1150
Hydrochloric acid	45	Aluminium	1157*
Hydrocyanic acid	92	Magnesium	1200
Hydrofluoric acid	112	Calcium	Full red heat.
Hydroiodic acid	113	Bronze	1692
Hydrophosphoric acid	109 to 120	Silver	1733* to 1873
Hydrochloric acid	120	Potassium sulphate	1859*
Hydrocyanic acid	131 to 140	Gold	1913* to 2282
Hydrofluoric acid	136 to 144	Copper	1929* to 1996
Hydroiodic acid	142 to 154	Cast iron, white	1922 to 2075*
Hydrophosphoric acid	158	" gray	2012 to 2786
Hydrochloric acid	194 to 208	Steel	2372 to 2532
Hydrocyanic acid	199	" hard	2570*; mild, 2682*
Hydrofluoric acid	225	Wrought iron	2732 to 2912
Hydroiodic acid	239	Palladium	2732*
Hydrophosphoric acid	334	Platinum	3227*

Boiling-point of fusible alloys, see Alloys.

Iron, nickel, and manganese, fusible in highest heat of a forge. Tung-
sten, osmium, not fusible in forge, but soften and agglomerate. Plati-
num, fusible only before the oxyhydrogen blowpipe.

QUANTITATIVE MEASUREMENT OF HEAT.

Heat.—The British unit of heat, or British thermal unit
is that quantity of heat which is required to raise the temperature
of water 1° Fahr., at or near 39°.1 F., the temperature of maxi-
mum density of water.

The *thermal unit, or calorie, is that quantity of heat which is re-
quired to raise the temperature of 1 kilogramme of pure water 1° Cent., at or
near 39°.1 F.*
1 B. T. U. = 3.968 British thermal units; 1 B. T. U. = .252 calorie.
The "calorie" is sometimes used by English writers; it is the quan-

tity of heat required to raise the temperature of 1 lb. of water 1°C . calorific = $9/5$ B.T.U. = 0.4536 calorific. The heat of combustion of carbon CO_2 is said to be 8080 calories. This figure is used either for French cal for pound calories, as it is the number of pounds of water that can be raised 1°C . by the complete combustion of 1 lb. of carbon, or the number of kilograms of water that can be raised 1°C . by the combustion of 1 lb. of carbon; assuming in each case that all the heat generated is transferred to the water.

The Mechanical Equivalent of Heat is the number of pounds of mechanical energy equivalent to one British thermal unit, and mechanical energy being mutually convertible. Joule's experiments 1843-50, gave the figure 778, which is known as Joule's equivalent. More recent experiments by Prof. Rowland (*Proc. Am. Acad. Arts and Sci* 1880; see also *Wood's Thermodynamics*) give higher figures, and the probable average is now considered to be 778.

1 heat-unit is equivalent to 778 ft.-lbs. of energy. 1 ft. lb. = $1/778$ heat-units. 1 horse-power = 33,000 ft.-lbs. per minute = 2545 heat-units per hour = 42.416 + per minute = .70994 per second. 1 lb. carbon burned to CO_2 = 14,544 heat-units. 1 lb. C. per H.P. per hour = 2545 + $1/14544$ = 174 efficiency (174986).

Heat of Combustion of Various Substances in Oxygen

	Heat-units.		Authority.
	Cent.	Fahr.	
Hydrogen to liquid water at 0°C	{ 34,462 33,808	{ 62,032 60,854	Favre and Silbermann Andrews.
" to steam at 100°C	{ 34,342 28,732	{ 61,816 51,717	Thomsen. Favre and Silbermann
Carbon (wood charcoal) to carbonic acid, CO_2 ; ordinary temperatures.	{ 8,080 7,900	{ 14,544 14,220	Andrews.
Carbon, diamond to CO_2	{ 8,137 7,859	{ 14,647 14,146	Berthelot. "
" black diamond to CO_2	{ 7,851 7,901	{ 14,150 14,222	"
Carbon to carbonic oxide, CO	{ 2,473 2,403	{ 4,451 4,325	Favre and Silbermann "
Carbonic oxide to CO_2 , per unit of CO	{ 2,431 2,385	{ 4,376 4,292	Andrews. Thomsen.
CO to CO_2 per unit of $\text{C} = 2\frac{1}{6} \times 2403$	{ 5,607 13,120	{ 10,093 23,616	Favre and Silbermann Thomsen.
Marsh-gas, Methane, CH_4 to water and CO_2	{ 13,108 13,063	{ 23,594 23,513	Andrews. Favre and Silbermann
Olefant gas, Ethylene, C_2H_4 to water and CO_2	{ 11,858 11,942	{ 21,341 21,496	Andrews.
Benzole gas, C_6H_6 to water and CO_2	{ 11,957 10,102	{ 21,523 18,184	Thomsen. "
	{ 9,915	{ 17,847	Favre and Silbermann

In burning 1 pound of hydrogen with 8 pounds of oxygen to form 9 lbs of water, the units of heat evolved are 62,032 (Favre and S.); but the resulting product is not cooled to the initial temperature of the part of the heat is rendered latent in the steam. The total heat of steam at 212°F . is 1146.1 heat-units above that of water at 32°F . $9 \times 1146.1 = 10,315$ heat-units, which deducted from 62,032 gives 51,717 heat evolved by the combustion of 1 lb. of hydrogen and 8 lbs. of oxygen to form steam at 212°F .

By the decomposition of a chemical compound as much heat is also rendered latent as was evolved when the compound was formed. If 1 lb. of carbon is burned to CO_2 , generating 14,544 B.T.U., and the CO_2 thus formed is reduced to CO in the presence of glowing carbon, $\text{C} + \text{CO}_2 = 2\text{CO}$, the result is the same as if the 2 lbs. of carbon had been burned to 2CO , generating $2 \times 4451 = 8902$ heat-units; consequently 5642 heat-units have disappeared or become latent, as

burning" of CO_2 to CO is thus a cooling operation. (For heats of combustion of various fuels, see Fuel.)

SPECIFIC HEAT.

Thermal Capacity.—The thermal capacity of a body is the quantity of heat required to raise its temperature one degree. The ratio of the heat required to raise the temperature of a given substance one degree to that required to raise the temperature of water one degree from the temperature of maximum density 39.1 is commonly called the *specific heat* of the substance. Some writers object to the term as being an inaccurate use of the words "specific" and "heat." A more correct name would be "coefficient of thermal capacity."

Determination of Specific Heat.—*Method by Mixture.*—The body whose specific heat is to be determined is raised to a known temperature, and is then immersed in a mass of liquid of which the weight, specific heat, and temperature are known. When both the body and the liquid have attained the same temperature, this is carefully ascertained.

Now the quantity of heat lost by the body is the same as the quantity of heat absorbed by the liquid.

Let c , w , and t be the specific heat, weight, and temperature of the hot body, and c' , w' , and t' of the liquid. Let T be the temperature the mixture assumes.

Then, by the definition of specific heat, $c \times w \times (t - T) =$ heat-units lost

by the hot body, and $c' \times w' \times (T - t') =$ heat-units gained by the cold liquid. If there is no heat lost by radiation or conduction, these must be equal, and

$$c w (t - T) = c' w' (T - t') \quad \text{or} \quad c = \frac{c' w' (T - t')}{w (t - T)}$$

Specific Heats of Various Substances.

The specific heats of substances, as given by different authorities, show considerable lack of agreement, especially in the case of gases.

The following tables give the mean specific heats of the substances named according to Regnault. (From Rontgen's Thermodynamics, p. 134.) These specific heats are average values, taken at temperatures which usually come under observation in technical application. The actual specific heats of all substances, in the solid or liquid state, increase slowly as the body expands as the temperature rises. It is probable that the specific heat of a body in the liquid is greater than when solid. For many bodies this has been verified by experiment.

SOLIDS.

Alimony.....	0.0508	Steel (soft).....	0.1165
Copper.....	0.0951	Steel (hard).....	0.1175
Gold.....	0.0324	Zinc.....	0.0956
Wrought iron.....	0.1138	Brass.....	0.0939
Cast iron.....	0.1937	Ice.....	0.5040
Cast iron.....	0.1298	Sulphur.....	0.2026
Lead.....	0.0314	Charcoal.....	0.2410
Aluminum.....	0.0324	Alumina.....	0.1970
Mercury.....	0.0570	Phosphorus.....	0.1887
	0.0562		

LIQUIDS.

Mercury.....	1.0000	Mercury.....	0.0333
Water (melted).....	0.0402	Alcohol (absolute).....	0.7009
Alcohol.....	0.2340	Fusel oil.....	0.5640
Essence of sulphur.....	0.0308	Benzine.....	0.4500
Essence of turpentine.....	0.0637	Ether.....	0.5034
Carbonic acid.....	0.8350		

GASES.

	Constant Pressure.	Constant Volume
Air.....	0.23751	0.16847
Oxygen.....	0.21751	0.15367
Hydrogen.....	3.40900	2.41296
Nitrogen.....	0.34380	0.17273
Superheated steam.....	0.4805	0.346
Carbonic acid.....	0.217	0.1535
Olefiant Gas (CH ₂).....	0.404	0.173
Carbonic oxide.....	0.3479	0.1758
Ammonia.....	0.505	0.299
Ether.....	0.4797	0.3411
Alcohol.....	0.4534	0.2300
Acetic acid.....	0.4125
Chloroform.....	0.1867

In addition to the above, the following are given by other authors (Selected from various sources.)

METALS.

Platinum, 32° to 446° F.0333	Wrought iron (Petit & Dulong)
(increased .000305 for each 100° F.)		" 32° to 212°
Cadmium.....	.0567	" 32° to 392°
Brass.....	.0699	" 32° to 572°
Copper, 32° to 212° F.094	" 32° to 662°
" 32° to 572° F.1013	Wrought iron (J. C. Hoadley,
Zinc 32° to 212° F.0937	A. S. M. E., vl. 713),
" 32° to 572° F.1015	Wrought iron, 32° to 200°
Nickel.....	.1086	" 32° to 608°
Aluminum, 0° F. to melting-		" 32° to 2000°
point (A. E. Hunt).....	0.2185	

OTHER SOLIDS.

Brickwork and masonry, about.	.30	Coal.....	.20
Marble.....	.210	Coke.....
Chalk.....	.215	Graphite.....
Quicklime.....	.217	Sulphate of lime.....
Magnesian limestone.....	.217	Magnesia.....
Silica.....	.191	Soda.....
Corundum.....	.198	Quartz.....
Stones generally.....	.2 to .22	River sand.....

WOODS.

Pine (turpentine).....	.467	Oak.....
Fir.....	.650	Pear.....

LIQUIDS.

Alcohol, density .793.....	.622	Olive oil.....
Sulphuric acid, density 1.87.....	.325	Benzine.....
" " 1.30.....	.061	Turpentine, density .872.....
Hydrochloric acid.....	.600	Bromine.....

GASES.

	At Constant Pressure.	At Constant Volume
Sulphurous acid.....	.1553	.1345
Light carburetted hydrogen, marsh gas (CH ₄).....	.5929	.4683
Blast-furnace gases.....	.2777

Specific Heat of Salt Solution. (Schuller.)

Per cent salt in solution.....	5	10	15	20
Specific heat.....	.9306	.8909	.8506	.8490

Specific Heat of Air.—Regnault gives for the mean value

Between -30° C. and +10° C.	0.23751
" 0° C. " 100° C.	0.2374
" 0° C. " 200° C.	0.2373

Haywood gives 0.1686 for the specific heat of air at constant volume. This value, however, has never been found to any degree of accuracy. Prof. Wood gives 0.2375 to 1.400 = 0.1686. The

heat of a fixed gas at constant pressure to the sp. ht. at con-
ne is given as follows by different writers (*Eng'g*, July 12, 1889):
1.3953; Moll and Beck, 1.4085; Szathmari, 1.4047; J. Macfarlane
The first three are obtained from the velocity of sound in air. The
erived from theory. Prof. Wood says: The value of the ratio for
nd in the days of La Place, was 1.41, and we have $0.2377 \div 1.41$
e value used by Clausius, Hanssen, and many others. But this
definitely known. Rankine in his later writings used 1.408, and
recent work gives 1.404, while some experiments gives less than
ers more than 1.41. Prof. Wood uses 1.406.

Heat of Gases.—Experiments by Mallard and Le Chatelier
continuous increase in the specific heat at constant volume of
and even of the perfect gases, with rise of temperature. The
inappreciable at 100° C., but increases rapidly at the high tem-
of the gas-engine cylinder. (Robinson's Gas and Petroleum

Heat and Latent Heat of Fusion of Iron and Steel. (H. H. Campbell, *Trans. A. I. M. E.*, xix, 181.)

		Åkerman. Troilius.	
Specific heat pig iron,	0 to 1200° C.	0.16
" "	1300 to 1800° C.	0.21
" "	0 to 1500° C.	0.18
" "	1500 to 1800° C.	0.30

By both sets of data we have:

		Åkerman. Troilius.	
Specific heat from 0 to 1800° C.	318	330 calories per kilo.
Probable value is about	325	calories per kilo.
Specific heat, steel (probably high carbon)	(Troilius)
" " soft iron	1081
Probable value solid rail steel	1125
" " melted rail steel	1275

		Åkerman. Troilius.	
Latent heat of fusion, pig iron, calories per kilo.	46
" " gray pig	33
" " white pig	23

We may assume that the truth is about: Steel, 20; pig iron, 30.

EXPANSION BY HEAT.

On the centigrade scale the coefficient of expansion of air per degree is
1/273; that is, the pressure being constant, the volume of a perfect
gas increases 1/273 of its volume at 0° C. for every increase in temperature
in Fahrenheit units it increases $1/491.2 = .002036$ of its volume at
every increase of 1° F.

Expansion of Gases by Heat from 32° to 212° F. (Regnault.)

	Increase in Volume, Pressure Constant. Volume at 32° Fahr. = 1.0, for		Increase in Pressure, Volume Constant. Pressure at 32° Fahr. = 1.0, for	
	100° C.	1° F.	100° C.	1° F.
.....	0.3661	0.002034	0.3667	0.002037
.....	0.3670	0.002039	0.3665	0.002036
.....	0.3670	0.002039	0.3668	0.002039
.....	0.3669	0.002038	0.3667	0.002037
.....	0.3710	0.002061	0.3688	0.002039
.....	0.3903	0.002163	0.3845	0.002196

When the volume is kept constant, the pressure varies directly as the
temperature.

Lineal Expansion of Solids at Ordinary Temperatures.

(British Board of Trade; from CLARK.)

	For 1° Fahr.	For 1° Cent.	Coefficient of Expansion from 32° to 212° F.	Accord- ing to Other Autho- rities.
	Length=1	Length=1		
Aluminum (cast).....	.00001234	.00002221	.002221
Antimony (cryst.).....	.00000627	.00001129	.001129	.001088
Brass, cast.....	.00000957	.00001722	.001722	.001868
" plate.....	.00001052	.00001894	.001894
Brick.....	.00003206	.00005550	.005550
Bronze (Copper, 17; Tin, 2½; Zinc 1).....	.00000986	.00001774	.001774
Bismuth.....	.00000975	.00001755	.001755	.001822
Cement, Portland (mixed), pure.....	.00000594	.00001070	.001070
Concrete; cement, mortar, and pebbles.....	.00000795	.00001430	.001430
Copper.....	.00000887	.00001596	.001596	.001718
Ebonite.....	.00004278	.00007700	.007700
Glass, English flint.....	.00000451	.00000812	.000812
" thermometer.....	.00000499	.00000897	.000897
" hard.....	.00000397	.00000714	.000714
Granite, gray, dry.....	.00000425	.00000789	.000789
" red, dry.....	.00000428	.00000897	.000897
Gold, pure.....	.00000786	.00001415	.001415
Iridium, pure.....	.00000356	.00000641	.000641
Iron, wrought.....	.00000648	.00001166	.001166	.001235
" cast.....	.00000556	.00001001	.001001	.001110
Lead.....	.00001571	.00002828	.002828
Magnesium.....002594
Marbles, various	{ from.....	.00000554	.000554
	{ to.....	.00001415	.001415
Masonry, brick	{ from.....	.00000256	.000460
	{ to.....	.00000494	.0000890
Mercury (cubic expansion).....	.00009984	.00017871	.017971	.018018
Nickel.....	.00000695	.00001251	.001251	.001279
Pewter.....	.00001129	.00002033	.002033
Plaster, white.....	.00000322	.00001660	.001660
Platinum.....	.00000479	.00000863	.000863
Platinum, 85 per cent	{	.00000453	.0000815	.000815
Iridium, 15 " "	}000884
Porcelain.....	.00000300	.00000360	.000360
Quartz, parallel to major axis, t 0° to 40° C.....	.00000434	.00000781	.000781
Quartz, perpendicular to major axis, t 0° to 40° C.....	.00000788	.00001419	.001419
Silver, pure.....	.00001079	.00001943	.001943	.001909
Slate.....	.00000577	.00001038	.001038
Steel, cast.....	.00000636	.00001144	.001144	.001079
" tempered.....	.00000689	.00001240	.001240
Stone (sandstone), dry.....	.00000652	.00001174	.001174
" Rauville.....	.00000417	.00000750	.000750
Tin.....	.00001163	.00002094	.002094	.001998
Wedgwood ware.....	.00000429	.00000881	.000881
Wood, pine.....	.00000276	.00000496	.000496
Zinc.....	.00001407	.00002532	.002532	.002522
Zinc, 8 1/2	{	.00001496	.00002692	.002692
Tin, 1	}

Cubical expansion, or expansion of volume = linear expansion \times l.

Temperature—Absolute Zero.—The absolute zero of a retical consequence of the law of expansion by heat, assuming sible to continue the cooling of a perfect gas until its volume is o nothing.

me of a perfect gas increases $1/273$ of its volume at 0° C. for se of temperature of 1° C., and decreases $1/273$ of its volume for as of temperature of 1° C., then at -273° C. the volume of the as would be reduced to nothing. This point -273° C., or 491.2° e melting-point of ice on the air thermometer, or 492.66° F. befect gas thermometer $= -459.2^{\circ}$ F. (or -460.66°), is called the o; and absolute temperatures are temperatures measured, on ahrenheit or centigrade scale, from this zero. The freezing e, corresponds to 491.2° F. absolute. If p_0 be the pressure and e of a gas at the temperature of 32° F. $= 491.2^{\circ}$ on the absolute and p the pressure, and v the volume of the same quantity of her absolute temperature T , then

$$\frac{pv}{p_0v_0} = \frac{T}{T_0} = \frac{t + 459.2}{491.2}; \quad \frac{pv}{T} = \frac{p_0v_0}{T_0}.$$

of $p_0v_0 + T_0$ for air is 53.37, and $pv = 53.37T$, calculated as fol- Wood:

ot of dry air at 32° F. at the sea-level weighs 0.080728 lb. The ne pound is $v_0 = \frac{1}{.080728} = 12.387$ cubic feet. The pressure per is 2116.2 lbs.

$$\frac{p_0v_0}{T_0} = \frac{2116.2 \times 12.387}{491.13} = \frac{26214}{491.13} = 53.37.$$

491.13 is the number of degrees that the absolute zero is below point of ice, by the air thermometer. On the absolute scale, ons would be indicated by a perfect gas thermometer, the cal- e approximately is 492.66, which would make $pv = 53.37T$. Prof. asiders that -273° C., $= -459.4^{\circ}$ F., is the most probable valu- te zero. See *Heat in Ency. Brit.*

Expansion of Liquids from 32° to 212° F.—Apparent ex- lass (Clark). Volume at 212° , volume at 32° being 1:

.....	1.0466	Nitric acid.....	1.11
ated with salt.....	1.05	Olive and linseed oils.....	1.08
.....	1.0182	Turpentine and ether.....	1.07
.....	1.11	Hydrochlor. and sulphuric acids	1.06

at various temperatures, see Water.

various temperatures, see Air.

HEATS OF FUSION AND EVAPORATION.

Heat means a quantity of heat which has disappeared, having ed to produce some change other than elevation of temperature, reversing that change, the quantity of heat which has dis- reproduced. Maxwell defines it as the quantity of heat which unicated to a body in a given state in order to convert it into e without changing its temperature.

Heat of Fusion.—When a body passes from the solid to the its temperature remains stationary, or nearly stationary, at a ing point during the whole operation of melting; and in order at operation go on, a quantity of heat must be transferred to the melted, being a certain amount for each unit of weight of the This quantity is called the latent heat of fusion.

body passes from the liquid to the solid state, its temperature onary or nearly stationary during the whole operation of freez- ity of heat equal to the latent heat of fusion is produced in the jected into the atmosphere or other surrounding bodies.

ving are examples in British thermal units per pound, as given

Substances.	Melting Points.	Latent Heat of Fusion.
according to Person).....	32	142.65
maceti.....	56	148
wax.....	140	175
sphorns.....	177	9.06
hur.....	405	16.38
.....	426	500

corresponding to the pressure of the vapor; a quantity of latent heat of evaporation at that temperature is produced in order that the operation of condensation may go on, the heat being transferred from the body condensed to some other body.

The following are examples of the latent heat of evaporation in British thermal units, of one pound of certain substances, when the vapor is one atmosphere of 14.7 lbs. on the square inch:

Substance.	Boiling-point under one atm. Fahr.	Latent heat in British thermal units per pound.
Water	212.0	970.3
Alcohol	173.2	385.0
Ether	95.0	100.0
Bisulphide of carbon	114.8	110.0

The latent heat of evaporation of water at a series of temperatures extending from a few degrees below its freezing-point up to 212° Fahrenheit has been determined experimentally by M. Regnault. The results of those experiments are represented approximately by the following equation in British thermal units per pound,

$$l \text{ nearly} = 1091.7 - 0.7(t - 32^\circ) = 965.7 - 0.7(t - 32^\circ)$$

The Total Heat of Evaporation is the sum of the sensible heat which disappears in evaporating one pound of a given substance at a given temperature (or latent heat of evaporation) and of the heat required to raise the temperature, before evaporation, from some fixed temperature to the temperature of evaporation. The latter part of the total heat is called the sensible heat.

In the case of water, the experiments of M. Regnault show that the latent heat of steam from the temperature of melting ice increases with the rate as the temperature of evaporation rises. The following equation represents the results in British thermal units per pound:

$$h = 1091.7 + 0.305(t - 32^\circ).$$

For the total heat, latent heat, etc., of steam at different temperatures, see the table of the Properties of Saturated Steam. For tables of the latent heat, and other properties of steams of ether, alcohol, acetone, carbon chloride of carbon, and bisulphide of carbon, see Rontgen's tables (Dubois's translation.) For ammonia and sulphur dioxide, see Thermodynamics; also, tables under Refrigerating Machine.

EVAPORATION AND DRYING.

Evaporation of Water in Reservoirs.—Experiments at the Reservoir, Rochester, N. Y., in 1891, gave the following results:

	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.
Evaporation of air in shade.....	70.5	70.3	68.7	53.3
" " water in reservoir.....	68.2	70.2	66.1	54.4
Humidity of air, per cent.....	67.0	74.6	75.2	74.7
Evaporation in inches during month.....	5.59	4.93	4.05	3.23
Evaporation in inches during month.....	3.44	2.95	1.44	2.16

Evaporation of Water from Open Channels. (Flynn's *Analyses and Flow of Water*.)—Experiments from 1881 to 1885 in California, showed an evaporation from a pan in the river of an average depth of one eighth of an inch per day throughout the

summer. When the pan was in the air the average evaporation was less than 3/16 of an inch per day. The average for the month of August was 1/3 inch per day. In March and April 1/12 of an inch per day. Experiments in Italy show that evaporation ranges from .088 to .16 of an inch per day during the wintering season.

In Italy the evaporation was from 1/12 to 1/9 inch per day, while in the United States under the influence of hot winds, it was from 1/6 to 1/5 inch per day.

At Calcutta, in Northern India, with a decidedly hot wind blowing, the average evaporation was 1 1/2 inches per day. The evaporation increases with the temperature of the water.

Evaporation by the Multiple System.—A multiple effect is a system of evaporating vessels each having a steam chamber, so connected that the heat of the steam or vapor produced in the first vessel heats the water in the second, the vapor of the second heats the third, and so on, until the steam from the last vessel is condensed in a condenser. Three vessels are generally used, in which case the apparatus is called a *Triple Effect*. The vacuum evaporating in a triple effect the vacuum is graduated so that the temperature is at a constant and low temperature.

Evaporation before Boiling.—Brine. (Rankine.)—The presence in a liquid of a substance dissolved in it (as salt in water) resists ebullition, and raises the temperature at which the liquid boils, under a given pressure; but the dissolved substance enters into the composition of the vapor, and so the composition of the vapor, and hence the temperature and pressure of saturation of the vapor, are affected. A resistance to ebullition is also offered by a vessel of glass which attracts the liquid (as when water boils in a glass vessel), and by the surface of the liquid. To avoid the errors which cause of this nature in the measurement of boiling-points, it is advisable to use a thermometer, not in the liquid, but in the vapor, which shows the boiling-point, freed from the disturbing effect of the attractive nature of the liquid.

The boiling-point of saturated brine under one atmosphere is 212° F., and that of weaker brine is higher than the boiling-point of pure water. For each 1/32 of salt that the water contains, the boiling-point rises 1/32° Fahr.; and the brine in marine boilers is not sufficient to raise the boiling-point more than from 2/32 to 3/32.

Evaporation Employed in the Manufacture of Salt.—E. Engelhardt, Chemist Onondaga Salt Springs; Report for 1887. 1. Heat—solar evaporation. 2. Direct fire, applied to the heat-panels containing brine—kettle and pan methods. 3. The vacuum system—steam-pans, steam-kettles, etc. 4. Use of steam and vacuum pans. 5. Use of atmospheric pressure over the boiling brine—vacuum pans.

When a saturated salt solution boils, it is immaterial whether it is done under atmospheric pressure at 212° F., or under four atmospheres of pressure at 330° F., or in a vacuum under 1/10 atmosphere, the product will be a fine-grained salt.

It is assumed to be as follows: By the kettle method, 40 lbs. of salt are evaporated per ton of fuel, anthracite dust burned on per cent; by the vacuum method, 5.53 lbs. of water per pound of coal. By the vacuum method, 75 bu. per ton of fuel. By vacuum pans, single effect, 86 lbs. of salt per ton of fuel (3000 lbs.). With a double effect nearly double amount can be produced.

Solubility of Common Salt in Pure Water. (Add

Temp. of brine, F.....	32	50	86	104	140
100 parts water dissolve parts....	35.63	35.69	36.03	36.32	37.00
100 parts brine contain salt.....	26.27	26.30	26.49	26.64	27.00

According to Poggial, 100 parts of water dissolve at 239.66° F., 4 parts of salt, or in per cent of brine, 28.749. Gay Lussac found that at 2100 parts of pure water would dissolve 40.38 parts of salt, in per cent of brine, 28.764 parts.

The solubility of salt at 239° F. is only 2.5% greater than at 32°. It cannot, as in the case of alum, separate the salt from the water by a saturated solution at the boiling point to cool to a lower temper

Solubility of Sulphate of Lime in Pure Water. (3)

Temperature F. degrees.	32	64.5	89.6	100.4	105.8	137.4
Parts water to dissolve 1 part gypsum	415	386	371	368	370	375
Parts water to dissolve 1 part anhydrous CaSO ₄	525	488	470	466	468	474

In salt brine sulphate of lime is much more soluble than in pure water. In the evaporation of salt brine the accumulation of sulphate of lime to stop the operation, and it must be removed from the pans to avoid the loss of fuel.

The average strength of brine in the New York salt districts is 69.38 degrees of the salinometer.

Strength of Salt Brines.—The following table is condensed one given in U. S. Mineral Resources for 1888, on the authority of Englehardt.

Relations between Salinometer Strength, Specific Gravity, Solid Contents, etc., of Brines of Different Strengths.

Salinometer, degrees.	Baumé, degrees.	Specific gravity.	Per cent of salt.	Weight of a gallon of this brine in pounds.	Pounds of salt in a gallon of brine of 231 cubic inches.	Gallons of brine required for a bushel of salt.	Pounds of water to be evaporated to produce a bushel of salt.	Lbs. of coal required to produce a bushel of salt, 1 lb. coal evaporating 6 lbs. of water.
1.....	.26	1.002	.265	8.247	.022	2.531	21,076	3.513
2.....	.52	1.003	.530	8.356	.044	1,264	10,510	1,792
4.....	1.04	1.007	1.060	8.389	.088	629.7	5,257	871.5
6.....	1.56	1.010	1.590	8.414	.133	418.6	3,466	577.7
8.....	2.08	1.014	2.120	8.447	.179	212.7	2,585	430.9
10.....	2.60	1.017	2.650	8.472	.224	249.4	2,057	342.9
12.....	3.12	1.021	3.180	8.506	.270	207.0	1,705	284.2
14.....	3.64	1.025	3.710	8.539	.316	176.8	1,453	242.5
16.....	4.16	1.028	4.240	8.564	.364	154.2	1,265	210.5
18.....	4.68	1.032	4.770	8.597	.410	136.5	1,118	186.5
20.....	5.20	1.035	5.300	8.622	.457	122.5	1,001	176.5
30.....	7.80	1.054	7.950	8.781	.698	80.21	648.4	108.1
40.....	10.40	1.073	10.600	8.939	.947	59.09	472.3	78.1
50.....	13.00	1.093	13.250	9.105	1.206	46.41	366.6	61.3
60.....	15.60	1.114	15.900	9.280	1.475	37.94	296.2	49.3
70.....	18.20	1.136	18.550	9.464	1.755	31.89	245.9	40.9
80.....	20.80	1.158	21.200	9.647	2.045	27.38	208.1	34.8
90.....	23.40	1.182	23.850	9.847	2.348	23.84	178.8	29.5
100.....	26.00	1.206	26.500	10.089	2.660	21.04	155.3	25.8

pan of Sugar Solutions.* (From "Heating and Cooling by Steam," by John G. Hudson; *The Engineer*, June 13, 1904.) In the earlier stages of the process, when the liquor is of low density, the steam pressure will be high, say two to three (British) gallons per square foot with 10 lbs. steam pressure, but will gradually fall to 1 lb. as the final stage is approached. As a general guide, Mr. Hudson takes an evaporation of one gallon per square foot of gross heating surface, with steam of the pressure.

the evaporative duty of a vacuum pan when performing the duty of concentration, during which all the heating surface is used, he gives the following:

Example.— $4\frac{1}{2}$ in. copper coils, 528 square feet of surface; density of feed, 25° Beaumé; temperature in pan, 141° to 148°; density of feed, 25° Beaumé.

Evaporation at the rate of 3000 gallons per hour = 3.8 gallons transmission, 376 units per degree of difference of temperature.

Evaporation at the rate of 1500 gallons per hour = 2.8 gallons transmission, 265 units per degree.

total time needed to work up a charge of massecuite from 25° to 60° density, the following figures, obtained by plotting the above number of pans, form a guide to practical working. The figures are for the coil type, some with and some without jackets, and the surface probably averaging, and not greatly differing from that of a flat surface. The figures are for a pan of 1000 gallon capacity, and the steam pressure 10 lbs. per square inch. The figures for plantation and refining pans are included, making sugar:

	Density of Feed (degs. Beaumé).				
	10°	15°	20°	25°	30°
gallons of water per gallon massecuite	6.133	3.6	2.26	1.5	.97
hours required per gallon	12.	9.	6 $\frac{1}{4}$	5.	4.
square feet of gross surface, as required per gallon capacity	2.04	1.6	1.39	1.2	.97
hours required per gallon	8.5	5.5	3.8	2.75	2.0
square feet of gross surface per gallon capacity	2.88	2.6	2.38	2.18	1.9

heating steam needed is practically the same in vacuum pan. The advantages proper to the vacuum system are: (1) the temperature of boiling, and incidentally the possibility of operating at low pressure.

(2) Sugar in water, each pound of sugar adds to the volume of water the extent of .061 gallon at a low density to .0638 gallon at a high density.

Evaporating by Exhaust Steam is described in *Trans. A. S. M. E.*, vol. viii. A pan 17' 6" x 11' x 1' 6", with 10 condensing pipes of about 250 sq. ft. of surface, evaporates one gallon of water per hour from clear water, condensing only about one half gallon of steam by a plain slide-valve engine of 14" x 32" cylinder, running at 100 r. min., cutting off about two thirds stroke, with steam at 10 lbs. pressure.

It is kept keeping the pan-room warm and letting only sufficient steam vapor up out of a ventilator adds to its efficiency, as the temperature of the water in the pan was only about 165° F. The pan was made with coils of pipe in a small pan, first with no jacket, and then one having straight blades, and lastly with troughed blades. The evaporative results being about the proportions of one, two, and three.

For liquors whose boiling point is 220° F., or much above that of water, and that exhaust steam can do but little more than bring to the boiling point, but on weak liquors, syrups, glues, etc., it is very useful.

For sugar data see Bagasse as Fuel, under Fuels.

Drying in Vacuum.—An apparatus for drying grain and stances in vacuum is described by Mr. Emil Passburg in *Proc. Engrs.*, 1889. The three essential requirements for a successful process of drying are: 1. Cheap evaporation of the steam; 2. Quick drying at a low temperature; 3. Large capacity of the apparatus employed.

The removal of the moisture can be effected in either of two ways: by slow evaporation, or by quick evaporation—that is, by boiling.

Slow Evaporation.—The principal idea carried into practice by slow evaporation is to bring the wet substance in contact with the inner surfaces of the apparatus, which are heated by steam, while at the same time a current of hot air is also passed through the substances for carrying off the moisture. This method is preferred because the hot-air current has to move at a considerable distance to shorten the drying process as much as possible; consequently a great quantity of heated air passes through and escapes unused. A smaller quantity of moisture hot air cannot in practice be charged beyond saturation; and it is in fact considered a satisfactory result when a certain proportion is attained. A great amount of heat is here produced but not used; while, with scarcely half the cost for fuel, a much greater amount of the water is obtained by heating it to the boiling point.

Quick Evaporation by Boiling.—This does not take place until the substance is brought up to the boiling point and kept there, namely, at atmospheric pressure. The vapor generated then escapes freely and is easily evaporated in this way, because by their motion the heat is continuously conveyed from the heating surface to the liquid, but it is different with solid substances, and many difficulties have to be overcome, because convection of the heat ceases in solids. The substance remains motionless, and consequently a greater quantity of heat is required than with liquids for the same results.

Evaporation in Vacuum.—All the foregoing disadvantages are avoided in the boiling-point of water is lowered, that is, if the evaporation is carried out under vacuum.

This plan has been successfully applied in Mr. Passburg's apparatus, which is designed to evaporate large quantities of water contained in solid substances.

The drying apparatus consists of a top horizontal cylinder, by a charging vessel at one end, and a bottom horizontal cylinder discharging vessel beneath it at the same end. Both cylinders are in steam-jackets heated by exhaust steam. In the top cylinder is a revolving cast-iron screw with hollow blades, which is also heated by steam. The bottom cylinder contains a revolving drum of tube of one large central tube surrounded by 24 smaller ones, all of which are supported by plates at both ends; this drum is heated by live steam direct from the boiler. The substance to be dried is fed into the charging vessel through a hole, and is carried along the top cylinder by the screw conveyor, where it drops through a valve into the bottom cylinder, is lifted by blades attached to the drum and travels forwards in the same direction; from the front end of the bottom cylinder it falls into a discharging vessel through another valve, having by this time become dried. Vapor arising during the process is carried off by an air-pump, a steam-dome and air-valve on the top of the upper cylinder, and a throttle-valve on the top of the lower cylinder; both of these are supplied with strainers.

As soon as the discharging vessel is filled with dried material, the connecting it with the bottom cylinder is shut, and the dried material is carried out without impairing the vacuum in the apparatus. When the discharging vessel requires replenishing, the intermediate valve between the discharging vessel and the bottom cylinder is shut, and the charging vessel filled with a fresh supply of material; the vacuum still remains unimpaired in the bottom cylinder, and is restored only in the top cylinder after the charging vessel is closed again.

In this vacuum the boiling-point of the water contained in the material is brought down as low as 110° F. The difference between the boiling-point of the material and that of the heating surfaces is amply sufficient for obtaining the desired results from the employment of exhaust steam for heating all the material, except the revolving drum of tubes. The water contained in the material evaporates as soon as the latter is heated to

there is any moisture to be removed the solid substance is at this temperature.

On a brewery or distillery, containing from 75% to 78% of his drying process been converted in some localities from mbrance into a valuable food-stuff. The water is removed only, no previous mechanical pressing being resorted to.

Business's brewery in Dublin two of these machines are employed of these the top cylinder is 20' 4" long and 2' 8" diam., and the drum inside it makes 7 revs. per min.; the bottom cylinder is 2' 4" diam., and the drum of the tubes inside it makes 5 revs. The drying surfaces of the two cylinders amount together to a total of 1000 sq. ft., of which about 40% is heated by exhaust steam from a boiler. There is only one air-pump, which is made large for these machines; it is horizontal, and has only one air-cylinder, acting, 1 $\frac{3}{4}$ " in. diam. and 1 $\frac{3}{4}$ " in. stroke; and it is driven at 100 revs. per min. As the result of about eight months' experience, the machines have been drying the wet grains from about 500 cwt. of malt at a time.

For example, 3 cwt. of malt gave 4 cwt. of wet grains, and the latter dried grains; 500 cwt. of malt will therefore yield about 670 cwt. of dried grains, or 335 cwt. per machine. The quantity of water to be evaporated from the wet grains is from 75% to 78% of their total weight, or 335 cwt. altogether, being 335 cwt. per machine.

RADIATION OF HEAT.

Heat takes place between bodies at all distances apart, and is propagated by the radiation of light. The rays proceed in straight lines, and the intensity of the rays from any one source varies inversely as the square of their distance.

It has been erroneously interpreted by some writers, who have supposed that a boiler placed two feet above a fire would receive only one-fourth as much heat as if it were only one foot above the fire. In furnaces the side walls reflect those rays that are reflected in an angle—following the law of optics, that the angle of incidence is equal to the angle of reflection,—with the result that the intensity of the rays above the fire is practically the same as at one foot above, and one-fourth as much.

A hotter body radiates heat, and a colder body absorbs heat. The rate of radiation and of absorption are increased by the roughness of the surfaces of the bodies, and diminished by the smoothness and polish. For this reason the covering of steam pipes and of boiler furnaces should be smooth and of a light color; uncovered pipes and steam pipes should be polished.

The amount of heat radiated by a body is also a measure of its heat capacity, under the same circumstances. When a polished body is exposed to heat, it absorbs part of the heat and reflects the rest. The power of a body is therefore the complement of its absorbing power. The power is the same as its radiating power.

The radiating and reflecting power of different bodies has been determined by experiment, as shown in the table below, but as far as quantities concerned, says Prof. Trowbridge (Johnson's Cyclopædia), it is doubtful whether anything further than the said relative quantities, in the present state of our knowledge, be depended on. For absolute quantities for different temperatures being still in question, authorities do not even agree on the relative radiating power. Leslie gives for tin plate, gold, silver, and copper the figure 1, 2, 3, and 4, respectively, considerably from the figures in the table below, given by Leslie, on the authority of Leslie, De La Provostaye and Desormes.

Relative Radiating and Reflecting Power of Different Substances.

	Radiating or Absorbing Power.	Reflecting Power.		Radiating or Absorbing Power.	Reflecting.
Lampblack	100	0	Zinc, polished.	19	82
Water	100	0	Steel, polished	17	82
Carbonate of lead. . .	100	0	Platinum, polished..	24	76
Writing-paper	98	2	" in sheet ..	17	83
Ivory, jet, marble. . .	93 to 98	7 to 2	Tin	15	85
Ordinary glass.	90	10	Brass, cast, dead		
Ice	85	15	polished	11	88
Gum lac	72	28	Brass, bright pol-		
Silver-leaf on glass. .	27	73	ished	7	93
Cast iron, bright pol-			Copper, varnished ..	14	86
ished	25	75	" hammered..	7	93
Mercury, about.	23	77	Gold, plated	5	95
Wrought iron, pol-			" on polished		
ished.	23	77	steel	3	97
			Silver, polished		
			bright	3	97

Experiments of Dr. A. M. Mayer give the following: The relative ratios from a cube of cast iron, having faces rough, as from the foundry planed, "drawfiled," and polished, and from the same surfaces oiled, as below (Prof. Thurston, in Trans. A. S. M. E., vol. xvi.):

Surface.	Oiled.	Dry.
Rough	100	100
Planed	60	32
Drawfiled	49	20
Polished	45	18

It here appears that the oiling of smoothly polished castings, as of cylinder-heads of steam-engines, more than doubles the loss of heat by radiation while it does not seriously affect rough castings.

CONDUCTION AND CONVECTION OF HEAT.

Conduction is the transfer of heat between two bodies or parts of a body which touch each other. Internal conduction takes place between parts of one continuous body, and external conduction through the surface of contact of a pair of distinct bodies.

The rate at which conduction, whether internal or external, goes on, being proportional to the area of the section or surface through which it takes place, may be expressed in thermal units per square foot of area per hour.

Internal Conduction varies with the *heat conductivity*, which depends upon the nature of the substance, and is directly proportional to the difference between the temperatures of the two faces of a layer, and inversely as its thickness. The reciprocal of the conductivity is called *internal thermal resistance* of the substance. If r represents this resistance, x the thickness of the layer in inches, T' and T the temperatures on the faces, and q the quantity in thermal units transmitted per hour per sq

foot of area, $q = \frac{T' - T}{rx}$. (Rankine.)

Péclet gives the following values of r :

Gold, platinum, silver.	0.0016	Lead	0.0016
Copper	0.0018	Marble	0.0018
Iron	0.0043	Brick	0.0043
Zinc	0.0043		

Relative Heat-conducting Power of Metals.

(* Calvert & Johnson; † Weidemann & Franz)

Silver = 1000.

	*C. & J.	†W. & F.	Metals.	*C. & J.	†W. & F.
.....	1000	1000	Cadmium	577
1% of	981	532	Wrought iron	436	119
.....	840	Tin	422	145
.....	845	736	Steel	397	116
.....	811	Platinum	380	84
.....	677	Sodium	365
.....	412	Cast iron	259
.....	665	Lead	287	85
.....	641	Antimony :		
.....	628	cast horizontally	215
.....	608	cast vertically	192
			Bismuth	61	18

Relative Conducting Power of a Non-metallic Substance in Combination on the Conducting Power of a Metal.

Carbon on iron :	Influence of arsenic on copper :
..... 436	Cast copper
..... 397	Copper with 1% of arsenic
..... 359	" with .5% of arsenic
	" with .25% of arsenic

Steam-pipe Coverings.

by Prof. Ordway, Trans. A. S. M. E., v. 73; also Circular No. 27 of Boston Mfrs. Mutual Fire Ins. Co., 1890.)

observed that several of the incombustible materials are nearly wool, cotton, and feathers, with which they may be compared in the following table. The materials which may be considered wholly safe are printed in Roman type. Those which are more or less dangerous are printed in italics.

TABLE I.

1/2 inch thick. Heat applied, 310° F.	Pounds of Water heated 10° F. per hour, through 1 square foot.	Solid Matter in 1 square foot 1 inch thick, parts in 1000.	Air included, parts in 1000.
<i>Feathers</i>	8.1	56	944
<i>Wool</i>	9.6	50	950
<i>Cotton wool</i>	10.4	20	980
.....	10.3	185	615
<i>Asphalt</i>	9.8	56	944
<i>Oil lampblack</i>	10.6	244	756
<i>Coal</i>	11.9	53	947
<i>Charcoal</i>	13.9	119	881
<i>Soft coal powder</i>	35.7	506	494
<i>Finely magnesia</i>	12.4	23	977
<i>Calcined magnesia</i>	42.6	285	715
<i>Sonate of magnesia</i>	13.7	60	940
<i>Silicate of magnesia</i>	15.4	150	850
<i>Sil-meal</i>	14.5	60	940
<i>Coal-meal</i>	15.7	112	888
<i>Plaster of Paris (Paris white)</i>	30.6	253	688
<i>Plaster of Paris</i>	30.9	268	677
<i>Plaster of Paris</i>	49.0	27	973
.....	45.0		
.....	62.1		

TABLE II.

Covering.	Pounds of heated water per hour 1 square
21. Best slag-wool.....	13.
22. Paper.....	14.
23. Blotting-paper wound tight.....	21.
24. Asbestos paper wound tight.....	21.
25. Cork strips bound on.....	14.
26. Straw rope wound spirally.....	18.
27. Loose rice chaff.....	18.
28. Paste of fossil-meal with hair.....	16.
29. Paste of fossil-meal with asbestos.....	22.
30. Loose bituminous-coal ashes.....	27.
31. Loose anthracite-coal ashes.....	27.
32. Paste of clay and vegetable fibre.....	30.

Professor Ordway's report says: Careful experiments have been made with various non-conductors, each used in a mass one inch thick, placed on a flat surface of iron kept heated by steam to 310° Fahr. Table I gives the amount of heat transmitted per hour through each kind of non-conductor one inch thick, reckoned in pounds of water heated 10° Fahr., the unit being one square foot of covering.

The substances given in Table II were actually tried as coverings on a two-inch steam-pipe, but for convenience of comparison the results have been reduced by calculation to the same terms as in Table I.

Later experiments have given results for still air which differ little from those of Nos. 3, 4, and 6. In fact the bulk of matter in the best non-conductors is relatively too small to have any specific effect, except to entrap the air and keep it stagnant. These substances keep the air still by virtue of the roughness of their fibres or particles. The asbestos, No. 18, had very fine fibres, which could not prevent the air from moving about.

Later trials with an asbestos of exceedingly fine fibre have made a somewhat better showing, but asbestos is really one of the poorest non-conductors. By reason of its fibrous character it may be used advantageously to hold together other incombustible substances, but the less the better. We have made trials of two samples of a "magnesia covering," composed of carbonate of magnesia with a small percentage of good asbestos. One transmitted heat which, reduced to the terms of Table I, would amount to 15 lbs.; the denser one gave 30 lbs. The former contained 20% of solid matter; the latter 396/1000.

Any suitable substance which is used to prevent the escape of steam, heat should not be less than one inch thick.

Any covering should be kept perfectly dry, for not only is water a poor carrier of heat, but it has been found that still water conducts heat eight times as rapidly as still air.

Heat-conducting Power of Covering Materials.

(J. J. Coleman, *Eng'g*, Sept. 5, 1884, p. 237.)

Experiments were made by filling a 10-in. cube with ice, surrounded with the different materials to be tested, and noting the quantity melted per hour with each insulator.

The relative results were as follows:

Silicate cotton (mineral wool)...	100	Charcoal.....
Hair felt.....	117	Sawdust.....
Cotton wool.....	122	Gas-works breeze.....
Sheep's wool.....	136	Wood and air-space.....
Infusorial earth.....	136		

The Rate of External Conduction through the boundary face between a solid body and a fluid is approximately proportional to the difference of temperature, when that is small; but when that difference is considerable the rate of conduction increases faster than the simple proportion to that difference. (Rankine.)

If r , as before, is the coefficient of internal thermal resistance, e and e' the coefficient of external resistance of the two surfaces, x the thickness of the plate, and T' and T the temperatures of the two fluids in contact with the two surfaces, the total thermal resistance is $q = \frac{T' - T}{e + e' + rx}$. According to

Péclet, $e + e' = \frac{1}{A[1 + B(T' - T)]}$, in which the constants A and B have the following values :

B for polished metallic surfaces	0028
B for rough metallic surfaces and for non-metallic surfaces. . .	0037
A for polished metals, about	90
A for glassy and varnished surfaces.....	1.34
A for dull metallic surfaces	1.58
A for lamp-black	1.78

When a metal plate has a liquid at each side of it, it appears from experiments by Péclet that $B = .058$, $A = 8.8$.

The results of experiments on the evaporative power of boilers agree very well with the following approximate formula for the thermal resistance of boiler plates and tubes :

$$e + e' = \frac{a}{(T' - T)},$$

which gives for the rate of conduction, per square foot of surface per hour,

$$q = \frac{(T' - T)^2}{a}.$$

This formula is proposed by Rankine as a rough approximation, near enough to the truth for its purpose. The value of a lies between 160 and 200.

Convection, or carrying of heat, means the transfer and diffusion of the heat in a fluid mass by means of the motion of the particles of that mass.

The conduction, properly so called, of heat through a stagnant mass of fluid is very slow in liquids, and almost, if not wholly, inappreciable in gases. It is only by the continual circulation and mixture of the particles of the fluid that uniformity of temperature can be maintained in the fluid mass, or heat transferred between the fluid mass and a solid body.

The free circulation of each of the fluids which touch the side of a solid plate is a necessary condition of the correctness of Rankine's formulæ for the conduction of heat through that plate; and in these formulæ it is implied that the circulation of each of the fluids by currents and eddies is such as to prevent any considerable difference of temperature between the fluid particles in contact with one side of the solid plate and those at considerable distances from it.

When heat is to be transferred by convection from one fluid to another, through an intervening layer of metal, the motions of the two fluid masses should, if possible, be in opposite directions, in order that the hottest particles of each fluid may be in communication with the hottest particles of the other, and that the minimum difference of temperature between the adjacent particles of the two fluids may be the greatest possible.

Thus, in the surface condensation of steam, by passing it through metal tubes immersed in a current of cold water or air, the cooling fluid should be made to move in the opposite direction to the condensing steam.

Transmission of Heat, through Solid Plates, from Water to Water. (Clark, S.E.).—M. Péclet found, from experiments

made with plates of wrought iron, cast iron, copper, lead, zinc, and tin, that when the fluid in contact with the surface of the plate was not circulated by artificial means, the rate of conduction was the same for different metals and for plates of the same metal of different thicknesses. But when the water was thoroughly circulated over the surfaces, and when these were perfectly clean, the quantity of transmitted heat was inversely proportional to the thickness, and directly as the difference in temperature of the two faces of the plate. When the metal surface became dull, the rate of transmission of heat through all the metals was very nearly the same.

It follows, says Clark, that the absorption of heat through metal plates is more active whilst evaporation is in progress—when the circulation of the water is more active—than while the water is being heated up to the boiling point.

Transmission from Steam to Water.—M. Pécolet's prin supported by the results of experiments made in 1867 by Mr. Islers the conductivity of different metals. Cylindrical pots, 10 inches in d 21¼ inches deep inside, and ¼ inch, ½ inch, and ¾ inch thick, tur bored, were formed of pure copper, brass (60 copper and 40 zinc wrought iron, and remelted cast iron. They were immersed in bath, which was varied from 220° to 330° F. Water at 21-2° was su the pots, which were kept filled. It was ascertained that the rate of tion was in the direct ratio of the difference of the temperatures it outside of the pots; that is, that the rate of evaporation per d difference of temperatures was the same for all temperatures; and rate of evaporation was exactly the same for different thickness metal. The respective rates of conductivity of the several metal follows, expressed in weight of water evaporated from and at 2 square foot of the interior surface of the pots per degree of diff temperature per hour, together with the equivalent quantities of h

	Water at 213°.	Heat-units.	Re
Copper.....	.665 lb.	642.5	1
Brass.....	.577 "	556.8	
Wrought iron.....	.387 "	373.6	
Cast iron.....	.327 "	315.7	

Whitham, "Steam Engine Design," p. 283, also Trans. A. S. M. E. using these data in deriving a formula for surface condensers c figures those of perfect conductivity, and multiplies them by a c C, which he takes at 0.333, to obtain the efficiency of condenser ordinary use, i. e., coated with saline and greasy deposits.

Transmission of Heat from Steam to Water t Coils of Iron Pipe.—H. G. C. Kopp and F. J. Meystre (*Stea cator*, Jan., 1894), give an account of some experiments on tran heat through coils of pipe. They collate the results of earlier ex as follows, for comparison:

Experimenter.	Character of Surface.	Steam Con- densed per Square foot per degree differ- ence of temper- ature per hour.		Heat trans- mitted per square foot per degree differ- ence of temper- ature per hour.		Rem
		Heating, pounds.	Evapo- rating, pounds.	Heating, B. T. U.	Evapo- rating, B. T. U.	
Laurens	Copper coils...	.292	.981	315	974	} Steam = 100 } Steam = 10.
"	2 Copper coils...	1.20	1130	
Havrez.	Copper coil...	.268	1.26	280	1200	
Perkins.	Iron coil.....34	215	
"	" ".....32	208.2	
Box.....	Iron tube....	.235	230	
"	" ".....	.196	207	
"	" ".....	.206	210	
Havrez.	Cast-iron boil- er.....	.077	.105	82	100	

From the above it would appear that the efficiency of iron surfa than that of copper coils, plate surfaces being far inferior.

In all experiments made up to the present time, it appears that temperature of the condensing water was allowed to rise, a mean be al and final temperatures being accepted as the effective ten as the water becomes warmer it circulates more rapidly, theref ing the coil to become agitated and replaced more heat to be transmitted.

Again, in accepting the mean temperature as that of the condensing medium, the assumption is made that the rate of condensation is in direct proportion to the temperature of the condensing water.

In order to correct and avoid any error arising from these assumptions and approximations, experiments were undertaken, in which all the conditions were constant during each test.

The pressure was maintained uniform throughout the coil, and provision was made for the free outflow of the condensed steam, in order to obtain at all times the full efficiency of the condensing surface. The condensing water was continually stirred to secure uniformity of temperature, which was regulated by means of a steam-pipe and a cold-water pipe entering the tank in which the coil was placed.

The following is a condensed statement of the results

HEAT TRANSMITTED PER SQUARE FOOT OF COOLING SURFACE, PER DEGREE OF DIFFERENCE OF TEMPERATURE. (British Thermal Units.)

Temperature of Condensing Water.	1-in. Iron Pipe; Steam inside, 60 lbs. Gauge Pressure.	1½ in. Pipe; Steam inside, 10 lbs. Pressure.	1½ in. Pipe; Steam inside, 10 lbs. Pressure.	1½ in. Pipe; Steam inside, 60 lbs. Pressure.
80	265	128	200
100	269	130	230	239
120	272	137	260	247
140	277	145	267	276
160	281	158	271	306
180	299	174	270	349
200	313	419

The results indicate that the heat transmitted per degree of difference of temperature in general increases as the temperature of the condensing water is increased.

The amount transmitted is much larger with the steam on the outside of the coil than with the steam inside the coil. This may be explained in part by the fact that the condensing water when inside the coil flows over the surface of conduction very rapidly, and is more efficient for cooling than when contained in a tank outside of the coil.

This result is in accordance with that found by Mr. Thomas Craddock, which indicated that the rate of cooling by transmission of heat through metallic surfaces was almost wholly dependent on the rate of circulation of the cooling medium over the surface to be cooled.

Transmission of Heat in Condenser Tubes. (*Eng'g.*, Dec. 10, 1875, p. 449.)—In 1874 B. C. Nichol made experiments for determining the rate at which heat was transmitted through a condenser tube. The results went to show that the amount of heat transmitted through the walls of the tube per estimated degree of mean difference of temperature increased considerably with this difference. For example:

Estimated mean difference of temperature between inside and outside of tube, degrees Fahr. . .	Vertical Tube.		Horizontal Tube			
	128	151.9	152.9	111.6	146.2	150.4
Heat-units transmitted per hour per square foot of surface per degree of mean diff. of temp. . . .	422	531	561	610	737	823

These results seem to throw doubt upon Mr. Isherwood's statement that the rate of evaporation per degree of difference of temperature is the same for all temperatures.

Mr. Thomas Craddock found that water was enormously more efficient than air for the abstraction of heat through metallic surfaces in the process of cooling. He proved that the rate of cooling by transmission of heat through metallic surfaces depends upon the rate of circulation of the cooling medium over the surface to be cooled. A tube filled with hot water, moved by rapid rotation at the rate of 59 ft. per second, through air, lost as much heat in one minute as it did in still air in 12 minutes. In water, at a velocity of 3 ft. per second, as much heat was abstracted in half a minute as was abstracted in one minute when it was at rest in the water. Mr. Craddock concluded, further, that the circulation of the cooling fluid became

greater importance as the difference of temperature on the two sides of the plate became less. (Clark, R. T. D., p. 461.)

Heat Transmission through Cast-iron Plates Placed in Nitric Acid.—Experiments by R. C. Carpenter (Trans. A. S. M. E., 179) show a marked change in the conducting power of the plate (as compared with steam to water), due to prolonged treatment with dilute nitric acid.

The action of the nitric acid, by dissolving the free iron and not the carbon, forms a protecting surface to the iron, which is largely composed of carbon. The following is a summary of results:

Character of Plates, each plate 8.4 in. by 5.4 in., exposed surface 27 sq. ft.	Increase in Temperature of 3.125 lbs. of Water each Minute.	Proportionate Thermal Units Transmitted for each Degree of Difference of Temperature per Square Foot per Hour.
Cast iron—untreated skin on, but clean, free from rust.	13.90	113.2
Cast iron—nitric acid, 1% sol., 9 days.	11.5	97.7
“ “ 1% sol., 18 days.	9.7	80.08
“ “ 1% sol., 40 days.	9.6	77.8
“ “ 5% sol., 9 days.	9.93	87.0
“ “ 5% sol., 40 days.	10.6	77.4
Plate of pine wood, same dimensions as the plate of cast iron.	0.33	1.9

The effect of covering cast-iron surfaces with varnish has been investigated by P. M. Chamberlain. He subjected the plate to the action of nitric acid for a few hours, and then applied a non-conducting varnish. The plate was treated. Some of his results are as follows:

Heat units per sq. ft. per hour, for each degree.	Condition
170.	As finished—greasy.
152.	“ “ washed with benzine and dried.
169.	Oiled with lubricating oil.
162.	After exposure to nitric acid sixteen hours, then seed oil.)
166.	After exposure to hydrochloric acid twelve hours, (linseed oil.)
113.	After exposure to sulphuric acid 1, water 2, for
117.	then oiled, varnished, and allowed to dry for 24

Transmission of Heat through Solid Plates for or other Dry Gases to Water.

(From Clark on the Steam) —The law of the transmission of heat from hot air or other gases through metallic plates, has not been exactly determined by experiment. The general results of experiments on the evaporative action of portions of the heating surface of a steam boiler point to the fact that the quantity of heat transmitted per degree difference of temperature is practically uniform for various differences of temperature.

The communication of heat from the gas to the plate surface is accelerated by mechanical impingement of the gaseous products on the surface.

Clark says that when the surfaces are perfectly clean, the rate of transmission of heat through plates of metal from air or gas to water is for copper, next for brass, and next for wrought iron. But when the surfaces are dimmed or coated, the rate is the same for the different metals.

With respect to the influence of the conductivity of metals and the thickness of the plate on the transmission of heat from burnt gas to water, Mr. Napier made experiments with small boilers of iron and copper placed over a gas-flame. The vessels were 5 inches in diameter and 6 inches deep. From three vessels, one of iron, one of copper, and one of brass, each of them 1/30 inch in thickness, equal in size of surface, were evaporated to dryness, in the times as follows:

Iron Vessel.	Copper Vessel.	Iron and Copper Vessel.
19 minutes	18.5 minutes
33 "	30.75 "
50 "	44 "
35.7 "	36.83 minutes.

essels of iron sides 1/30 inch thick, one having a 1/4-inch copper or other a 1/4-inch lead bottom, were tested against the iron vessel, 1/30 inch thick. Equal quantities of water were evaporated, and 53 1/2 minutes respectively. Taken generally, the results of experiments show that there are practically but slight differences between copper, and lead in evaporative activity, and that the activity is increased by the thickness of the bottom.

Johnson formed a like conclusion from the results of his observations on boilers of 160 horse-power each, made exactly alike, excepting iron flue-tubes and the other copper flue-tubes. No difference was detected between the performances of these boilers.

The differences between the results of different experimenters are attributed to the difference of conditions under which the heat was transmitted, whether between water or steam and water, and between gaseous water and air. On one point the divergence is extreme: the rate of heat per degree of difference of temperature. Whilst from 100 to 150 degrees of heat are transmitted from water to water through iron plates of one inch of difference per square foot per hour, the quantity of heat transmitted between water and air, or other dry gas, is only about one-fifth as much, according as the surrounding air is at rest or in movement. In a boiler, where radiant heat was brought into play, 17 units of heat were transmitted through the plates of the fire-box per degree of difference of temperature per square foot per hour.

Loss of Heat through Plates and Tubes from Water to Air.—The transfer of heat from steam or water to a plate or tube into the surrounding air is a complex operation, depending on the internal and external conductivity of the metal, the radiation from the surface, and the convection of heat in the surrounding air.

Since the quantity of heat radiated from a surface is determined by the condition of the surface and with the surroundings, according to the law of radiation, and since the heat carried away by convection is determined by the rate of the flow of the air over the surface, it is evident that the loss of heat can be laid down for the total quantity of heat emitted.

This subject is condensed from an article on Loss of Heat from Steam-boilers, *Locomotive*, Sept. and Oct., 1892.

A steam-pipe is radiating heat constantly off into space, but at the same time is cooling also by convection. Experimental data on which to base calculations of the heat radiated and otherwise lost by steam-pipes are at present very meagre and unsatisfactory.

In the *Practical Treatise on Heat* a number of results are given for the heat radiated by different substances when the temperature of the air is lower than the temperature of the radiating body. A table is given below. It is said to be based on Péciot's ex-

RADIATED PER HOUR, PER SQUARE FOOT OF SURFACE, FOR 1° FAHRENHEIT EXCESS IN TEMPERATURE.

Sheet-iron, ordinary.....	.0327	Sheet-iron, ordinary.....	5662
Glass.....	.0440	Glass.....	5948
Cast iron, polished.....	.0491	Cast iron, new.....	6480
Common steam-pipe, polished.....	.0858	Common steam-pipe, inferred.....	6400
Cast and sheet iron, rusted.....	.0920	Cast and sheet iron, rusted.....	6868
Wood, building stone, and brick.....	.1329	Wood, building stone, and brick.....	7353

periments. The temperature of the air is about 50° or 60° Fahr., and the radiating surface is more than about 30° hotter than the air, we may calculate the amount of heat given off from a given surface by assuming the amount of heat given off in a given time to be proportional to the difference in temperature between the radiating body and the air. This is "Newton's law of cooling." The difference in temperature is great, Newton's law does not hold, and the radiation is no longer proportional to the difference in temperature. It can be calculated by a complex formula established experimentally, and Feltz and Feltz has computed a table from this formula which facilitates its application, and which is given below:

FACTORS FOR REDUCTION TO DULONG'S LAW OF RADIATION

Differences in Temperature between Radiating Body and the Air.	Temperature of the Air on the Fahrenheit									
	32°	50°	59°	68°	80°	104°	122°	140°	158°	176°
Deg. Fahr.										
18	1.00	1.07	1.12	1.16	1.25	1.36	1.47	1.58	1.70	1.8
36	1.03	1.08	1.16	1.21	1.30	1.40	1.52	1.68	1.76	1.9
54	1.07	1.16	1.30	1.35	1.35	1.45	1.58	1.70	1.83	1.9
72	1.12	1.20	1.35	1.30	1.40	1.52	1.64	1.76	1.90	2.0
90	1.16	1.25	1.31	1.36	1.46	1.58	1.71	1.84	1.98	2.1
108	1.21	1.31	1.36	1.42	1.52	1.65	1.78	1.92	2.07	2.2
126	1.26	1.36	1.42	1.48	1.50	1.72	1.86	2.00	2.16	2.3
144	1.32	1.42	1.48	1.54	1.65	1.79	1.94	2.08	2.24	2.4
162	1.37	1.48	1.54	1.60	1.73	1.86	2.02	2.17	2.34	2.5
180	1.44	1.55	1.61	1.68	1.81	1.95	2.11	2.27	2.46	2.6
198	1.50	1.62	1.69	1.75	1.89	2.04	2.21	2.38	2.56	2.7
216	1.58	1.69	1.76	1.83	1.97	2.13	2.32	2.48	2.68	2.9
234	1.64	1.77	1.84	1.90	2.06	2.23	2.43	2.52	2.80	3.0
252	1.71	1.85	1.92	2.00	2.15	2.33	2.52	2.71	2.92	3.1
270	1.79	1.93	2.01	2.09	2.22	2.44	2.64	2.84	3.06	3.3
288	1.89	2.03	2.12	2.20	2.37	2.56	2.78	2.99	3.22	3.5
306	1.98	2.13	2.22	2.31	2.49	2.69	2.90	3.12	3.37	3.6
324	2.07	2.23	2.33	2.42	2.62	2.81	3.04	3.28	3.53	3.8
342	2.17	2.34	2.44	2.54	2.73	2.95	3.19	3.44	3.70	4.0
360	2.27	2.45	2.56	2.66	2.86	3.09	3.35	3.60	3.88	4.2
378	2.39	2.57	2.68	2.79	3.00	3.24	3.51	3.78	4.08	4.4
396	2.50	2.70	2.81	2.93	3.15	3.40	3.68	3.97	4.28	4.6
414	2.63	2.84	2.95	3.07	3.31	3.51	3.87	4.12	4.48	4.8
432	2.76	2.98	3.10	3.23	3.47	3.76	4.10	4.32	4.61	5.1

The loss of heat by *convection* appears to be independent of the surface, that is, it is the same for iron, stone, wood, and other. It is different for bodies of different shape, however, and it varies with the position of the body. Thus a vertical steam-pipe will not lose so much by convection as a horizontal one will; for the air heated at the top of the vertical pipe will rise along the surface of the pipe, protecting it to some extent from the chilling action of the surrounding cooler air. For a similar reason the shape of a body has an important influence on the loss of heat; those bodies losing most heat whose forms are such as to allow it free access to every part of their surface. The following table gives the number of heat units that horizontal cylinders or pipes lose by convection per square foot of surface per hour, for one degree difference of temperature between the pipe and the air.

HEAT UNITS LOST BY CONVECTION FROM HORIZONTAL PIPES, PER SQUARE FOOT OF SURFACE PER HOUR, FOR A TEMPERATURE DIFFERENCE OF 1° FAHR.

External Diameter of Pipe in inches.	Heat Units Lost.	External Diameter of Pipe in inches.	Heat Units Lost.	External Diameter of Pipe in inches.	Heat Units Lost.
2	0.728	7	0.509	18	0.482
3	0.626	8	0.498	24	0.489
4	0.574	9	0.489	30	0.482
5	0.544	10	0.482	48	0.473
6	0.533	12	0.473

Convection is nearly proportional to the surface of the hot body and the air; but the exact

and Péclet show that this is not exactly true, and we may here also give a table of factors for correcting the results obtained by simple convection.

FACTORS FOR REDUCTION TO DULONG'S LAW OF CONVECTION.

Temperature of Hot Body and Air.	Factor.	Difference in Temp. between Hot Body and Air.	Factor.	Difference between Hot Body and Air.	Factor.
F.	0.94	180° F.	1.62	342° F.	1.87
	1.11	198°	1.65	360°	1.90
	1.22	216°	1.68	378°	1.93
	1.30	234°	1.73	396°	1.94
	1.37	252°	1.74	414°	1.96
	1.43	270°	1.77	432°	1.98
	1.49	288°	1.80	450°	2.00
	1.53	306°	1.83	468°	2.02
	1.58	324°	1.85

EXAMPLE IN THE USE OF THE TABLES.—Required the total loss of heat by radiation and convection, per foot of length of a steam-pipe 2 11/32 inch diameter, steam pressure 60 lbs., temperature of the air in the room 68° Fahr.

Temperature corresponding to 60 lbs. equals 307°; temperature difference between steam and air = 239°.

Factor for one foot length of steam-pipe = 2 11/32 × 3.1416 ÷ 12 = 0.614 sq. ft. radiated per hour per square foot per degree of difference, from table.

Heat loss per hour by Newton's law = 239° × .614 ft. × .64 = 93.9 heat units. Same reduced to conform with Dulong's law of radiation: factor for temperature difference of 239° and temperature of air 68° = .9 × 1.93 = 181.2 heat units, total loss by radiation.

Heat loss per square foot per hour from a 2 11/32-inch pipe: by inference from table, 3'' = .728, 3 1/2'' = .626, 2 11/32'' = .693.

Heat loss per square foot per hour = .614 × .693 × 239° = 101.7 heat units. Same reduced to conform with Dulong's law of convection: 101.7 × 1.73 (from table) = 175.9 heat units per square foot. Total loss by radiation and convection = 181.2 + 175.9 = 357.1 heat units per hour. Loss per degree of difference of temperature per linear foot of pipe per hour = 357.1 ÷ 239 = 1.494 heat units = 2.433 per sq. ft. of surface.

As is claimed, says *The Locomotive*, that the results obtained by this method of calculation are strictly accurate. The experimental data are not sufficient to allow us to compute the heat-loss from steam-pipes with any great degree of refinement; yet it is believed that the results obtained as above will be sufficiently near the truth for most purposes. An experiment made by Prof. Ordway, in a pipe 2 11/32 in. diam. under the above conditions (Trans. A. S. M. E., v. 73), showed a condensation of steam of 181.5 lbs. per hour, which is equivalent to a loss of heat of 358.7 heat units per hour, or within half of one per cent of that given by the above calculation.

According to different authorities, the quantity of heat given off by steam radiators in ordinary practice of heating of buildings by radiation varies from 1.8 to about 3 heat units per hour per square foot per degree of difference of temperature.

The best figure is calculated from the following statement by Robert Nason in his paper on "American Practice in Warming Buildings" (Proc. Inst. C. E., 1882, vol. lxxi): "Each 100 sq. ft. of radiator will give off 3 Fahr. heat units per minute for each degree F. of temperature between the radiating surface and the air in which it is used."

Under these conditions, 2 1/2 heat units is given by the Nason Manufacturing Co. catalogue, and 2 to 2 1/4 are given by many recent catalogues. For ordinary temperature difference in low-pressure steam heating, 70° = 140° F., 1 lb. steam condensed from 215

same temperature gives up 965.7 heat units. A loss of 2 heat units per ft. per hour per degree of difference, under these conditions, is equal to $2 \times 142 \div 965 = 0.3$ lbs. of steam condensed per hour per sq. ft. of heat surface. (See also Heating and Ventilation.)

Transmission of Heat through Walls, etc., of Buildings (Nason Manufacturing Co.). (See also Heating and Ventilation.)—It has the remarkable property of passing through moderate thicknesses of and gases without appreciable loss, so that air is not warmed by rad heat, but by contact with surfaces that have absorbed the radiation.

POWERS OF DIFFERENT SUBSTANCES FOR TRANSMITTING HEAT.

Window-glass	1000	Bricks, rough.....	200 to
Oak or walnut.....	66	Bricks, whitewashed.....	200
White pine	80	Granite or slate.....
Pitch-pine	100	Sheet iron.....	1030 to 1
Lath or plaster	75 to 100		

A square foot of glass will cool 1.379 cubic feet of air from the temperature inside to that outside per minute, and outside wall surface is generally estimated at one fifth of the rate of glass in cooling effect.

Box, in his "Practical Treatise on Heat," gives a table of the conducting powers of materials prepared from the experiments of Pécelet. It gives a quantity of heat in units transmitted per square foot per hour by a plate an inch in thickness, the two surfaces differing in temperature 1 degree:

Fine-grained gray marble.....	28.00
Coarse-grained white marble.....	22.4
Stone, calcareous, fine.....	16.7
Stone, calcareous, ordinary.....	13.66
Baked clay, brickwork.....	4.83
Brick-dust, sifted.....	1.37

Hood, in his "Warming and Ventilating of Buildings," p. 349, gives results of M. Depretz, which, placing the conducting power of marble at 1 give .488 as the value for firebrick.

THERMODYNAMICS.

Thermodynamics, the science of heat considered as a form of energy, is useful in advanced studies of the theory of steam, gas, and engines, refrigerating machines, compressed air, etc. The method of treatment adopted by the standard writers is severely mathematical, involving constant application of the calculus. The student will find the subject thoroughly treated in the recent works by Rontgen (Dubois's translation), Wood, and Peabody.

First Law of Thermodynamics.—Heat and mechanical energy are mutually convertible in the ratio of about 778 foot-pounds for the British thermal unit. (Wood.) Heat is the living force or *vis viva* due to certain molecular motions of the molecules of bodies, and this living force may be stated or measured in units of heat or in foot-pounds, a unit of heat, British measures being equivalent to 772 [778] foot-pounds. (Trowbridge, Trans. A. S. M. E., vii. 737.)

Second Law of Thermodynamics.—The second law has by different writers been stated in a variety of ways, and apparently with aim so diverse as not to cover a common principle. (Wood, Therm., p. 386.)

It is impossible for a self-acting machine, unaided by any external agent, to convert heat from one body to another at a higher temperature. (Clausius.)

If all the heat absorbed be at one temperature, and that rejected be at one lower temperature, then will the heat which is transmuted into work be to the entire heat absorbed in the same ratio as the difference between the absolute temperature of the source and refrigerator is to the absolute temperature of the source. In other words, the second law is an expression of the efficiency of the perfect elementary engine. (Wood.)

The living force, or *vis viva*, of a body (called heat) is always proportional to the absolute temperature of the body. (Trowbridge.)

The expression $\frac{Q_1 - Q_2}{Q_1} = \frac{T_1 - T_2}{T_1}$ may be called the *symbolical or algebraic enunciation* of the second law,—the law which limits the efficiency of heat engines, and which does not depend on the nature of the working medium. (Trowbridge.) Q_1 and $T_1 =$ quantity and absolute

of the heat received, Q_2 and T_2 = quantity and absolute temperature of the heat rejected.

fraction $\frac{T_1 - T_2}{T_1}$ represents the efficiency of a perfect heat engine which receives all its heat at the absolute temperature T_1 , and rejects heat at the absolute temperature T_2 , converting into work the difference between the heat received and rejected.

—What is the efficiency of a perfect heat engine which receives heat at 300° F. (the temperature of steam of 300 lbs. gauge pressure) and rejects heat at 100° F. (temperature of a condenser, pressure 1 lb. above

$$\frac{388 + 459.2 - (100 + 459.2)}{388 + 459.2} = 34\%, \text{ nearly.}$$

Such an engine this efficiency can never be attained, for the difference between the quantity of heat received into the cylinder and that rejected into the condenser is not all converted into work, much of it being lost by leakage, etc. In the steam engine the phenomenon of cylinder condensation also tends to reduce the efficiency.

PHYSICAL PROPERTIES OF GASES.

For further matter on this subject will be found under Heat, Air, Gas, and

A mass of gas is enclosed in a vessel it exerts a pressure against the vessel walls. This pressure is uniform on every square inch of the surface of the vessel, and at any point in the fluid mass the pressure is the same in every direction. In vessels containing gases the increase of pressure due to weight is neglected, since all gases are very light; but where liquids are concerned the increase in pressure due to their weight must always be taken into account.

Boyle's Law, Mariotte's Law.—The volume of a gas varies in the same ratio as the pressure upon it is increased. This law is by experiment found to be very nearly true for all gases, and is known as Boyle's or Mariotte's law.

At a constant pressure at a volume v , and p_1 = pressure at a volume v_1 , $p_1 v_1 = p v$; $p v = a$ constant.

The constant, C , varies with the temperature, everything else remaining

constant. A gas compressed by a pressure of seventy-five atmospheres has a volume less than that computed from Boyle's law, but this is the greatest deviation that is found below 160 atmospheres pressure.

Charles's Law.—The volume of a perfect gas at a constant pressure varies directly as its absolute temperature. If v_0 be the volume of a gas at 32° F. and v_1 the volume at any other temperature, t_1 , then

$$v_1 = v_0 \left(\frac{t_1 + 459.2}{491.2} \right); \quad v_1 = \left(1 + \frac{t_1 - 32^\circ}{491.2} \right) v_0,$$

$$\text{or} \quad v_1 = [1 + 0.002036(t_1 - 32^\circ)] v_0.$$

The pressure also change from p_0 to p_1 ,

$$v_1 = v_0 \frac{p_0}{p_1} \left(\frac{t_1 + 459.2}{491.2} \right).$$

Densities of Gases and Vapors are simply proportional to their molecular weights.

Avogadro's Law.—Equal volumes of all gases, under the same conditions of temperature and pressure, contain the same number of molecules.

The weight of a gas in pounds per cubic foot at 32° F., multiply the molecular weight of the gas by .00559. Thus 1 cu. ft. marsh-gas, CH_4 ,

$$= \frac{12 + 4}{2} \times .00559 = .0447 \text{ lb.}$$

When a certain volume of hydrogen combines with one half its volume of oxygen, there is produced an amount of water vapor which will occupy the same volume as that which was occupied by the hydrogen gas when at the same temperature and pressure.

Saturation-point of Vapors.—A vapor that is not near the saturation-point behaves like a gas under changes of temperature and pressure, but if it is sufficiently compressed or cooled, it reaches a point where it begins to condense: it then no longer obeys the same laws as a gas. Its pressure cannot be increased by diminishing the size of the vessel enclosing it, but remains constant, except when the temperature is changed. Only gas that can prevent a liquid evaporating seems to be of this kind.

Dalton's Law of Gaseous Pressures.—Every portion of a gas enclosed in a vessel contributes to the pressure against the walls of the vessel the same amount that it would have exerted by itself if no other gas were present.

Mixtures of Vapors and Gases.—The pressure exerted by a mixture of gases in the interior of a vessel by a given quantity of a perfect gas enclosed is the sum of the pressures which any number of parts into which the mixture might be divided would exert separately, if each were enclosed in a vessel of the same bulk alone, at the same temperature. Although this law is not exactly true for any actual gas, it is very nearly true for many. For example, if 0.080728 lb. of air at 32° F., being enclosed in a vessel of one cubic foot capacity, exerts a pressure of one atmosphere or 14.7 pounds, on each square inch of the interior of the vessel, then will each additional 0.080728 lb. of any other gas which is enclosed, at 32°, in the same vessel, produce very nearly an additional atmospheric pressure. The same law is applicable to mixtures of gases of different kinds. For example, 0.12344 lb. of carbonic acid gas at 32°, being enclosed in a vessel of one cubic foot in capacity, exerts a pressure of one atmosphere; consequently, if 0.080728 lb. of air and 0.12344 lb. of carbonic acid, mixed, be enclosed at the temperature of 32°, in a vessel of one cubic foot of capacity, the mixture will exert a pressure of two atmospheres. As a second example: Let 0.080728 lb. of air, at 212°, be enclosed in a vessel of one cubic foot; it will exert a pressure of

$$\frac{212 + 459.2}{32 + 459.2} = 1.366 \text{ atmospheres.}$$

Let 0.03797 lb. of steam, at 212°, be enclosed in a vessel of one cubic foot; it will exert a pressure of one atmosphere. Consequently, if 0.080728 lb. of air and 0.03797 lb. of steam be mixed and enclosed together, at 212°, in a vessel of one cubic foot, the mixture will exert a pressure of 2.366 atmospheres. It is a common but erroneous practice, in elementary books on physics, to describe this law as constituting a difference between mixed and homogeneous gases; whereas it is obvious that for mixed and homogeneous gases the law of pressure is exactly the same, viz., that the pressure of the whole gaseous mass is the sum of the pressures of all its parts. This is one of the laws of mixture of gases and vapors.

A second law is that the presence of a foreign gaseous substance in contact with the surface of a solid or liquid does not affect the density of the vapor of that solid or liquid unless there is a tendency to chemical combination between the two substances, in which case the density of the vapor is slightly increased. (Rankine, S. E., p. 339.)

Flow of Gases.—By the principle of the conservation of energy it can be shown that the velocity with which a gas under pressure will escape from a vacuum is inversely proportional to the square root of its density. Thus, oxygen, which is sixteen times as heavy as hydrogen, would, under the same circumstances, escape through an opening only one fourth as fast as the latter gas.

Absorption of Gases by Liquids.—Many gases are readily absorbed by water. Other liquids also possess this power in a greater or less degree. Water will for example, absorb its own volume of carbonic acid gas, 430 times its volume of ammonia, $2\frac{1}{2}$ times its volume of chlorine, and about $\frac{1}{20}$ of its volume of oxygen.

The weight of gas that is absorbed by a given volume of liquid is proportional to the pressure. But as the volume of a mass of gas is less when the pressure is greater, the volume which a given amount of liquid can absorb at a certain temperature will be constant, whatever the pressure. For example, water can absorb its own volume of carbonic-acid gas at atmospheric pressure. If the pressure be increased to twice its former value, it will also dissolve its own volume if the pressure is increased to four times that in that case the gas will be twice as dense, and consequently only half as much of gas is dissolved.

AIR.

Composition of Air.—Air is a mechanical mixture of the gases oxygen 20.7 parts O and 79.3 parts N by volume, 23 parts O and 77 parts

of pure air at 32° F. and a barometric pressure of 29.92 inches 14.6963 lbs. per sq. in., or 2116.3 lbs. per sq. ft., is .080728 lb. per volume of 1 lb. = 12.387 cu. ft. At any other temperature and pressure its weight in lbs. per cubic foot is $W = \frac{1.3253 \times B}{459.2 + T}$

where B = height of the barometer, T = temperature Fahr., and 1.3253 = weight of 1 cu. ft. of air at 0° F. and one inch barometric pressure. 491.2 of its volume at 32° F. for every increase of 1° F., and varies inversely as the pressure.

Table of Density, and Pressure of Air at Various Temperatures. (D. K. Clark.)

Height at Atmos. Pressure.		Density, lbs. per Cubic Foot at Atmos. Pressure.	Pressure at Constant Volume.	
Feet lb.	Comparative Vol.		Lbs. per Sq. In.	Comparative Pres.
83	.881	.086331	12.96	.881
87	.943	.080728	13.86	.943
86	.958	.079439	14.08	.958
40	.977	.077884	14.36	.977
41	1.000	.076097	14.70	1.000
42	1.015	.074950	14.92	1.015
93	1.034	.073565	15.31	1.034
45	1.051	.072230	15.49	1.054
96	1.073	.070942	15.77	1.073
44	1.092	.069721	16.05	1.092
92	1.111	.068500	16.33	1.111
46	1.130	.067361	16.61	1.130
90	1.149	.066231	16.89	1.149
51	1.168	.065155	17.19	1.168
93	1.187	.064088	17.50	1.187
54	1.206	.063089	17.76	1.206
96	1.226	.062090	18.02	1.226
96	1.244	.060210	18.58	1.244
60	1.283	.059313	18.86	1.283
90	1.287	.059135	18.92	1.287

Barometer consists of a long vertical glass tube, closed at open at the lower end, containing air, provided with a scale, along with a thermometer, in a transparent liquid, such as contained in a strong cylinder of glass, which communicates in which the pressure is to be ascertained. The scale shows copied by the air in the tube.

At volume, at the temperature of 32° Fahrenheit, and mean atmosphere, p_0 ; let v_1 be the volume of the air at the temperature under the absolute pressure to be measured p_1 ; then

$$p_1 = \frac{(t + 459.2) p_0 v_0}{491.2 v_1}$$

Pressure of the Atmosphere at Different Altitudes.

The pressure of the air is 14.7 pounds per sq. in. at the sea-level; at 1 mile, 12.02; at $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile, 11.42; at $1\frac{3}{4}$ mile, 10.82.

miles, 9.80 pounds per square inch. For a rough approximation we assume that the pressure decreases $\frac{1}{2}$ pound per square inch for every foot of ascent.

It is calculated that at a height of about 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ miles above the sea-level weight of a cubic foot of air is only one half what it is at the surface of the earth, at seven miles only one fourth, at fourteen miles only one sixteenth, at twenty-one miles only one sixty-fourth, and at a height of over five miles it becomes so attenuated as to have no appreciable weight.

The pressure of the atmosphere increases with the depth of shafts to about one inch rise in the barometer for each 900 feet increase in depth. This may be taken as a rough-and-ready rule for ascertaining the depth of shafts.

Pressure of the Atmosphere per Square Inch and per Square Foot at Various Readings of the Barometer

RULE.—Barometer in inches $\times .4908$ = pressure per square inch; Pressure per square inch $\times 144$ = pressure per square foot.

Barometer.	Pressure per Sq. In.	Pressure per Sq. Ft.	Barometer.	Pressure per Sq. In.	Pressure per Sq. Ft.
in.	lbs.	lbs.*	in.	lbs.	lbs.*
28.00	13.74	1978	29.75	14.60	2102
28.25	13.86	1995	30.00	14.73	2122
28.50	13.98	2013	30.25	14.84	2143
28.75	14.11	2031	30.50	14.96	2164
29.00	14.23	2049	30.75	15.09	2185
29.25	14.35	2066	31.00	15.21	2206
29.50	14.47	2083			

* Decimals omitted.

For lower pressures see table of the Properties of Steam.

Barometric Readings corresponding with Different Altitudes, in French and English Measures.

Altitude.	Reading of Barometer.	Altitude.	Reading of Barometer.	Altitude.	Reading of Barometer.	Altitude.
meters.	mm.	feet.	inches.	meters.	mm.	feet.
0	762	0.	30.	1147	660	3763.2
21	760	68.9	29.92	1369	650	4163.3
127	750	416.7	29.52	1393	640	4568.3
234	740	767.7	29.13	1519	630	4983.1
342	730	1122.1	28.74	1647	620	5408.2
453	720	1486.2	28.35	1777	610	5830.2
564	710	1850.4	27.95	1909	600	6243.
678	700	2224.5	27.55	2043	590	6702.9
793	690	2599.7	27.16	2180	580	7152.4
909	680	2962.1	26.77	2318	570	7605.1
1027	670	3369.5	26.38	2460	560	8071.

Levelling by the Barometer and by Boiling

(Trautwine.)—Many circumstances combine to render the results of levelling by the barometer unreliable where great accuracy is required. It is to read off from an aneroid (the kind of barometer usually employed for engineering purposes) to within from two to five or six feet, depends on its size. The moisture or dryness of the air affects the results; also the vicinity of mountains, and the daily atmospheric tides, which are incessant and irregular fluctuations in the barometer. A barometer will often vary $\frac{1}{4}$ of an inch within a few hours. The difference of elevation of nearly 100 feet. No factor shall embrace these sources of error.

To Find the Difference in Altitude of Two Places.—Take in the table the altitudes opposite to the two boiling temperatures, or to two barometer readings. Subtract the one opposite the lower reading from that opposite the upper reading. The remainder will be the required height, as a rough approximation. To correct this, add together the two barometer readings, and divide the sum by 2, for their mean. From the table of corrections for temperature, take out the number under this mean. Multiply the approximate height just found by this number.

At 70° F. pure water will boil at 1° less of temperature for an average of about 50 feet of elevation above sea-level, up to a height of 1/2 a mile. At a height of 1 mile, 1° of boiling temperature will correspond to about 500 feet of elevation. In the table the mean of the temperatures at the two stations is assumed to be 32° F., at which no correction for temperature is necessary in using the table.

Barom. in.	Altitude above Sea-level, feet.	Boiling-point in deg. Fah.	Barom. in.	Altitude above Sea-level, feet.	Boiling-point in deg. Fah.	Barom. in.	Altitude above Sea-level, feet.
16.79	15,221	196	21.71	8,481	208	27.73	2,063
17.16	14,649	197	22.17	7,932	208.5	28.00	1,809
17.54	14,075	198	22.64	7,381	209	28.29	1,339
17.93	13,498	199	23.11	6,843	209.5	28.56	1,200
18.32	12,934	200	23.59	6,304	210	28.85	1,025
18.72	12,367	201	24.08	5,764	210.5	29.15	754
19.13	11,799	202	24.58	5,225	211	29.42	519
19.54	11,243	203	25.08	4,697	211.5	29.71	255
19.96	10,685	204	25.59	4,169	212	30.00	S. L. = 0
20.39	10,127	205	26.11	3,643	212.5	30.30	-261
20.82	9,579	206	26.64	3,115	213	30.59	-511
21.26	9,031	207	27.18	2,589			

CORRECTIONS FOR TEMPERATURE.

Temp. F. in shade.	0	10°	20°	30°	40°	50°	60°	70°	80°	90°	100°
Correction by		.933	1.554	2.475	3.696	5.1016	6.836	8.908	11.079	13.100	15.142

Moisture in the Atmosphere.—Atmospheric air always contains all quantity of carbonic-acid gas and a varying quantity of aqueous vapour. Pure mountain air contains about 3 to 4 parts of carbonic acid in 100,000. A properly ventilated room should contain not more than six parts in 100,000.

The degree of saturation or relative humidity of the air is determined by the difference of the dry and wet bulb thermometer. The degree of saturation for different readings of the thermometer is given in the following table.

INDICATIONS OF THE HYGROMETER (DRY AND WET BULB), FROM MR. GLAISHER'S OBSERVATIONS AT GREENWICH.

Temperature of the Air, Fahrenheit.	Difference of Temperature or Degrees of Cold in the Wet-bulb Thermometer.																								
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	
Degrees of Humidity, Saturation being 100.																									
32°	87	75																							
42°	92	85	78	72	66	60	54	49	44	40	36	33	30	27											
52°	93	86	80	74	69	64	59	54	50	46	42	39	36	33	30	27	25								
62°	94	88	82	77	72	67	62	58	54	50	47	44	41	38	35	32	30	28	26	24					
72°	94	89	84	79	74	69	65	61	57	54	51	48	45	42	39	36	34	32	30	28	26	24	23	22	
82°	95	90	85	80	76	72	68	64	60	57	54	51	48	45	42	40	38	35	33	31	29	27	26	25	
92°	95	90	85	81	77	73	70	66	62	59	56	53	50	47	45	43	41	38	36	34	32	30	28	26	

Weights of Air, Vapor of Water, and Saturated Mixture of Air and Vapor at Different Temperatures, at the Ordinary Atmospheric Pressure of 29.92 inches of Mercury.

Temperature, Fahrenheit.	Weight of a Cubic Ft. of Dry Air at Different Temperatures, lbs.	Elastic Force of Vapor, Inches of Mercury.	MIXTURES OF AIR SATURATED WITH VAPOR			
			Elastic Force of the Air in Mixture of Air and Vapor, Inches of Mercury.	Weight of Cubic Foot of the Mixture of Air and Vapor.		
				Weight of the Air, lbs.	Weight of the Vapor, pounds.	Total Weight of Mixture, pounds.
0°	.0864	.044	29.877	.0863	.000079	.086379
12	.0842	.074	29.849	.0840	.000130	.084130
22	.0824	.118	29.803	.0821	.000202	.082302
32	.0807	.181	29.740	.0802	.000304	.080504
42	.0791	.267	29.654	.0784	.000440	.078840
52	.0776	.388	29.533	.0766	.000627	.077227
62	.0761	.556	29.365	.0747	.000881	.075581
72	.0747	.785	29.136	.0727	.001221	.073921
82	.0733	1.092	28.829	.0706	.001667	.072267
92	.0720	1.501	28.430	.0684	.002250	.070717
102	.0707	2.036	27.885	.0659	.002997	.068997
112	.0694	2.731	27.190	.0631	.003946	.067046
122	.0682	3.621	26.300	.0590	.005142	.065042
132	.0671	4.752	25.169	.0564	.006639	.063039
142	.0660	6.165	23.756	.0524	.008473	.060873
152	.0649	7.980	21.991	.0477	.010716	.058416
162	.0638	10.099	19.822	.0423	.013415	.055715
172	.0628	12.708	17.163	.0360	.016682	.052882
182	.0618	15.960	13.961	.0288	.020536	.049236
192	.0609	19.828	10.093	.0205	.025142	.045642
202	.0600	24.450	5.471	.0109	.030545	.041445
212	.0591	29.921	0.000	.0000	.036820	.036820

The weight in lbs. of the vapor mixed with 100 lbs. of pure air at given temperature and pressure is given by the formula

$$\frac{62.3 \times E}{29.92 - E} \times \frac{29.92}{p}$$

where E = elastic force of the vapor at the given temperature, in mercury; p = absolute pressure in inches of mercury, = 29.92 for atmospheric pressure.

Specific Heat of Air at Constant Volume and at Constant Pressure.—Volume of 1 lb. of air at 32° F. and pressure of 14.7 lb. in. = 12.387 cu. ft. = a column 1 sq. ft. area \times 12.387 ft. high. Raising at constant pressure 1° F. expands it $\frac{1}{491.2}$, or to 12.4123 ft. high—a rise of .0232 ft.

Work done = 2116 lbs. per sq. ft. \times .02322 = 53.37 foot-pounds, or 53.37 \times .0686 = 3.65 heat units.

The specific heat of air at constant pressure, according to Regnault = 0.2375; but this includes the work of expansion, or .0686 heat unit, so the specific heat at constant volume = 0.2375 - .0686 = 0.1689.

Ratio of specific heat at constant pressure to specific heat at constant volume = .2375 \div .1689 = 1.406. (See Specific Heat, p. 458.)

Flow of Air through Orifices.—The theoretical velocity per second of flow of any fluid, liquid, or gas through an orifice

is $\sqrt{2gh}$ = 8.02 \sqrt{h} , in which h is the "head" or height of the fluid required to produce the pressure of the fluid at the level of the orifice.

The actual velocity of flow in cubic feet per second is equal to the theoretical velocity multiplied by the coefficient of discharge.

by the area of the orifice, in square feet, multiplied by a "coefficient of flow," which takes into account the contraction of the vein of air, the friction of the orifice, etc. Weisbach gives the following table for flow through an orifice or short tube, from a reservoir of air into a reservoir of the pressure p_2 . Weisbach gives the following table for the coefficient of flow, obtained from his experiments.

FLOW OF AIR THROUGH AN ORIFICE.

Coefficient c in formula $v = c \sqrt{2gh}$.

Ratio of pressures $p_1 + p_2$	1.05	1.09	1.43	1.65	1.89	2.15
Coefficient	.555	.589	.692	.724	.754	.788
Ratio of pressures	1.05	1.09	1.36	1.67	2.01
Coefficient	.558	.573	.634	.678	.723

FLOW OF AIR THROUGH A SHORT TUBE.

Ratio of pressures $p_1 + p_2$	1.05	1.10	1.30
Coefficient	.730	.771	.890
Ratio of pressures	1.41	1.69
Coefficient	.813	.822
Ratio of pressures	1.34	1.38	1.59	1.85	2.14
Coefficient	.973	.986	.965	.971	.978

EQUATIONS FOR FLOW OF AIR FROM A RESERVOIR THROUGH AN ORIFICE. (Peabody's Thermodynamics, p. 135.)

For $p_1 > 2p_a$, $G = 0.530 F \frac{p_1}{\sqrt{T_1}}$;

$p_1 < 2p_a$, $G = 1.060 F \sqrt{\frac{p_a(p_1 - p_a)}{T_1}}$;

where G = velocity of efflux in lbs. per sec., F = area of orifice in sq. in., p_1 = absolute pressure in reservoir in lbs. per sq. in., p_a = pressure of atmosphere in lbs. per sq. in., T_1 = absolute temperature, Fahr., of air in reservoir. Peabody's Tables, and Data, p. 891 gives, for the velocity of flow of air through an orifice due to small differences of pressure,

$$V = C \sqrt{\frac{2gh}{12} \times 773.2 \times \left(1 + \frac{t - 32}{493}\right) \times \frac{29.92}{p}}$$

simplified,

$$V = 352 C \sqrt{\left(1 + .00203(t - 32)\right) \frac{h}{p}}$$

where V = velocity in feet per second; $2g = 64.4$; h = height of the column of air in inches, measuring the difference of pressure; t = the temperature in Fahr.; p = barometric pressure in inches of mercury. 773.2 is the weight of air at 32° under a pressure of 29.92 inches of mercury when that of water is taken as 1.

the formula becomes $V = 363 C \sqrt{\frac{h}{p}}$, and if $p = 29.92$ inches $V =$

coefficient of efflux C , according to Weisbach, is:

at a sharp-edged orifice, of form of the contracted vein,	
pressures of from 23 to 1.1 atmospheres	$C = .97$ to $.99$
in thin plates	$C = .56$ to $.79$
in circular mouthpieces	$C = .81$ to $.84$
rounded at the inner end	$C = .92$ to $.93$
in conical mouthpieces	$C = .90$ to $.93$

of Air in Pipes.—Hawksley (Proc. Inst. C. E., xxxiii, 1872)

his formula for flow of water in pipes $v = 48 \sqrt{\frac{HD}{L}}$ may also

be used for flow of air. In this case H = height in feet of a column of air to produce the pressure causing the flow, or the lo

for a given flow; v = velocity in feet per second, D = diameter in feet, length in feet.

If the head is expressed in inches of water, h , the air being taken at 62° F, its weight per cubic foot at atmospheric pressure = .0761 lb. $H = \frac{62.36}{.0761 \times 12} = 68.3h$. If d = diameter in inches, $D = \frac{d}{12}$ and the for-

becomes $v = 114.5 \sqrt{\frac{hd}{L}}$, in which h = inches of water column, d =

enter in inches and L = length in feet; $h = \frac{Lv^2}{13110d}$; $d = \frac{Lv^2}{13110h}$.

The quantity in cubic feet per second is

$$Q = .7854 \frac{d^2}{144} v = .6245 \sqrt{\frac{hd^3}{L}}; \quad d = \sqrt[5]{\frac{Q^2 L}{.39h}}; \quad h = \frac{Q^2 L}{.39d^5}$$

The horse-power required to drive air through a pipe is the volume cubic feet per second multiplied by the pressure in pounds per square and divided by 550. Pressure in pounds per square foot = P = inch water column $\times 5.196$, whence horse-power =

$$HP. = \frac{QP}{550} = \frac{Qh}{105.9} = \frac{Q^2 L}{41.3d^5}$$

If the head or pressure causing the flow is expressed in pounds per inch = p , then $h = 27.71p$, and the above formulae become

$$v = 602.7 \sqrt{\frac{pd}{L}}; \quad p = \frac{Lv^2}{363,300d}; \quad d = \frac{Lv^2}{363,300p}$$

$$Q = 3.287 \sqrt{\frac{pd^3}{L}}; \quad p = \frac{Q^2 L}{10,800d^5}; \quad d = \sqrt[5]{\frac{Q^2 L}{10,800p}}$$

$$HP. = \frac{Q144p}{550} = .2618 \frac{Qp}{d^5} = .02421 \frac{Q^2 L}{d^5}$$

Volume of Air Transmitted in Cubic Feet per Minute Pipes of Various Diameters.

$$\text{Formula } Q = \frac{.754}{144} d^2 v \times 60.$$

Feet Velocity p. sec of Flow	Actual Diameter of Pipe in Inches.										
	1	2	3	4	5	6	8	10	12	16	20
1	.327	1.31	2.95	5.24	8.18	11.78	20.94	32.78	47.12	83.77	130.9
2	.655	2.62	5.89	10.47	16.36	23.56	41.89	65.45	94.25	167.5	261.5
3	.982	3.93	8.84	15.7	24.5	35.3	62.8	98.2	141.4	251.3	392.7
4	1.31	5.24	11.78	20.9	32.7	47.1	83.8	131	188	335	525
5	1.64	6.54	14.7	26.2	41	59	104	163	235	419	634
6	1.96	7.85	17.7	31.4	49.1	70.7	125	196	283	502	753
7	2.29	9.16	20.6	36.6	57.2	82.4	146	229	330	586	876
8	2.62	10.5	23.5	41.9	65.4	94	167	262	377	670	1047
9	2.95	11.78	26.5	47	73	106	188	294	424	754	1178
10	3.27	13.1	29.4	52	82	118	209	327	471	838	1269
12	3.93	15.7	35.3	63	98	141	251	393	565	1005	1511
15	4.91	19.6	44.2	78	122	177	314	491	707	1256	1965
18	5.89	23.5	53	94	147	212	377	589	848	1508	2266
20	6.54	26.2	59	105	164	235	419	654	942	1675	2618
25	7.85	31.4	71	125	196	283	502	785	1131	2010	3141
30	8.18	32.7	73	131	204	294	533	818	1178	2094	3272
40				146	229	330	596	916	1319	2346	3661
50				17	245	353	628	982	1414	2513	3827

y's formula and its derivatives the numerical coefficients are scarcely possible, however, that they can be accurate except in a wide range of conditions. In the case of water it is found that the loss of friction, on which the loss of head depends, varies with the diameter of the pipe, and with the velocity, as well as with the area of the interior surface. In the case of air and other gases we find, the decrease in density and consequent increase in volume due to the progressive loss of head from one end of the pipe

that according to the experiments of D'Aubuisson and those of others, the resistance of air through long conduits or friction of pressure is very nearly directly as the length, and inversely as the velocity and inversely as the diameter. The resistance varies inversely as the density.

If the above formulæ are correct, then the formulæ $h = \frac{Lv^2}{cd}$ and $h = \frac{Q^2L}{c'd^5}$ are correct in form, and they may be used when the coefficients c and c' are obtained by experiment.

Various forms of the above formulae as correct, and let C be a variable, depending upon the length, diameter, and condition of surface, and possibly also upon the velocity, the temperature and the density. It may be determined by future experiments, then for $h =$ head in feet, $d =$ diameter in inches, $L =$ length in feet, $v =$ velocity in feet per second, and $Q =$ quantity in cubic feet per second:

$$C\sqrt{\frac{hd}{L}}; \quad d = \frac{Lv^2}{C^2h}; \quad h = \frac{Lv^2}{C^2d};$$

$$51C\sqrt{\frac{hd^5}{L}}; \quad d = \sqrt[5]{\frac{33689Q^2L}{C^2h}}; \quad h = \frac{33689Q^2L}{C^2d^5}.$$

Loss of pressure p in pounds per square inch,

$$.71p \quad \sqrt{h} = 5.264 \sqrt{p};$$

$$264C\sqrt{\frac{pd}{L}}; \quad d = \frac{Lv^2}{27.71C^2p}; \quad p = \frac{Lv^2}{27.71C^2d};$$

$$2871C\sqrt{\frac{pd^5}{L}}; \quad d = \sqrt[5]{\frac{1273Q^2L}{C^2p}}; \quad p = \frac{1273Q^2L}{C^2d^5}.$$

Formulae for flow of air, see Mine Ventilation.)

Pressure in Ounces per Square Inch.—B. F. Sturtevant uses the following formulæ:

$$v = \frac{Lv^2}{25000d}; \quad v = \frac{\sqrt{25000dp_1}}{L}; \quad d = \frac{Lv^2}{25000p_1};$$

Loss of pressure in ounces per square inch, $v =$ velocity of air in feet per second, and $L =$ length of pipe in feet. If p is taken in pounds per square inch, these formulæ reduce to

$$v = .0000025 \frac{Lv^2}{d}; \quad v = \frac{.00158 \sqrt{dp}}{L}; \quad d = \frac{0000025Lv^2}{p}.$$

Derived from the common formula (Weisbach's), $p = f \frac{L}{d} \frac{v^3}{2g}$, in 1868.

The above table is condensed from one given in the catalogue of B. F. Sturtevant & Co., New York.

Loss of pressure in pipes 100 feet long, in ounces per square inch, the loss is proportional to the length.

Velocity of Air, feet per min.	Diameter of Pipe in Inches.									
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
	Loss of Pressure in Ounces.									
600	.400	.300	.133	.100	.080	.067	.057	.050	.044	.040
1200	1.600	.800	.533	.400	.320	.267	.229	.200	.178	.160
1800	3.600	1.800	1.200	.900	.720	.600	.514	.450	.400	.360
2400	6.400	3.200	2.133	1.600	1.280	1.067	.914	.800	.711	.640
3000	10.	5.	3.333	2.5	2.	1.667	1.429	1.250	1.111	1.000
3600	14.4	7.2	4.8	3.6	2.88	2.4	2.057	1.8	1.6	1.44
4200	9.8	6.553	4.9	3.93	3.267	2.8	2.45	2.178	1.96
4800	12.8	8.533	6.4	5.12	4.267	3.657	3.2	2.844	2.56
6000	20.	13.333	10.0	8.0	6.667	5.714	5.0	4.444	4.0

	Diameter of Pipe in Inches.									
	14	16	18	20	22	24	28	32	36	40
	Loss of Pressure in Ounces.									
600	.029	.020	.022	.020	.018	.017	.014	.012	.011	.010
1200	.114	.100	.089	.080	.073	.067	.057	.050	.044	.040
1800	.257	.225	.200	.180	.164	.156	.129	.111	.100	.090
2400	.457	.400	.356	.320	.291	.267	.239	.200	.178	.160
3600	1.029	.900	.800	.720	.655	.600	.514	.450	.400	.360
4200	1.400	1.225	1.089	.980	.891	.817	.700	.612	.544	.490
4800	1.829	1.600	1.422	1.280	1.164	1.067	.914	.800	.711	.640
6000	2.857	2.500	2.222	2.000	1.818	1.667	1.429	1.250	1.111	1.000

Effect of Bends in Pipes. (Norwalk Iron Works Co.)

Radius of elbow, in diameter of pipe = 5 3 2 1½ 1¼ 1
Equivalent lgths. of straight pipe, diams 7.85 8.24 9.03 10.36 12.72 17.51

Compressed-air Transmission. (Frank Richards, *Am. Mach.*, March 8, 1894.)—The volume of free air transmitted may be assumed directly as the number of atmospheres to which the air is compressed. Thus, if the air transmitted be at 75 pounds gage-pressure, or six atmospheres, the volume of free air will be six times the amount given in the table (page 486). It is generally considered that for economical transmission the velocity in main pipes should not exceed 20 feet per second. In smaller distributing pipes the velocity should be decidedly less than this.

The loss of power in the transmission of compressed air in general is a serious one, or at all to be compared with the losses of power in the transmission of steam. The loss of power in the re-expansion or final application of compressed air is also a serious one.

The formulas for loss by friction are all unsatisfactory. The statistics of observed facts in this line are in a more or less chaotic state, and are evidently unreliable.

A statement of the friction of air flowing through a pipe involves, besides the following factors: Unit of time, volume of air, pressure of air at the inlet of pipe, length of pipe, and the difference of pressure at the inlet and outlet of the pipe or the head required to maintain the flow. Neither of these can be allowed its independent and absolute value, but is subject to variations in deference to its associates. The flow of air being assumed uniform at the entrance to the pipe, the volume and flow are not affected after that. The air is constantly losing some of its pressure and its velocity is constantly increasing. The velocity of flow is therefore also constantly accelerated continually. This also modifies the use of the length of pipe as a constant factor.

Then, besides the fluctuating values of these factors, there is the effect of the pipe itself. The actual diameter of the pipe, especially in small pipes, is often different from the nominal diameter. The pipe may be crooked and have numerous elbows. Mr. Richards gives the following as equivalent to a length of pipe.

and or Additional Pressure in pounds per sq. in. required to deliver Air at 75 Pounds Gauge-pressure through Pipes of Various Sizes and Lengths. (Frank Richards.)

1" PIPE.						4" PIPE.						
Pressure in lbs. per sq. in.	Length in feet.					Cubic ft. free air per min.	Length in feet.					
	50	100	300	500	1,000		200	300	400	1,000	2,000	
	Loss of pressure, lbs. p.					Loss of pressure, lbs. p.						
25	.245	.49	1.47	2.45	4.9	500	.16	.34	.4	.5	1.6	
50	.981	1.963	5.886	9.81	19.63	750	.36	.54	.9	1.8	3.6	
75	3.925	7.85	23.55	39.25	78.5	1,000	.64	.96	1.6	3.2	6.4	
100	8.829	17.66	52.98	88.29	176.58	1,250	1.	1.5	2.5	5.	10.	
						1,500	1.44	2.16	3.6	7.2	14.4	
1 1/4" PIPE.						5" PIPE.						
25	.056	.112	.336	.561	1.12							
50	.224	.449	1.35	2.24	4.49							
75	.497	1.79	5.38	8.97	17.94							
100	2.02	3.94	12.11	20.2	40.4							
	3.59	7.18	21.54	35.9	71.8							
1 1/2" PIPE.						6" PIPE.						
25	.017	.031	.103	.171	.34							
50	.068	.137	.411	.685	1.37							
75	.274	.548	1.64	2.74	5.48							
100	.616	1.23	3.69	6.16	12.33							
	1.09	2.19	6.57	10.96	21.9							
2" PIPE.						8" PIPE.						
25	.019	.038	.114	.19	.38							
50	.076	.152	.457	.761	1.53							
75	.171	.343	1.03	1.71	3.44							
100	.301	.603	1.83	3.04	6.09							
	.476	.953	2.86	4.76	9.53							
	.685	1.37	4.11	6.85	13.73							
2 1/2" PIPE.						10" PIPE.						
	900	300	500	1,000	2,000							
2,000												
2,500	.598	1.19	2.39	2.99	4.48							
3,000	.935	1.87	3.74	4.68	7.02							
4,000	1.25	2.49	4.99	6.24	9.36							
5,000	2.39	4.79	9.58	11.97	17.96							
	3.74	7.48	14.97	18.71	28.07							
3" PIPE.						12" PIPE.						
2,500	.286	.57	1.14	1.43	2.15							
5,000	1.14	2.29	4.57	5.71	8.56							
7,500	2.57	5.15	10.30	12.86	19.29							
10,000	4.57	9.14	18.28	22.86	34.29							
3 1/2" PIPE.						15" PIPE.						
2,000	.11	.22	.44	.55	1.10							
5,000	.44	.88	1.76	2.2	4.4							
7,500	.99	1.98	3.96	4.95	9.9							
10,000	1.76	3.52	7.03	8.79	17.58							

though Mr. Richards does not give any formula with section of it shows that for any given diameter the

The impossibility of measuring the true quantity of air by an anemometer held stationary in one position is shown by the following figures, given by Wm. Daniel (Proc. Inst. M. E., 1875), of the velocities of air found at different points in the cross-sections of two different airways in a mine.

DIFFERENCES OF ANEMOMETER READINGS IN AIRWAYS.

8 ft. square.				5 X 5 ft.		
1712	1795	1859	1829	1176	1269	1288
1622	1655	1782	1691	948	1104	1177
1477	1344	1524	1649	1134	1049	1106
1292	1356	1293	1333			
Average 1469.				Average 1132		

Equation of Pipes.—It is frequently desired to know what size of pipes of a given size are equal in carrying capacity to one pipe of a larger size. At the same velocity of flow the volume delivered by two pipes of different sizes is proportional to the squares of their diameters; thus a 4-inch pipe will deliver the same volume as four 2-inch pipes. With the head, however, the velocity is less in the smaller pipe, and the volume delivered varies about as the square root of the fifth power (i.e. as the power). The following table has been calculated on this basis. The $\frac{1}{2}$ opposite the intersection of any two sizes is the number of the smaller pipes required to equal one of the larger. Thus, one 4-inch pipe is equal to 5.7 2-inch pipes.

Diam. in.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	12	14	16	18	20
2	5.7	1													
3	15.6	2.8	1												
4	31	5.7	2.1	1											
5	55.9	9.9	3.6	1.7	1										
6	88.2	15.6	5.7	2.8	1.6	1									
7	130	22.9	8.3	4.1	2.3	1.5	1								
8	181	32	11.7	5.7	3.2	2.1	1.4	1							
9	243	43	15.6	7.6	4.3	2.8	1.9	1.3	1						
10	316	55.9	20.3	9.9	5.7	3.6	2.4	1.7	1.3	1					
11	401	70.9	25.7	12.5	7.2	4.6	3.1	2.2	1.7	1.3					
12	499	88.2	32	15.6	8.9	5.7	3.8	2.8	2.1	1.6	1				
13	609	108	39.1	19	10.9	7.1	4.7	3.4	2.5	1.9	1.4				
14	733	130	47	22.9	13.1	8.3	5.7	4.1	3.0	2.3	1.5	1			
15	871	154	55.9	27.2	15.6	9.9	6.7	4.8	3.6	2.8	1.7	1.2			
16	1024	181	65.7	32	18.3	11.7	7.9	5.7	4.2	3.2	2.1	1.4	1		
17	1193	211	76.4	37.2	21.3	13.5	9.2	6.6	4.9	3.8	2.4	1.6	1.2		
18	1378	243	88.2	43	24.6	15.6	10.6	7.6	5.7	4.3	2.8	1.9	1.3	1	
19	1579	278	101	49	28.1	17.8	12.1	8.7	6.5	5	3.2	2.1	1.5	1.1	
20	1796	316	115	55.9	32	20.3	13.8	9.9	7.4	5.7	3.6	2.4	1.7	1.2	1
22	222	141	146	70.9	40.6	25.7	17.5	12.5	9.3	7.2	4.6	3.1	2.2	1.7	1.2
24	271	169	181	88.2	50.5	32	21.8	15.6	11.6	8.9	5.7	3.8	2.8	2.1	1.4
26	326	209	221	108	61.7	39	26.6	19	14.2	10.9	7.1	4.7	3.4	2.5	1.9
28	388	256	266	130	74.2	47	32	22.9	17	13.1	8.3	5.7	4.1	3	2.1
30	457	316	316	154	88.2	55.9	38	27.2	20.3	15.6	9.9	6.7	4.8	3.6	2.8
36	609	499	499	243	130	88.2	60	43	32	24.6	15.6	10.6	7.6	5.7	4.1
42	811	733	733	357	205	130	88.2	63	47	36.2	19	15.6	11.2	8.3	6.1
48	1081	1024	1024	500	181	123	88.2	62	50.5	38	21.8	15.6	11.6	8.3	6.1
54	1433	1433	1433	709	243	165	118	88.2	67.8	43	22.9	20.3	15.6	11.6	8.3
60	1896	1896	1896	979	316	215	154	115	88.2	55.9	38	22.9	20.3	15.6	11.6

**Pressure in Compressed Air Pipe-main, at
St. Gothard Tunnel.**

(E. Stockalper.)

atmospheric pressure and 32° F.	Volume per second of compressed air at mean density.		Mean density of compressed air. (Water = 1.)	Weight of air flowing per second.	Mean velocity in feet per second.	Observed Pressures.				Value of c' in formula $\frac{p}{Q^2 L} = \frac{c'^2 d^5}{c^2 d^5}$
	cu. ft.	den.				lbs.	feet.	at.	at.	
96	6.534	.00650	32.609	19.32	5.60	5.24	5.292	6.4	610	
	7.063	.00603	32.669	37.14	5.24	5.00	3.528	4.6	515	
92	5.509	.00514	1.776	16.30	4.23	4.13	3.234	5.1	519	
	5.863	.00482	1.776	4.13	
94	5.262	.00449	1.483	15.58	3.84	3.65	2.793	5.0	406	
	5.580	.00423	1.483	29.34	3.65	3.54	1.617	3.0	422	

of the pipe 7.87 in diameter was 15,092 ft., and of the smaller the mean temperature of the air in the large pipe was 70° F. in the pipe 80° F.

WIND.

the Wind.—Smeaton in 1759 published a table of the pressure of wind, as follows:

Y AND FORCE OF WIND, IN POUNDS PER SQUARE INCH.

sq. ft. pounds.	Common Appellation of the Force of Wind.	Miles per Hour.	Feet per second.	Force per sq. ft. pounds.	Common Appellation of the Force of Wind.
.005	Hardly perceptible.	18	26.4	1.55	} Very brisk.
		20	29.31	1.968	
.020	Just perceptible.	25	36.67	3.075	} High wind.
.044		30	44.01	4.429	
.079	Gentle pleasant wind.	35	51.34	6.037	} Very high storm.
.133		40	58.68	7.873	
.177	Pleasant brisk gale.	45	66.01	9.963	} Great Storm.
.241		50	73.35	12.80	
.315	Pleasant brisk gale.	55	80.7	14.9	} Hurricans.
.400		60	88.02	17.71	
.492	Pleasant brisk gale.	66	95.4	20.85	} Immense hurricane.
.708		70	102.5	24.1	
.964	Pleasant brisk gale.	75	110.	27.7	} Immense hurricane.
1.07		80	117.36	31.49	
.25	Pleasant brisk gale.	100	146.67	49.2	Immense hurricane.

sq. ft. per square foot in the above table correspond to the 0057², in which V is the velocity in miles per hour. *Eng'g* 1893, says that the formula was never well established, and rely on Smeaton's name and for lack of a better. It was put for surfaces for use in windmill practice. The trend of the formula is that it is approximately correct only for such surfaces. For large solid bodies it often gives greatly too large results. For other cases it is thus compared with Smeaton's formula.

Formula by Prof. Martin.....
Formula by Whipple and Dines.....

At 60 miles per hour these formulas give for the pressure per sq. ft. 18.4 and 10.44 lbs., respectively, the pressure varying by the square of the velocity. Lieut. Crosby's experiments (E. 1890), claiming to prove that $P = fV$ instead of $P = fV^2$, at

A. R. Wolff (The Windmill as a Prime Mover, p. 7) gives as the pressure per sq. ft. of surface, $P = \frac{dQv}{g}$, in which d = density of

per cu. ft. = $\frac{.018743(p + P)}{t}$; p being the barometric pressure

foot at any level, and temperature of 32° F., t any absolute

Q = volume of air carried along per square foot in one second

of the wind in feet per sec., g = 32.16. Since $Q = v$ cu. ft. per

Multiplying this by a coefficient 0.93 found by experiment, as

the above value of d , he obtains $P = \frac{0.017431 \times p \times v}{t \times 32.16} - .018743$

= 2116.5 lbs. per sq. ft. or average atmospheric pressure at

$P = \frac{36.8923}{t \times 32.16} - 0.18743$, an expression in which the pressure is

with the temperature; and he gives a table showing the velocity and pressure for temperatures from 0° to 100° F.,

from 1 to 80 miles per hour. For a temperature of 45° F. the pressures

with those in Smeaton's table, for 0° F. they are about 10 per cent

and for 100° 10 per cent less. Prof. H. Allen Hazen, Eng'g

1890, says that experiments with whirling arms, by exposing 1

wind, and on locomotives with velocities running up to 40

have invariably shown the resistance to vary with P^2 . In

$P = .005SV^2$, in which P = pressure in pounds, S = surface

V = velocity in miles per hour, the doubtful question is the

accuracy of the first two factors in the second member of

The first factor has been variously determined from .003 to .0

determined as low as .0014.—Ed. Eng'g News].

The second factor has been found in some experiments with

whirling arms and low velocities to vary with the perimeter

but this entirely disappears with longer arms or straight lines

the only question now to be determined is the value of the coefficient

perhaps some of the best experiments for determining this value

France in 1886 by carrying flat boards on trains. The result

this case was, for 44.5 miles per hour, $p = .00535SV^2$.

Mr. Crosby's whirling experiments were made with an arm

It is certain that most serious effects from centrifugal action

up by using such a short arm, and nothing satisfactory can be

arms less than 20 or 30 ft. long at velocities above 5 miles per

Prof. Kernot, of Melbourne (Engineering Record, Feb. 30, 18

experiments at the Forth Bridge showed that the average pressure

faces as large as railway carriages, houses, or bridges never

thirds of that upon small surfaces of one or two square feet

been used at observatories, and also that an inertia effect, while

overlooked, may cause some forms of anemometer to give

enormously exceeding the correct indication. Experiments

Crosby showed that the pressure varied directly as the velocity

the early investigators, from the time of Smeaton onwards, used

the square of the velocity. Experiments made by Prof. Kernot

varying from 2 to 15 miles per hour agreed with the earlier

tended to negative Crosby's results. The pressure upon one

or of a block proportioned like an ordinary carriage, was found

that upon a thin plate of the same area. The same result was

a square tower. A square pyramid, whose height was three

experienced .8 of the pressure upon a thin plate equal to one

at an angle was turned to the wind the pressure was increased

bridge consisting of two plate-girders connected by a deck

and to experience .9 of the pressure on a thin plate equal

to a distance between the girders was equal to .4

by one fifth when the distance between

th. A lattice-work in which the area of the openings was 55% rea experienced a pressure of 80% of that upon a plate of the be pressure upon cylinders and cones was proved to be equal on the diametral planes, and that upon an octagonal prism to than upon the circumscribing cylinder. A sphere was subre of .36 of that upon a thin circular plate of equal diameter. al cup gave the same result as the sphere; when its concavity the wind the pressure was 1.15 of that on a flat plate of equal en a plane surface parallel to the direction of the wind was into contact with a cylinder or sphere, the pressure on the as augmented by about 20%, owing to the lateral escape of the ed. Thus it is possible for the security of a tower or chimney by the erection of a building nearly touching it on one side.

of Wind Registered in Storms.—Mr. Frizell has ublished records of Greenwich Observatory from 1849 to 1869, at the highest pressure of wind he finds recorded is 41 lbs. here are numerous instances in which it was between 30 and 5. Prof. Henry says that on Mount Washington, N. H., a ve-fies per hour has been observed, and at New York City 60 and that the highest winds observed in 1870 were of 72 and 63 respectively.

ody, U. S. A., says, in substance, that the New England coast orms which produce a pressure of 50 lbs. per sq. ft. *Engi-* Aug. 20, 1880.

WINDMILLS.

d Efficiency of Windmills.—Rankine, S. E., p. 216. ring: Let Q = volume of air which acts on the sail, or part bic feet per second, v = velocity of the wind in feet per ctional area of the cylinder, or annular cylinder of wind, the sail, or part of the sail, sweeps in one revolution, $c = a$ found by experience; then $Q = cvs$. Rankine, from experi- by Smeaton, and taking c to include an allowance for or a wheel with four sails, proportioned in the best manner, l = weather angle of the sail at any distance from the axis, the portion of the sail considered makes with its plane of is angle gradually diminishes from the inner end of the sail the velocity of the same portion of the sail, and E = the effi- ciency is the ratio of the useful work performed to whole stream of wind acting on the surface s of the wheel, which

D being the weight of a cubic foot of air. Rankine's formula

$$\frac{Ru}{2gv^3} = c \left\{ \frac{u}{v} \sin 2A - \frac{u^2}{v^2} (1 - \cos 2A + f) - f \right\},$$

75 and f is a coefficient of friction found from Smeaton's Rankine gives the following from Smeaton's data:

ather-angle.....	= 7°	18°	19°
io of speed of greatest effi- ciency, for a given weather- angle, to that of the wind....	= 2.63	1.86	1.41
iciency.....	= 0.24	0.29	0.31

s the following as the best values for the angle of weather at ces from the axis:

sixths of total radius....	1	2	3	4	5	6
gle.....	18°	19°	18°	16°	12½°	7°

125) shows that Smeaton did not term these the best angles s they "answer as well as any," possibly any that were in ex me. Wolff says that they "cannot in the nature of thing, stralia angles." Mathematical considerations, he says, cou- but the angle of impulse depends on the relative velocity of sail and the wind, the angle growing larger as the Smeaton's angles do not fulfil this condition.

3. The great cold which results when air expands against a forbidden expansive working, which is equivalent to saying, forbidding a degree of efficiency in the use of compressed air.

4. Friction of the air in the pipes, leakage, dead spaces, the resistance offered by the valves, insufficiency of valve-area, inferior workman slovenly attendance, are all more or less serious causes of loss of work.

The first cause of loss of work, namely, the heat developed by friction, is entirely unavoidable. The whole of the mechanical energy the compressor-piston spends upon the air is converted into heat, is dissipated by conduction and radiation, and its mechanical equivalent work lost. The compressed air, having again reached thermal equilibrium with the surrounding atmosphere, expands and does work in virtue of its intrinsic energy.

The intrinsic energy of a fluid is the energy which it is capable of exerting against a piston in changing from a given state as to temperature and volume, to a total privation of heat and indefinite expansion.

Volumes, Mean Pressures per Stroke, Temperature in the Operation of Air-compression from 1 Atm and 60° Fahr. (F. Richards, *Am. Mach.*, March 30, 1893.)

Gauge-pressure.		Atmospheres.		Volume with Air at Constant Temp.		Volume with Air not cooled.		Mean Pressure per Stroke; Air Constant Temp.		Mean Pressure per Stroke; Air not cooled.		Temp. of Air; not cooled.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	1	2
0	1	1	1	0	0	60°	80	6.442	.1552	.266	27.28		
1	1.068	.9363	.95	.96	.975	71	85	6.782	.1474	.2566	28.16		
2	1.136	.8809	.91	1.87	1.91	80.4	90	7.132	.1404	.248	28.89		
3	1.204	.8305	.876	2.72	2.8	88.4	95	7.463	.134	.24	29.57		
4	1.272	.7861	.84	3.53	3.67	98	100	7.802	.1281	.2324	30.21		
5	1.34	.7462	.81	4.3	4.5	106	105	8.142	.1228	.2254	30.81		
10	1.68	.5952	.69	7.62	8.27	145	110	8.435	.1178	.2189	31.39		
15	2.02	.495	.606	10.33	11.51	178	115	8.823	.1133	.2129	31.98		
20	2.36	.4237	.543	12.62	14.4	207	120	9.163	.1091	.2073	32.54		
25	2.7	.3703	.494	14.59	17.01	234	125	9.503	.1052	.2020	33.07		
30	3.04	.3289	.4538	16.34	19.4	252	130	9.843	.1015	.1969	33.57		
35	3.381	.2957	.42	17.92	21.6	281	135	10.183	.0981	.1922	34.05		
40	3.721	.2687	.393	19.32	23.66	302	140	10.523	.095	.1878	34.52		
45	4.061	.2464	.37	20.57	25.59	321	145	10.864	.0921	.1837	35.09		
50	4.401	.2272	.35	21.69	27.39	339	150	11.204	.0892	.1796	35.45		
55	4.741	.2109	.331	22.76	29.11	357	160	11.88	.0841	.1722	36.29		
60	5.081	.1968	.3144	23.78	30.75	375	170	12.56	.0796	.1657	37.2		
65	5.422	.1844	.301	24.75	32.32	389	180	13.24	.0755	.1595	37.96		
70	5.762	.1735	.288	25.67	33.83	405	190	13.93	.0718	.154	38.65		
75	6.102	.1639	.276	26.55	35.27	430	200	14.61	.0685	.149	39.42		

Column 3 gives the volume of air after compression to the given pressure and after it is cooled to its initial temperature. After compression the air is cooled very rapidly, and this column may be taken to represent the volume of air after compression available for the purpose for which it is compressed.

Column 4 gives the volume of air more nearly as the compressor deals with it. In any compressor the air will lose some of its heat during compression. The slower the compressor runs the cooler the air will be at the end of the stroke.

Column 5 gives the mean effective resistance to be overcome during the stroke of compression, supposing the air to be cooled to its initial temperature. Of course it will not so cool in actual operation, and the mean effective resistance to be kept in view in economical air-compression will be less than that given in column 5.

16 gives the mean effective resistance to be overcome by the piston that there is no cooling of the air. The actual mean effective pressure will be somewhat less than as given in this column; but for the actual power required for operating air-compressor cylinders as in this column may be taken and a certain percentage added—1 cent—and the result will represent very closely the power required for the compressor.

The pressures given being for compression from one atmosphere they will not be correct for computations in compound compression from other initial pressure.

Due to Excess of Pressure caused by Heating in Compression-cylinder.—If the air during compression were at constant temperature, the compression-curve of an indicator-diagram from the cylinder would be an isothermal curve, and would follow the law of Boyle and Marriotte, $p v = a$ constant, or $p_1 v_1 = p_0 v_0$, or p_1 , p_0 and v_0 being the pressure and volume at the beginning of compression, and $p_1 v_1$ the pressure and volume at the end, or at any intermediate point. But as the air is heated during compression the pressure increases faster than the volume decreases, causing the work required for compression to be increased. If none of the heat were abstracted from the air or by injection of water, the curve of the diagram would be an adiabatic curve, with the equation $p_1 = p_0 \left(\frac{v_0}{v_1} \right)^{1.405}$. Cooling the air during

compression, or compressing it in two cylinders, called compounding, and cooling the air as it passes from one cylinder to the other, reduces the work required for compression, and reduces the quantity of work necessary to compress a given amount of air. F. T. Gause (*Am. Mach.*, Oct. 20, 1892), describes the operation of the Popp air-compressors in Paris, says: The greatest saving realized in compressing in a single cylinder was 33 per cent of that which would be required if compressed in a single cylinder at all possible. In cards taken from the 2000 H.P. compound compressor at Quai De La Gare, Paris, the saving realized is 85 per cent of the amount. Of this amount only 8 per cent is due to cooling during compression, so that the increase of economy in the compound compressor is mainly due to cooling the air between the two stages of compression. A compression-curve with exponent 1.25 is the best result that was obtained in a single cylinder and cooling with a very fine water spray. The curve with exponent 1.15 is that which must be realized in a single cylinder to equal the present economy of the compound compressor at Quai De La Gare.

Power required to compress and deliver one cubic foot of Free Air per minute at a given pressure with no cooling of the air during the compression; also the horse-power required, supposing the air to be maintained at constant temperature during the compression.

Air not cooled.	Air constant temperature.
.0196	.0188
.0361	.0333
.0628	.0551
.0846	.0713
.1032	.0843
.1195	.0946
.1342	.1036
.1476	.1120
.1599	.1195
.1710	.1261
.1815	.1318

Horse-power required to compress and deliver one cubic foot of Compressed Air per minute at a given pressure with no cooling of the air during the compression; also the horse-power required, supposing the air to be maintained at constant temperature during the compression.

Gauge-pressure.	Air not cooled.	Air constant temperature.
5	.0263	.0251
10	.0606	.0559
20	.1483	.1300
30	.2573	.2168
40	.3842	.3138
50	.5261	.4166
60	.6818	.5266
70	.8508	.6456
80	1.0303	.7700
90	1.2177	.8979
100	1.4171	1.0291

The power given above is the theoretical power, no allowance being made for friction of the compressor or other losses, which may amount to 10 per cent or more.

Table for Adiabatic Compression or Expansion

(Proc. Inst. M.E., Jan. 1881, p. 123.)

Absolute Pressure.		Absolute Temperature.		Vol
Ratio of Greater to Less. (Expansion.)	Ratio of Less to Greater. (Compression.)	Ratio of Greater to Less. (Expansion.)	Ratio of Greater to Less. (Compression.)	Ratio of Greater to Less. (Compression.)
1.2	.832	1.054	.948	1.138
1.4	.714	1.102	.907	1.270
1.6	.625	1.146	.873	1.396
1.8	.556	1.186	.843	1.518
2.0	.500	1.222	.818	1.636
2.2	.454	1.257	.796	1.750
2.4	.417	1.289	.776	1.862
2.6	.385	1.319	.758	1.971
2.8	.357	1.348	.742	2.077
3.0	.333	1.375	.727	2.182
3.2	.312	1.401	.714	2.284
3.4	.294	1.426	.701	2.384
3.6	.278	1.450	.690	2.483
3.8	.263	1.473	.679	2.580
4.0	.250	1.495	.669	2.676
4.2	.238	1.516	.660	2.770
4.4	.227	1.537	.651	2.863
4.6	.217	1.557	.642	2.955
4.8	.208	1.576	.635	3.046
5.0	.200	1.595	.627	3.135
6.0	.167	1.681	.595	3.569
7.0	.143	1.758	.569	3.981
8.0	.125	1.828	.547	4.377
9.0	.111	1.891	.529	4.759
10.0	.100	1.950	.513	5.129

Mean Effective Pressures for the Compression of the Stroke when compressing and delivery from one Atmosphere to given Gauge-pressure Cylinders. (F. Richards, *Am. Mach.*, Dec. 14, 1893.)

Gauge-pressure.	Adiabatic Compression	Isothermal Compression	Gauge-pressure.	Adiabatic Compression.
1	.44	.43	45	13.45
2	.96	.95	50	15.05
3	1.41	1.4	55	15.98
4	1.86	1.84	60	16.89
5	2.36	2.32	65	17.88
10	4.26	4.14	70	18.74
15	5.99	5.77	75	19.54
20	7.58	7.2	80	20.5
25	9.05	8.49	85	21.32
30	10.39	9.66	90	22
35	11.59	10.72	95	22.77
40	12.8	11.7	100	23.43

The mean effective pressure for compression only is always the mean effective pressure for the whole work

Initial and Terminal Pressures of Compressed Air used Extensively for Gauge-pressures from 60 to 100 lbs.

(Frank Richards, *Am. Mach.*, April 13, 1893.)

Gauge- pressure, lbs.	60.		70.		80.		90.		100.	
	Mean Air- pressure.	Terminal Air- pressure.	Mean Air- pressure.	Terminal Air- pressure.	Mean Air- pressure.	Terminal Air- pressure.	Mean Air- pressure.	Terminal Air- pressure.	Mean Air- pressure.	Terminal Air- pressure.
10	23.6	10.65	25.74	12.07	33.89	13.49	39.04	14.91	44.19	1.83
20	28.9	13.77	31.75	.6	40.61	2.44	46.46	4.27	53.32	6.11
30	32.13	.96	35.41	3.09	44.69	5.22	50.98	7.35	57.26	9.48
40	33.66	2.33	40.15	4.38	46.64	6.66	53.13	8.95	59.62	11.33
50	35.85	3.85	42.63	6.26	49.41	7.88	56.2	11.39	62.98	13.89
60	37.93	5.64	44.99	8.39	52.05	11.14	59.11	13.88	66.16	16.64
70	41.75	10.71	49.31	12.61	56.9	15.86	64.45	19.11	72.02	22.36
80	45.14	13.26	53.16	17	61.18	20.81	69.19	24.56	77.21	28.33
90	50.75	21.53	59.51	26.4	68.28	31.27	77.05	36.14	85.82	41.01
100	51.92	23.69	60.84	28.85	69.76	34.01	78.69	39.16	87.61	44.32
110	53.67	27.94	62.83	33.03	71.99	38.68	81.14	44.33	90.32	49.97
120	54.93	30.39	64.25	36.44	73.57	42.49	82.9	48.54	92.22	54.59
130	56.52	35.01	66.05	41.68	75.59	48.35	85.12	55.02	94.66	61.69
140	57.79	39.78	67.5	47.08	77.2	54.33	86.91	61.69	96.61	68.99
150	59.15	47.14	69.03	55.43	78.92	63.81	88.81	72.	98.7	80.28
160	59.46	49.65	69.38	58.27	79.31	66.89	89.24	75.52	99.17	87.82

The pressures in the table are all gauge-pressures except those in italics, which are absolute pressures (above a vacuum).

Straight-line Air-compressors, Ingersoll-Sergeant Rock-drill Co.

Diameter, inches.	Diameter of Air- cylinder, inches.	Length of Stroke, inches.	No. of Revolutions per minute.	Piston Speed in feet per minute.	Cubic Feet Free Air per minute (Theo- retical).	Horse- power of Boiler required.
4	4 $\frac{1}{4}$	10	175	291	28	6
5	5 $\frac{1}{4}$	10	175	291	42	8
6	6 $\frac{1}{4}$	12	160	320	66	10
7	7 $\frac{1}{4}$	12	160	320	91	12
8	8 $\frac{1}{4}$	12	160	320	117	15
9	9 $\frac{1}{4}$	12	160	320	148	20
10	10 $\frac{1}{4}$	14	155	361	207	30
12	12 $\frac{1}{4}$	14	155	361	295	40
14	14 $\frac{1}{4}$	18	130	360	398	55
16	16 $\frac{1}{4}$	18	130	360	518	70
18	18 $\frac{1}{4}$	24	94	376	683	100
20	20 $\frac{1}{4}$	24	94	376	840	130
22	22 $\frac{1}{4}$	31	75	375	1011	155
24	24 $\frac{1}{4}$	30	75	375	1202	200

The same sizes are made to be driven by belt or gearing.

Compressors at High Altitudes.—Cubic feet of compressed air
delivered by air-compressors at high altitudes, expressed as a percentage of
air delivered at the sea-level.

Altitude above Sea- level, feet.	0	1000	2000	3000	4000	5000	6000	7000	8000	9000	10000
Delivered, per cent.	100	97	94	91	89	86	84	81	78		

Standard Air-compressors driven by Steam,

(Norwalk Iron Works Co.)

In the following list the large air-cylinder gives the capacity of the chine. For actual capacity, allowance of 10 per cent may be made contingencies. The small piston only encounters the pressure of the compression.

Diameter of Air-cylinder.	Length of Stroke.	Diameter of Compressing Cylinder.	Diameter of Steam-cylinder.	Revolutions or Double Strokes per minute.	Theoretical Capacity, cubic feet per minute, Free Air.	Steam-pipe.	Exhaust-pipe.	Air pipe.	Water-pipe.
8	10	5	8	200	116	2	2½	2	½
10	12	6¼	10	190	207	2½	3	2½	¾
14	16	9¼	14	150	427	3	4	4	1
20	24	13¼	20	110	960	5	6	5	1½
26	30	17¼	24	90	1650	6	8	6	1¾
32	36	21¼	30	80	2686	7	10	8	1½

Double-compound Compressors,

(Norwalk Iron Works Co.)

Diameter of Air-cylinder.	Length of Stroke.	Diameter of—				Revolutions per minute.	Capacity of Air per minute.
		Compressing cylinder.	High-pressure Steam-cylinder.	Low-pressure Steam-cylinder.	Steam-pipe.		
10	12	5	7½	12	2	100	
12	12	5	7½	12	2	190	
14	16	9¼	10	16	2½	150	
16	16	9¼	10	16	2½	150	
20	20	13¼	14	22	3	130	
20	24	13¼	14	22	3	110	
22	24	13¼	14	22	3	110	
26	30	17¼	18	28	4½	90	
28	30	17¼	18	28	4½	90	
32	36	21¼	22	35	6	80	

Mountain or High-altitude Compressors,

(Norwalk Iron Works Co.)

Diameter Air-cylinder.	Length of Stroke.	Diameter of Compressing Cylinder.	Diameter of Steam-cylinder.	Revolutions per minute.	At Sea-level.		At 2000 feet.		At 6000 feet.		At 10000 feet.
					Capacity, cubic feet.	Horse-power.	Capacity.	Horse-power.	Capacity.	Horse-power.	
12	12	7	10	190	208	35	280	34	244	32	214
16	16	9¼	14	150	558	70	524	68	462	64	465
20	20	13¼	18	120	872	110	819	107	722	100	624
22	24	13¼	20	110	1160	145	1090	140	960	132	801
26	30	17¼	24	90	1650	215	1560	207	1375	195	1305

The delivery and power of the compressors decrease as the height increases. As the capacity decreases in a greater ratio than the pressure to compress, it follows that operations at a high altitude are more expensive than at sea-level. At 10,000 feet this extra expense amounts to 10 per cent.

Hand Drill Co.'s Air-compressors.

Dimensions of Air-cylinders in inches.	Revolutions per minute.	Theoretical Volume of Air delivered in cubic feet per minute, at Sea-level.						
		Free.	Compressed to a Gauge-pressure of -					
			10 lbs.	20 lbs.	40 lbs.	60 lbs.	80 lbs.	100 lbs.
10 x 16 { S* ..	100	145.44	86.56	61.61	39.08	28.62	22.57	18.64
10 x 16 { D* ..	100	290.88	173.12	123.22	78.17	57.24	45.15	37.28
14 x 22 { S... ..	85	333.20	198.31	141.10	89.51	65.54	51.93	42.67
14 x 22 { D... ..	85	666.40	396.61	282.20	179.01	131.07	103.86	85.34
16½ x 30 { S... ..	75	556.83	331.39	235.89	149.64	109.57	86.43	71.36
16½ x 30 { D... ..	75	1113.66	662.79	471.79	299.28	219.15	172.86	142.72
18 x 30 { S... ..	75	662.68	394.39	280.73	178.08	130.40	102.86	84.92
18 x 30 { D... ..	75	1325.36	788.78	561.46	356.17	260.81	205.72	169.84
20 x 48 { S... ..	50	872.66	519.36	369.69	234.51	171.72	135.46	111.84
20 x 48 { D... ..	50	1745.32	1038.72	739.38	469.03	343.45	270.92	223.68
28 x 48 { S... ..	40	1368.84	814.36	579.67	367.72	269.27	212.40	175.36
28 x 48 { D... ..	40	2737.68	1628.71	1159.34	735.45	538.54	424.80	350.73
32 x 48 { S... ..	40	1787.22	1063.65	757.12	480.29	351.70	277.42	229.05
32 x 48 { D... ..	40	3574.44	2127.30	1514.24	960.58	703.40	554.85	458.10
32 x 60 { S... ..	35	1954.77	1163.37	828.10	525.32	384.67	303.43	250.52
32 x 60 { D... ..	35	3909.55	2326.73	1656.20	1050.63	769.34	606.86	501.05
36 x 60 { S... ..	30	2120.61	1262.07	898.35	572.07	417.72	329.16	272.82
36 x 60 { D... ..	30	4241.22	2524.14	1796.70	1144.14	835.44	658.32	545.64
8 x 12.....	120	83.78	49.86	35.49	22.51	16.49	13.00	10.74
10 x 14.....	110	139.95	83.27	59.29	37.62	27.50	21.72	17.94
12 x 16.....	100	209.44	124.65	88.73	56.28	41.22	32.51	26.66
14 x 22.....	95	372.40	221.64	157.70	100.04	73.25	58.04	47.69
16 x 24.....	90	502.66	299.15	212.94	135.08	98.92	78.03	64.42
17½ x 24.....	90	601.29	367.85	254.95	161.60	118.33	93.33	77.06
20 x 30.....	80	872.67	519.36	369.69	234.52	171.73	135.46	111.84

* S, Single; D, Duplex.

tical Results with Compressed Air.—*Compressed-air*
at the Chapin Mines, Iron Mountain, Mich.—These mines are three
 on the falls which supply the power. There are four turbines at
 one of 1000 horse-power and three of 900 horse-power each. The
 is 60 pounds at 60° Fahr. Each turbine runs a pair of compressors.
 e to the mines is 34 inches in diameter. The power is applied at the
 o Corliss engines, running pumps, hoists, etc., and direct to rock-

made in 1888 gave 1430.27 horse-power at the compressors, and 390.17
 power as the sum of the horse-power of the engines at the mines.
 re, only 27% of the power generated was recovered at the mines.
 ludes the loss due to leakage and the loss of energy in heat, but not
 tion in the engines or compressors. (F. A. Pooock, *Trans. A. I. M. E.*,

Saunders (*Jour. F. I.* 1892) says: "There is not a properly designed
 eed-air installation in operation to-day that loses over 5% by trans-
 alone. The question is altogether one of the size of pipe; and if
 is large enough, the friction loss is a small item. The largest com-
 air power plant in America is that at the Chapin Mines in Michigan,
 power is generated at Quinnesec Falls, and transmitted three miles.
 is not an economical plant, but the loss of pressure as shown by the
 is only 2 lbs., and this is the loss which may be laid strictly to trans-

e loss of power in common practice, where compressed air is used to
 machinery in mines and tunnels, is about 70%. I refer to cases where
 on American air-compressors are used, and where the loss of pressure
 ar enough to lose its heat of compression and is ex-

many industries becomes possible, while in cases where it is necessary to have a constant supply of cold air economy ceases to be a matter of first importance.

The following table shows the results of tests of a small rotary engine for driving sewing-machines, and indicating about a tenth of a horse-power.

TRIALS OF A SMALL ROTARY RIEDINGER ENGINE.

Numbers of trials	I.	II.
Initial air-pressure, lbs. per sq. in.	86	71
Initial temperature, deg. Fahr.	54*	59*
Ft.-lbs. per sec., measured on the brake	51.63	31.1
Revolutions per minute	384	360
Consumption of air per 1 horse-power per hour	1377	1000

The following table shows the results obtained with a one-half horse-power variable expansive Riedinger rotary engine. These trials represent the best practice that has been obtained up to the present time (1896). Volumes of air were in all cases taken at atmospheric pressure:

TRIALS OF A .5-HORSE-POWER RIEDINGER ROTARY ENGINE.

Numbers of trials	I.	II.	III.
Initial pressure of air, lbs. per sq. in.	54	69.7	85
" temperature of air, deg. Fahr.	438	356	388
Final " " "	77	68	...
Revolutions per minute	335	350	310
Ft.-lbs. per second, measured on brake	271	477	376
Consumption of air per horse-power per hour	883	791	900

Trials made with an old single-cylinder 80-horse-power Farcot steam engine, indicating 72 horse-power, gave a consumption of air per brake-horse-power as low as 465 cu. ft. per hour. The temperature of admission was 320° F., and of exhaust 95° F.

Prof. Elliott gives the following as typical results of efficiency for various systems of compressors and air-motors:

Simple compressor and simple motor, efficiency	35
Compound compressor and simple motor, "	44
" " " compound motor, efficiency	53
Triple compressor and triple motor, "	55

The efficiency is the ratio of the indicated horse-power in the motor to the indicated horse-power in the steam-cylinders of the compressor. The pressure assumed is 6 atmospheres absolute, and the losses are taken to be those found in Paris over a distance of 4 miles.

Summary of Efficiencies of Compressed-air Transmitted at Paris, between the Central Station at St. Fargeau and a 10-horse-power Motor Working with Pressure Reduced to $4\frac{1}{2}$ Atmospheres.

(The figures below correspond to mean results of two experiments each with two heated.)

1 indicated horse-power at central station gives 0.845 indicated horse-power in compressors, and corresponds to the compression of 343 cubic feet per hour from atmospheric pressure to 6 atmospheres absolute. (The weight of this air is about 25 pounds.)

0.845 indicated horse-power in compressors delivers as much air as 0.52 indicated horse-power in adiabatic expansion after it has fallen to the normal temperature of the mains.

The fall of pressure in mains between central station and Paris (say 100 metres) reduces the possibility of work from 0.52 to 0.51 indicated horse-power.

The further fall of pressure through the reducing valve to $4\frac{1}{2}$ atmospheres (absolute) reduces the possibility of work from 0.51 to 0.50.

Incomplete expansion, wire-drawing, and other such causes reduce the actual indicated horse-power of the motor from 0.50 to 0.39.

By heating the air before it enters the motor to about 230° F., the indicated horse-power at the motor is, however, increased to 0.54. The

of gain by heating the air is, therefore, $\frac{0.54}{0.39} = 1.38$.

Additional heat is supplied by the combustion of about 0.39 indicated horse-power per hour, and if this be taken into account the indicated efficiency of the whole process becomes 0.47.

Cold air the work spent in driving the motor itself reduces the indicated efficiency to 0.26.

Heated air the work spent in driving the motor itself reduces the indicated efficiency to 0.54 to 0.41.

The efficiencies are as follows:

Indicated efficiency of engines 0.845.

Efficiency of compressors $0.52 \div 0.845 = 0.61$.

Efficiency of transmission through mains $0.51 \div 0.52 = 0.98$.

Efficiency of reducing valve $0.50 \div 0.51 = 0.98$.

Efficiency of the mains and reducing valve between 5 and 100 feet is thus $0.98 \times 0.98 = 0.96$. If the reduction had been to 4 feet, the corresponding efficiencies would have been 0.93, 0.92, and 0.91, respectively.

Efficiency of motor $0.39 \div 0.50 = 0.78$.

Efficiency of whole process with cold air 0.39. Apparent indicated efficiency of whole process with heated air 0.54.

Efficiency of whole process with heated air 0.47.

Efficiency of motor, cold, 0.67.

Efficiency of motor, hot, 0.81.

Compressed air in Paris is used for driving motors, but the most common is of the most varied kind. A list of motors driven from compressed air shows 225 installations, nearly all motors working at from 10 to 50 horse-power, and the great majority of them more than 100 feet from the station. The new station at Quai de la Gare is the one at St. Fargeau. Experiments on the Riedler system at Paris, made in December, 1881, to determine the ratio of indicated work done by the air-pistons and the indicated work done by the steam engines, showed a ratio of 0.8067. The compressors are driven by gas engines or Corliss engines of 2000 horse-power each.

Compressed Air.—The *Iron Age*, March 2, 1893, says: "The shops of the Wuerpel Switch and Signal Co., East St. Louis, Mo., of which are operated by compressed air, each of the tools having its own air engine, and the smaller tools being belted to a larger air engine. Power is supplied by a compound engine of 100 horse-power. The air engines are of the Kriebel system, of 2 to 8 horse-power."

Postal Transmission.—A paper by A. Falkenan, published in Philadelphia, April 1891, entitled the "First United States Postal System," gives a description of the system used in London and recently introduced in Philadelphia between the main station and the substation. In London the tubes are 3¼ and 3 inch lead pipe and iron pipes for protection. The carriers used in 2¼-inch diameter tubes, the remaining space being taken up by the carriers, are despatched singly. First, vacuum alone was used; then compressed air. The tubes used in the Continental cities are wrought iron, the Paris tubes being 2¼ inches diameter. The carriers are despatched in trains of six to ten, propelled by a steam engine. In Philadelphia the size of tube adopted is 6½ inches, the tubes are bored to size. The lengths of the outgoing and return pipes are 100 feet each. The pressure at the main station is 7 lbs., at the substation, and at the end of the return pipe atmospheric pressure. Each carrier has two air-cylinders 18 x 24 in. Each carrier holds about 100 to 150 letters as an average. Eight carriers may be despatched in one minute, giving a delivery of 48,000 to 72,000 letters per hour. The time of transmission is about 57 seconds.

Mekarski Compressed-air Tramway at Berne.

(*Eng'g News*, April 30, 1893.)—The Mekarski system has been adopted at Berne, Switzerland, on a line about two miles long, with grades of 3.7% and 5.2%. A special feature of the Mekarski system is the use of saturated air, to maintain it at a constant temperature, by passing the air through heated water at 330° F. The air thus becomes saturated with water vapor, and subsequently partly condenses, its latent heat being used in expanding air. The pressure in the car reservoirs is 100 lbs.

The tramway is constructed like an ordinary steam tramway locomotive.

would be useless to make the vanes of the fan of a greater width inlet opening can freely supply. On the proportion of the length of the vane and the diameter of the inlet opening rest the three important points, viz., *quantity and density of air, and expenditure*

In the 14-inch blade the tip has a velocity 26 times greater heel; and, by the laws of centrifugal force, the air will have a 4 times greater at the tip of the blade than that at the heel. The air enters on the heel with a density higher than that of the atmosphere; its passage along the vane it becomes compressed in proportion to centrifugal force. The greater the length of the vane, the greater the difference of the centrifugal force between the heel and the tip of the blade; consequently the greater the density of the air.

Reasoning from these experiments, Mr. Buckle recommends for the construction of the fan the following proportions for the construction of the fan:

1. Let the width of the vanes be one fourth of the diameter of the fan; diameter of the inlet openings in the sides of the fan-chest be one fourth of the diameter of the fan; 3. Let the length of the vanes be one fourth of the diameter of the fan.

In adopting this mode of construction, the area of the inlet on the sides of the fan-chest will be the same as the circumference of the blade, multiplied by its width; or the same area as described by the heel of the blade.

Best Proportions of Fans. (Buckle.)

PRESSURE FROM 3 OUNCES TO 6 OUNCES PER SQUARE INCH; OR 5 TO 10.4 INCHES OF WATER.

Diameter of Fan.		Vanes.		Diameter of Inlet Openings.	Diameter of Fan.	Vanes.	
		Width.	Length.			Width.	Length.
ft.	ins.	ft.	ins.	ft.	ins.	ft.	ins.
3	0	0 9	0 9	1 6	4 6	1 1½	1 1½
3	6	0 10¼	0 10½	1 9	5 0	1 3	1 3
4	0	1 0	1 0	2 0	6 0	1 6	1 6

PRESSURE FROM 6 OUNCES TO 9 OUNCES PER SQUARE INCH, AND OR 10.4 INCHES TO 15.6 INCHES OF WATER.

3	0	0 7	1 0	1 0	4 6	0 10½	1 4½
3	6	0 8½	1 1½	1 3	5 0	1 0	1 5
4	0	0 9½	1 3½	1 6	6 0	1 2	1 10

The dimensions of the above tables are not laid down as precise but as approximations obtained from the best results in practice.

Experiments were also made with reference to the admission of the transit or outlet pipe. By a slide the width of the opening was varied from 12 to 4 inches. The object of this was to vary the opening to the quantity of air required, and thereby to lessen the necessary to drive the fan. It was found that the less this opening provided we produce sufficient blast, the less noise will proceed from the fan; and by making the tops of this opening level with the tips of the column of air has little or no reaction on the vanes.

The number of blades may be 4 or 6. The case is made of thin iron, an arithmetical spiral, widening the space between the case and the blades, circumferentially, from the origin to the opening for the air.

The following rules deduced from experiments are given in the treatise on Casting and Founding:

The fan-case should be an arithmetical spiral to the extent of the diameter of the blade at least.

The diameter of the tips of the blades should be about double that of the hole in the centre; the width to be about two thirds of the diameter of the hole. The velocity of the tips of the blades should

than the velocity due to the air at the pressure required, say one more velocity.

In some cases, two fans mounted on one shaft would be more useful than one, as in such an arrangement twice the area of inlet opening is secured as compared with a single wide fan. Such an arrangement may be used where occasionally half the full quantity of air is required, as they may be put out of gear, thus saving power.

Pressure due to Velocity of the Fan-blades.—"By increasing the number of revolutions of the fan the head or pressure is increased, being that the total head produced is equal (in centrifugal fans) to the height due to the velocity of the extremities of the blades, or approximately in practice" (W. P. Trowbridge, Trans. A. S. M. E.,

1882, p. 17.) This law is analogous to that of the pressure of a jet striking a surface. T. Hawksley, Proc. Inst. M. E., 1882, vol. 1xix., says: "The pressure of a fluid striking a plane surface perpendicularly and then escaping at right angles to its original path is that due to twice the height h due to the velocity."

In a discussion of this question, showing that it is an error to take the pressure as equal to a column of air of the height $h = v^2 \div 2g$, see Wolf on Fans, p. 17.)

Buckle says: "From the experiments it further appears that the velocity of the tips of the fan is equal to nine tenths of the velocity a body would acquire in falling the height of a homogeneous column of air equivalent to the pressure." D. K. Clark (R. T. & D., p. 324), paraphrasing Buckle, apparently says: "It further appears that the pressure generated at the circumference is one ninth greater than that which is due to the actual circumferential velocity of the fan." The two statements, however, are not in

agreement, for if $v = 0.9 \sqrt{2gH}$, $H = \frac{v^2}{0.81 \times 2g} = 1.234 \frac{v^2}{2g}$ and not $1\frac{1}{3} \frac{v^2}{2g}$.

We take the pressure as that equal to a head or column of air of twice the height due to the velocity, as is correctly stated by Trowbridge the parallel statements of Buckle and Clark—which would indicate that the actual pressure is greater than the theoretical—are explained, and the formula becomes $H = .617 \frac{v^2}{g}$ and $v = 1.273 \sqrt{gH} = 0.9 \sqrt{2gH}$, in which H

is the head of a column producing the pressure, which is equal to twice the theoretical head due to the velocity of a falling body (or $h = \frac{v^2}{2g}$), multiplied by the coefficient .617. The difference between 1 and this coefficient expresses the loss of pressure due to friction, to the fact that the inner portions of the blade have a smaller velocity than the outer edge, and probably other causes. The coefficient 1.273 means that the tip of the blade must travel a velocity 1.273 times that theoretically required to produce the head H .

To convert the head H expressed in feet to pressure in lbs. per sq. in., multiply it by the weight of a cubic foot of air at the pressure and temperature of the air expelled from the fan (about .08 lb. usually) and divide by

144. Multiply this by 16 to obtain pressure in ounces per sq. in. or by 2.035 to obtain inches of mercury, or by 27.71 to obtain pressure in inches of water column. Taking .08 as the weight of a cubic foot of air,

$$\begin{aligned} p & \text{ lbs. per sq. in.} &= .0001066v^2; & v = 310 \sqrt{\frac{p}{.08}} \text{ nearly;} \\ p_1 & \text{ ounces per sq. in.} &= .0001706v^2; & v = 80 \sqrt{\frac{p_1}{.08}} \text{ " " } \\ p_2 & \text{ inches of mercury} &= .0002169v^2; & v = 220 \sqrt{\frac{p_2}{.08}} \text{ " " } \\ p_3 & \text{ inches of water} &= .002264v^2; & v = 60 \sqrt{\frac{p_3}{.08}} \text{ " " } \end{aligned}$$

in which v = velocity of tips of blades in feet per second.

Using the above formula by the experiment of Buckle with the vanes 18 inches long, quoted above, we have $p = .0001066v^2 = 9.56$ oz. The experiment gave 9.4 oz.

Using it by the experiment of H. I. Snell, given below, in which the peripheral speed was about 150 ft. per second, we obtain 3.85 ounces, while the experiment gave from 2.38 to 3.50 ounces, according to the amount opening for discharge. The numerical coefficients of the above formulae are all based on Buckle's statement that the velocity of the tips of the fan shall be *nine tenths of the velocity a body would acquire in falling the*

Experiments were undertaken for the purpose of showing the results obtained by running the same fan at different speeds with the discharge-pipe the same throughout the series.

The discharge-pipe was a conical tube 8½ inches inside diameter at end, having an area of 56.74, which is 7% larger than 53 sq. inches; that 53 square inches, equal to .368 square f-eet, is called the area of discharge that is the practical area by which the volume of air is computed.

Experiments on a Fan with Constant Discharge-pipe and Varying Speed.—The first four columns are given by Snell, the others are calculated by the author.

Revs. per min.	Pressure in ounces, <i>p</i>	Vol. of Air in cu. ft. per minute, V	Horse-power.	Velocity of Tips of Blades, ft. per sec.	Velocity due Pressure from Formula $v = 80 \sqrt{p}$.	Coefficient of Formula, $v = x \sqrt{p}$ from Experiment.	Velocity of Air per minute in Exhaust Pipe, $V + .368V$.	Theoretical Horse-power.
600	.50	1336	.25	60.2	56.6	85.1	3,630	.38
800	.88	1787	.70	80.3	75.0	85.6	4,856	.42
1000	1.38	2245	1.35	100.4	94.	85.4	6,100	.64
1200	2.00	2712	2.20	120.4	113.	85.1	7,370	1.47
1400	2.75	3177	3.45	140.5	133.	84.8	8,633	2.23
1600	3.80	3650	5.10	160.6	156.	82.4	9,973	3.83
1800	4.80	4172	8.00	180.6	175.	82.4	11,337	5.42
2000	5.95	4674	11.40	200.7	195.	85.6	12,701	7.52

Mr. Snell has not found any practical difference between the effect of blowers with curved blades and those with straight radial ones.

From these experiments, says Mr. Snell, it appears that we may expect to receive back 65% to 75% of the power expended, and no more.

The great amount of power often used to run a fan is not due to itself, but to the method of selecting, erecting, and piping it.

(For opinions on the relative merits of fans and positive rotary blowers see discussion of Mr. Snell's paper, Trans. A. S. M. E., ix, 66, etc.)

Comparative Efficiency of Fans and Positive Blowers (H. M. Howe, Trans. A. I. M. E., x, 482.)—Experiments with fans and Baker blowers working at moderately low pressures, under 30 ounces, that they work more efficiently at a given pressure when delivering volumes (*i. e.*, when working nearly up to their maximum capacity) when delivering comparatively small volumes. Therefore, when great quantities in the quantity and pressure of blast required are liable to any highest efficiency would be obtained by having a number of blowers, and driving them up to their full capacity, and regulating the amount of blast by altering the number of blowers at work, instead of having one very large blower and regulating the amount of blast by the speed of the blowers.

There appears to be little difference between the efficiency of fans and Baker blowers when each works under favorable conditions as to quantity of work, and when each is in good order.

For a given speed of fan, any diminution in the size of the blast-orifice increases the consumption of power and at the same time raises the pressure of the blast; but it increases the consumption of power per unit of force for a given pressure of blast. When the orifice has been reduced to normal size for any given fan, further diminishing it causes a slight elevation of the blast pressure; and, when the orifice becomes comparatively small, further diminishing it causes no sensible elevation of blast pressure, which remains practically constant, even when the orifice is entirely closed.

Many of the failures of fans have been due to too low speed, to too pulleys, to improper fastening of belts, or to the belts being too narrow; in brief, to bad mechanical arrangement, rather than to inherent defects in the principles of the machine.

eral fans are used, it is probably essential to high efficiency to provide separate blast pipe for each (at least if the fans are of different size), while any number of positive blowers may deliver into the same without lowering their efficiency.

Capacity of Fans and Blowers.

Following tables show the guaranteed air-supply and air-removal of various forms of blowers and exhaust fans. The figures given are often used in practice, especially when the blowers and fans are driven at speeds than stated. The ratings, particularly of the blowers, are those generally given in catalogues, but it was the desire to present a conservative and assured practice. (A. R. Wolff on Ventilation.)

TABLE OF AIR SUPPLIED TO BUILDINGS BY BLOWERS OF VARIOUS SIZES.

Ordinary Number of Revs. per min.	Horse-power to Drive Blower.	Capacity in cu. ft. per min. against a Pressure of 1 ounce per sq. in.	Diameter of Wheel in feet.	Ordinary Number of Revs. per min.	Horse-power to Drive Blower.	Capacity in cu. ft. per min. against a Pressure of 1 ounce per sq. in.
350	6	10,635	9	175	99	56,800
325	9.4	17,000	10	160	35.5	70,340
275	13.5	29,618	12	130	49.5	102,000
230	18.4	42,700	14	110	66	139,000
200	24	46,000	15	100	77	160,000

If the resistance exceeds the pressure of one ounce per square inch, of course, the capacity of the blower will be correspondingly decreased, and allowance for this must be made when the distributors are small, of excessive length, and contain many contractions and bends.

TABLE OF AIR MOVED BY AN APPROVED FORM OF EXHAUST FAN, THE FAN DISCHARGING DIRECTLY FROM ROOM INTO THE ATMOSPHERE.

Ordinary Number of Revs. per min.	Horse-power to Drive Fan.	Capacity in cu. ft. per min.	Diameter of Wheel in feet.	Ordinary Number of Revs. per min.	Horse-power to Drive Fan.	Capacity in cu. ft. per min.
600	0.50	5,000	4.0	475	3.50	28,000
550	0.75	8,000	5.0	350	4.50	35,000
500	1.00	12,000	6.0	300	7.00	50,000
500	2.50	20,000	7.0	250	9.00	80,000

The capacity of exhaust fans here stated, and the horse-power to drive them, are for free exhaust from room into atmosphere. The capacity demanded and the horse-power increases materially as the resistance, resulting from lengths, smallness and bends of ducts, enters as a factor. The differences in the two tables is the main cause of variation in the records. The fan referred to in the second table could not be used with a resistance as one ounce per square inch, the rated resistance of blowers.

CENTRIFUGAL FANS.

Pressures, Velocities, Volume of Air, Horse-Power Required, etc. (B. F. Sturtevant Co.)

1	2	3	4	5	6
$\frac{1}{4}$	2584.80	17.944	0.001224	14662.76	
$\frac{1}{2}$	3657.60	25.400	0.003463	7333.70	
$\frac{3}{4}$	4482.00	31.124	0.005659	4889.11	
1	5175.00	35.93	0.0098	3666.62	
2	7338.24	50.96	0.0278	1833.00	
3	9006.42	62.54	0.0512	1222.20	
4	10421.58	72.37	0.0789	916.27	
5	11676.00	81.08	0.1106	733.39	
6	12817.08	89.01	0.1456	611.10	
7	13872.72	96.34	0.1829	523.81	
8	14861.16	103.20	0.2251	458.43	
9	15795.06	109.69	0.2692	407.42	
10	16683.51	115.86	0.3160	366.69	
11	17533.50	121.76	0.3652	333.40	
12	18350.34	127.43	0.4170	305.56	
13	19138.26	132.90	0.4712	282.05	
14	19900.68	138.20	0.5277	261.91	
15	20640.48	143.34	0.5864	244.44	
16	21360.00	148.33	0.6473	229.17	
17	22060.80	153.26	0.7103	215.77	
18	22745.40	157.96	0.7754	203.71	
19	23415.00	162.60	0.8426	192.28	
20	24070.80	167.16	0.9118	183.33	

* Always give the wind a good wide opening into the furnace to see by this table how much more wind can be discharged with one low pressure than at high.

† This table shows the great advantage of large tuyeres, large pipe blower, and slow speed when the nature of the work will admit.

‡ Number of forges driven with 1.2 H. P. with Sturtevant blower.

Caution in Regard to Use of Fan and Blower Tables. Many engineers report that manufacturers' tables overrate the capacity of their fans and underestimate the horse-power required to drive them. In some cases the complaints may be due to restricted air outlets and crooked pipes, slipping of belts, too small engines, etc.

**Fans, and Steam-coils combined for the
r System of Heating.** (Buffalo Forge Co.)

gine, revs.	Capacity of Fan per Minute at 1 oz. Pressure.	Weight of Fan and Engine.	Floor-space of Fan and Engine. Inches.	Required H. P. to drive Fan.	Usual Size Heater in ft. of Pipe.	Required H. P. of Boiler.
0	8,740	1,900	49 x 38	3.1	1,000	12
5	11,000	1,525	51 x 45	4	1,200	15
0	15,280	1,700	52 x 50	4.5	1,600	20
0	19,900	2,200	52 x 56	6	2,000	25
0	25,900	2,450	59 x 74	7.2	2,500	30
0	32,500	2,700	62 x 84	9.1	3,000	35
0	39,300	3,200	69 x 94	11	3,500	42
5	49,161	3,900	79 x 104	13.5	4,000	48
0	57,720	4,500	83 x 111	15	4,500	54
0	81,120	5,300	87 x 133	20	5,000	62
5	101,250	6,000	92 x 148	22	6,000	72

**Revant Steel Pressure-blower, applied to
Cupola Furnaces.**

No. of sq. in. of Blast.	Cub. feet of Air per minute.	Speed.	Pressure in ounces of Blast.	Horse-power Required.	Power Saved by Reducing the Speed and Pressure of Blast.						
					Speed.	Oz. Press.	H. P.	Speed.	Oz. Press.	H. P.	
4	324	4135	5	0.5							
5.7	507	3756	6	1	3445	5	0.8	3100	4	0.6	
8	768	3250	7	1.8	3000	6	1.5	2750	5	1.1	
10.7	1102	3100	8	3	2900	7	2.5	2700	6	2.	
14.2	1646	2900	10	5.5	2560	8	4.	2390	7	3.3	
18.7	2375	2820	12	9.7	2550	10	7.4	2260	8	5.3	
24.3	3353	2600	14	16.	2380	12	12.7	2150	10	9.4	
32	4416	2270	14	22.	2100	12	16.7	1900	10	12.7	
43	6364	2100	16	35.	1960	14	28.4	1800	12	22.5	
60	8880	1815	16	48.	1700	14	39.6	1566	12	31.7	

ch of blast is sufficient for one forge-fire, or 90 square cupola furnaces.

n is regulated so as to give the pressure of blast stated in e inch.

are inches of blast " refers to the area of a proper shaped harging blast into the open air.

capacity per hour in pounds of iron is made up from an n a few of the best cupolas found, and is reliable in cases s are well constructed and driven with the greatest force he table.

he steel pressure-blower as applied to forge-fires, and for her patterns of blowers and exhausters, see catalogue of Co.

concerning Cupolas, see Foundry Practice.)

**Blast-pipes for Pressure-blowers for Cupola
nances and Forges.** (B. F. Sturtevant Co.)

table has been constructed on this basis, namely : A¹¹ e of 1/2 oz. in the process of transmission through ar se as a standard, the increased friction due to let compensated for by an enlargement of the pipe

to keep the loss still at $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. The quantities of air in the left-hand column of each division indicate the capacity of the given blower with under pressures of 4, 8, 12, and 16 ozs. Thus a No. 6 Blower will transmit 1872 cubic ft. of air, at 8 oz. pressure, through 50 ft. of $12\frac{3}{4}$ -in. pipe of $\frac{1}{2}$ oz. pressure. If it is desired to force the air 300 ft. without a loss by friction, the pipe must be enlarged to $17\frac{3}{4}$ in. diameter.

BLOWER No. 1.						BLOWER No. 6.			
Cubic Feet of Air transmitted per minute.	Lengths of Blast-pipe in Feet.					Cubic Feet of Air transmitted per minute.	Lengths of Blast-pipe in Feet.		
	50	100	150	200	300		50	100	150
	Diameter in inches.						Diameter in inches.		
360	$5\frac{5}{8}$	$6\frac{1}{4}$	$6\frac{3}{4}$	$7\frac{1}{4}$	$7\frac{7}{8}$	1872	$10\frac{5}{8}$	$12\frac{3}{8}$	$13\frac{1}{4}$
515	$6\frac{5}{8}$	$7\frac{1}{8}$	$7\frac{3}{4}$	$8\frac{1}{4}$	$8\frac{5}{8}$	2678	$12\frac{3}{4}$	14	$15\frac{3}{8}$
635	$6\frac{3}{4}$	$7\frac{3}{4}$	$8\frac{3}{8}$	9	$9\frac{5}{8}$	3302	$13\frac{3}{4}$	$15\frac{1}{8}$	$16\frac{1}{2}$
740	$7\frac{1}{4}$	$8\frac{3}{4}$	9	$9\frac{1}{2}$	$10\frac{1}{4}$	3848	$14\frac{3}{8}$	$16\frac{3}{8}$	$17\frac{1}{2}$
BLOWER No. 2.						BLOWER No. 7.			
504	$6\frac{1}{4}$	$7\frac{1}{8}$	$7\frac{3}{4}$	$8\frac{1}{4}$	$8\frac{7}{8}$	2592	12	$13\frac{1}{4}$	15
721	$7\frac{1}{4}$	$8\frac{1}{4}$	9	$9\frac{1}{8}$	$10\frac{1}{4}$	3708	$13\frac{7}{8}$	$15\frac{3}{8}$	$17\frac{1}{4}$
889	$7\frac{7}{8}$	9	$9\frac{1}{4}$	$10\frac{5}{8}$	11	4572	$15\frac{1}{8}$	$17\frac{3}{8}$	$18\frac{5}{8}$
1035	$8\frac{5}{8}$	$9\frac{1}{2}$	$10\frac{3}{8}$	11	$11\frac{1}{4}$	5328	16	$18\frac{1}{2}$	20
BLOWER No. 3.						BLOWER No. 8.			
720	$7\frac{1}{4}$	$8\frac{1}{4}$	9	$9\frac{1}{8}$	$10\frac{1}{4}$	3312	$13\frac{1}{4}$	$15\frac{1}{8}$	$16\frac{1}{4}$
1030	$8\frac{3}{4}$	$9\frac{1}{8}$	$10\frac{3}{8}$	11	$11\frac{3}{4}$	4738	$15\frac{1}{4}$	$17\frac{3}{8}$	$19\frac{1}{4}$
1270	$9\frac{1}{8}$	$10\frac{3}{4}$	$11\frac{1}{4}$	$11\frac{7}{8}$	$12\frac{3}{4}$	5842	$16\frac{3}{8}$	$19\frac{1}{8}$	$20\frac{3}{8}$
1480	$9\frac{5}{8}$	11	12	$12\frac{3}{8}$	$13\frac{1}{2}$	6808	$17\frac{3}{8}$	$20\frac{1}{4}$	$22\frac{1}{2}$
BLOWER No. 4.						BLOWER No. 9.			
1008	$8\frac{1}{4}$	$9\frac{1}{8}$	$10\frac{1}{4}$	$10\frac{7}{8}$	$11\frac{5}{8}$	4320	$14\frac{3}{4}$	17	$18\frac{3}{8}$
1442	$9\frac{1}{4}$	$10\frac{3}{8}$	$11\frac{3}{8}$	$12\frac{1}{2}$	$13\frac{3}{8}$	6180	17	$19\frac{1}{8}$	$21\frac{1}{4}$
1778	$10\frac{3}{8}$	$11\frac{3}{8}$	$12\frac{3}{8}$	$13\frac{3}{8}$	$14\frac{3}{8}$	7630	$18\frac{3}{8}$	$21\frac{3}{4}$	$23\frac{3}{8}$
2072	11	$12\frac{3}{8}$	$13\frac{3}{4}$	$14\frac{3}{4}$	$15\frac{1}{2}$	8880	$19\frac{3}{8}$	$22\frac{3}{4}$	$24\frac{3}{8}$
BLOWER No. 5.						BLOWER No. 10.			
1440	$9\frac{1}{2}$	$10\frac{7}{8}$	$11\frac{7}{8}$	$12\frac{1}{2}$	$13\frac{3}{8}$	5760	$16\frac{1}{4}$	19	$20\frac{3}{8}$
2060	11	$12\frac{3}{8}$	$13\frac{3}{4}$	$14\frac{3}{4}$	$15\frac{3}{8}$	8240	$18\frac{3}{8}$	$21\frac{3}{4}$	$23\frac{3}{8}$
2540	$11\frac{7}{8}$	$13\frac{3}{8}$	$14\frac{7}{8}$	$15\frac{3}{8}$	$16\frac{7}{8}$	10160	$20\frac{3}{8}$	$23\frac{3}{4}$	$25\frac{3}{8}$
2960	$12\frac{3}{4}$	$14\frac{3}{4}$	$15\frac{7}{8}$	$16\frac{3}{8}$	18	11840	$22\frac{3}{8}$	$25\frac{1}{4}$	$27\frac{3}{8}$

ugal Ventilators for Mines.—Of different appliances for mines various forms of centrifugal machines having proved their use now almost completely replaced all others. Most if not all fans in use in this country are of this class, being either openings, or closed, with chimney and spiral casing, of a more or less spiral type. The theory of such machines has been demonstrated by Murgue in "Theories and Practices of Centrifugal Ventilating" translated by A. L. Stevenson, and is discussed in a paper by R. S. S. Trans. A. I. M. E. xx. 637. From this paper the following formulae are given:

Area in sq. ft. of an orifice in a thin plate, of such area that its resistance to the passage of a given quantity of air equals the resistance of the mine;
 Area in a thin plate of such area that its resistance to the passage of a given quantity of air equals that of the machine;
 Quantity of air passing in cubic feet per minute;
 Velocity of air passing through a in feet per second;
 Velocity of air passing through o in feet per second;
 Head in feet air-column to produce velocity V ;
 Head in feet air-column to produce velocity V_0 .

$$Q = 0.65aV; \quad V = \sqrt{2gh}; \quad Q = 0.65a\sqrt{2gh};$$

$$a = \frac{Q}{0.65\sqrt{2gh}} = \text{equivalent orifice of mine};$$

g to water-gauge in inches and quantity in thousands of feet per

$$\frac{.408Q}{\sqrt{W.G.}}; \quad Q = 0.65oV_0; \quad V_0 = \sqrt{2gh_0}; \quad Q = 0.65o\sqrt{2gh_0};$$

$$o = \sqrt{\frac{Q^2}{0.65^2h_02g}} = \text{equivalent orifice of machine.}$$

Theoretical depression which can be produced by any centrifugal ventilator that due to its tangential speed. The formula

$$H = \frac{T^2}{2g} - \frac{V^2}{2g},$$

is the tangential speed, V the velocity of exit of the air from the wheel between the blades, and H the depression measured in feet of air. It is an expression for the theoretical depression which can be produced by an uncovered ventilator; this reaches a maximum when the air leaves the blades without speed, that is, $V = 0$, and $H = T^2 \div 2g$. The theoretical depression which can be produced by any uncovered ventilator is equal to the height due to its tangential speed, and one-half of this can be produced by a covered ventilator with expanding

as the condition of the mine remains constant:
 The depression produced by any ventilator varies directly as the speed of

rotation.

The same tangential speed with decreased resistance the quantity of air passing and the depression diminishes.

The following table shows a few results, selected from Mr. Norris's paper, giving the range of efficiency which may be expected under different circumstances. Details of these and other fans, with diagrams of the results are given in the paper.

Experiments on Mine-ventilating Fans.

Fan.	Revolutions per Minute, Fan.	Periphery Speed, Feet per Min.	Cubic Feet Air per Minute.	Cubic Feet Air per Revolution	Cubical Contents of Fan-blades.	Cub. Feet Air per 100 Feet Periphery Motion.	Water-gauge, Inches.	Horse - power in Air.	Indicated Horse-power of Engine.	Efficiency Engine and Fan.
A	84	5517	236,684	2818	3040	4290	1.80	67.13	28.40	75.9
	100	6282	336,862	3369	3040	5303	2.50	132.70	155.43	85.4
	111	6973	347,396	3130	3040	5002	3.20	175.17	209.64	89.6
B	123	7727	394,100	3204	3040	5100	3.60	223.56	295.21	75.7
	100	6282	188,888	1889	1520	3007	1.40	41.67	97.99	43.5
	120	8167	274,876	2114	1520	3366	2.00	86.63	194.95	44.6
C	59	3702	59,587	1010	1520	1610	1.20	11.27	16.76	67.89
	83	5208	82,969	1000	1520	1593	2.15	27.86	48.54	67.36
	40	3140	49,611	1240	3096	1580	0.87	6.80	13.82	49.2
D	70	5495	137,760	1825	3096	2507	2.55	55.35	67.44	82.07
	50	2749	147,232	2944	1520	5356	0.50	11.60	28.55	40.63
	69	3793	205,761	2982	1520	5451	1.00	32.42	45.98	70.50
E	96	5278	299,600	3121	1520	5676	2.15	101.50	120.64	81.10
	200	7540	133,198	666	746	1767	3.35	70.30	102.73	63.40
	200	7540	180,809	904	746	2398	3.05	86.89	129.07	67.80
F	200	7540	209,150	1046	746	2774	2.80	92.50	150.08	61.70
	10	785	28,896	2890	3022	3680	0.10	0.45	1.30	35.
	20	1570	57,130	2856	3022	3637	0.20	1.80	3.70	49.
G	25	1962	66,640	2665	3022	3399	0.29	2.90	6.10	48.
	30	2355	73,080	2436	3022	3103	0.40	4.60	9.70	47.
	35	2747	94,080	2688	3022	3425	0.50	7.40	15.00	48.
G	40	3140	113,000	2800	3022	3567	0.70	12.30	24.90	40.
	50	3925	132,700	2654	3022	3381	0.90	18.80	38.80	48.
	60	4710	173,600	2893	3022	3686	1.35	36.90	66.40	55.
G	70	5495	208,280	2904	3022	3718	1.80	57.70	107.10	54.
	80	6280	222,320	2779	3022	3540	2.25	78.90	152.60	52.

Type of Fan.	Diam.	Width.	No. Inlets.	Diam. In.
A. Guibal, double.....	20 ft.	6 ft.	4	8 ft. 10
B. Same, only left hand running.	20	6	4	8
C. Guibal.....	20	6	2	8
D. Guibal.....	25	8	1	11
E. Guibal, double.....	17½	4	4	8
F. Capell.....	12	10	2	7
G. Guibal.....	25	8	1	12

An examination of the detailed results of each test in Mr. Norris's shows a mass of contradictions from which it is exceedingly difficult to any satisfactory conclusions. The following, he states, appear to be or less warranted by some of the figures:

1. *Influence of the Condition of the Airways on the Fan.*—Mines varying equivalent orifices give air per 100 feet periphery-motion of within limits as follows, the quantity depending on the resistance of mine:

Equivalent Orifice.	Cu. Ft. Air per 100 ft. Periphery-speed.	Average.	Equivalent Orifice.	Cu. Ft. Air per 100 ft. Periphery-speed.
Under 20 sq. ft.	1100 to 1700	1300	60 to 70	3300 to 5100
20 to 30	1300 to 1800	1600	70 to 80	4000 to 4700
30 to 40	1500 to 2500	2100	80 to 90	3000 to 5600
40 to 50	2300 to 3500	2700	90 to 100	
50 to 60	2700 to 4800	3500	100 to 114	5300 to 6200

The influence of the mine on the efficiency of the fan does not seem very clear. Eight fans, with equivalent orifices over 50 square feet

r 70% ; four, with smaller equivalent mine-orifices, give about 85% ; while, on the contrary, six fans, with equivalent orifices of feet, give lower efficiencies, as do ten fans, all drawing from all equivalent orifices.

In that, on the whole, large airways tend to assist somewhat in efficiency.

of the Diameter of the Fan.—This seems to be practically nil, the range of large fans being in their greater width and the lower range of the engines.

of the Width of a Fan.—This appears to be small as regards the machine ; but the wider fans are, as a rule, exhausting

of Shape of Blades.—This appears, within reasonable limits, to be nil. Thus, six fans with tips of blades curved forward, six with flat blades, and one with blades curved back to a tangent at the tip, all give very high efficiencies—over 70%.

of the Shape of the Spiral Casing.—This appears to be one of the most important shapes of spiral casing in use fall into two classes, the first being a large spiral, beginning at or near the point of cut-off, and the second being a casing reaching around three quarters of the circumference with a short spiral reaching to the *evasée* chimney.

The first form of casing appears to give in almost every case the highest efficiencies.

The second form, having a spiral belonging to the first class, but very much confined to small and medium efficiencies. It seems probable that the proper shape of spiral casing would be one of such form that the air between each blade could constantly and freely discharge into the space between the blades, the whole being swept along to the *evasée* chimney. This is a spiral beginning near the point of cut-off, enlarging by increasing increments to allow for the slowing of the air caused by friction against the casing, and reaching the chimney with an area such as would make its exit with its then existing speed—somewhat less than the theoretical speed of the fan.

of the Shutter.—This certainly appears to be an advantage, as the area can be regulated to suit the varying quantity of air given off, and in this way re-entries can be prevented. It is not uncommon to find closed fans into the chimneys of which bits of paper may be blown, which are drawn into the fan, make the circuit, and are again drawn out. This peculiarity has not been noticed with fans provided with shutters.

of the Speed at which a Fan is Run.—It is noticeable that fans giving high efficiency were running at a rather high speed. The best speed seems to be between 5000 and 6000 feet

per minute. The efficiency appears to reach a maximum and then to decrease rapidly in efficiency when this maximum point is reached.

In a paper of Mr. Norris's, Mr. A. H. Storrs says: From the "cubic contents" and "cubic contents of fan-blades," as given in the report, it is seen that the enclosed fans empty themselves from one half to one third of their capacity, while the open fans are emptied from one and three-quarters to three times. This for fans of both types, on mines covering a wide range of equivalent orifices. One open fan, on a very large mine, emptied nearly four times, while a closed fan, on a still larger mine, emptied only once. For the open fans the "cubic contents" is greater, in proportion to the fan width and equivalent orifice, than for the enclosed type. Notwithstanding this apparently greater capacity of the open fans, they show very low efficiencies.

The very large capacity of centrifugal fans to pass air, if the mine are made favorable, a 16-ft. diam. fan, 4 ft. 6 in. diameter, running at 5000 revolutions, passed 300,000 cu. ft. per min., and another, of same diameter, but slightly wider and with larger intake circles, passed 500,000 cu. ft. per min. in both instances being about $\frac{1}{4}$ in.

Mr. Norris says: The efficiency reported in some cases by Mr. Norris is the highest that has ever been able to determine by experiment. My own experiments, recorded in the Pennsylvania Mine Inspectors' Reports from 1875 to 1885, show more than 60% to 65%.

DISK FANS.

Experiments made with a Blackman Disk Fan, diam. by Geo. A. Suter, to determine the volumes of air delivered at various conditions, and the power required; with calculations of efficiency and ratio of increase of power to increase of velocity, by G. H. Babcock (Trans. A. S. M. E., vii. 547):

Rev. per min.	Cu. ft. of Air delivered per min., V .	Horse-power, HP .	Water-gauge, in., h .	Ratio of Increase of Speed.	Ratio of Increase of Delivery.	Ratio of Increase of Power.	Exponent x , $HP \propto V^x$.	Exponent y , $h \propto V^y$.	Efficiency
350	25,797	0.65	1.0
440	32,575	2.29	1.357	1.262	3.523	5.4	1.0
534	41,929	4.42	1.186	1.287	1.843	2.4	1.0
612	47,756	7.41	1.146	1.139	1.677	3.97	1.0
	For series	1.749	1.851	11.140	4.
340	20,372	0.76
453	26,660	1.99	1.332	1.808	2.618	3.55
536	31,649	3.86	1.183	1.187	1.940	3.86
637	36,543	6.47	1.167	1.155	1.676	3.59
	For series	1.761	1.794	8.513	3.63
340	9,983	1.12	0.28
430	13,017	3.17	0.47	1.265	1.304	2.897	3.03	1.95
534	17,018	6.07	0.75	1.242	1.307	1.915	2.25	1.74
570	18,649	8.46	0.87	1.068	1.096	1.394	3.03	1.60
	For series	1.676	1.704	7.554	3.24	1.81
330	8,399	1.31	0.26
437	10,071	3.37	0.45	1.324	1.199	3.142	6.31	3.06
516	11,157	6.00	0.75	1.181	1.108	1.457	3.66	4.96
	For series	1.563	1.329	4.580	5.35	3.72

Nature of the Experiments.—First Series: Drawing air through 30 ft. 48-in. diam. pipe on inlet side of the fan.

Second Series: Forcing air through 30 ft. of 48-in. diam. pipe on outlet of the fan.

Third Series: Drawing air through 30 ft. of 48-in. pipe on inlet side of fan—the pipe being obstructed by a diaphragm of cheese-cloth.

Fourth Series: Forcing air through 30 ft. of 48-in. pipe on outlet side of the pipe being obstructed by a diaphragm of cheese cloth.

Mr. Babcock says concerning these experiments: The first four experiments are evidently the subject of some error, because the efficiency is as to prove on an average that the fan was a source of power sufficient to overcome all losses and help drive the engine besides. The second series is less questionable, but still the efficiency in the first two experiments is less than might be expected. In the third and fourth series the resistance of cheese-cloth in the pipe reduces the efficiency largely, as would be expected. In this case the value has been calculated from the height equivalent to water-pressure, rather than the actual velocity of the air.

This record of experiments made with the disk fan shows that this kind of fan is not adapted for use where there is any material resistance to the flow of the air. In the centrifugal fan the power used is nearly proportional to the amount of air moved under a given head, while in this fan the power required for the same number of revolutions of the fan increases very materially with the resistance, notwithstanding the quantity of air moved is the same time considerably reduced. In fact, from the inspection of the first and fourth series of tests, it would appear that the power required is nearly the same for a given pressure, whether more or less air be in motion. It would seem that the main advantage, if any, of the disk fan over the centrifugal fan for slight resistances consists in the fact that the delivered quantity of air the opening is much smaller.

be seen by columns 8 and 9 of the table that the power used in much more rapidly than the cube of the velocity, as in centrifugal the different experiments do not agree with each other, but a general may be assumed as about the cube root of the electrical power.

Feet of Air removed by Exhaust Disk-wheel per minute. (Buffalo Forge Co.)

Diameter of Wheel.							
24 Inch.	30 Inch.	36 Inch.	42 Inch.	48 Inch.	54 Inch.	60 Inch.	72 Inch.
Amount of Air in cubic feet per minute.							
.....	4,245	6,059	8,887	14,936
.....	6,405	9,154	12,822	22,926
.....	3,594	5,607	8,686	12,410	17,457	21,267
1,307	2,696	4,541	7,079	11,098	15,822	22,392	39,956
1,684	3,338	5,550	8,621	13,641	19,408	27,327	45,996
2,014	4,042	6,621	10,233	15,315	23,147	32,565	58,386
2,375	4,808	7,755	11,915	19,119	27,048	37,997	67,985
2,770	5,636	8,950	13,967	22,053	31,112	43,632	76,900
3,197	6,516	10,210	15,489	25,127	35,338	49,467
3,656	7,446	11,490	17,381	28,325	39,727	55,152
4,148	8,426	12,816	19,345	31,515	44,277	60,401
4,671	9,456	14,265	21,375	34,310	48,992
5,221	10,536	15,776	23,420	36,940	53,858

Efficiency of Disk Fans.—Prof. A. B. W. Kennedy (*Industries*, Jan. made a series of tests on two disk fans, 2 and 3 ft. diameter, known as the Silent Air-propeller. The principal results and conclusions are presented below.

In case the efficiency of the fan, that is, the quantity of air delivered per horse-power, increases very rapidly as the speed diminishes, lower speeds are much more economical than higher ones. On the other hand, as the quantity of air delivered per revolution is very nearly constant, the actual useful work done by the fan increases almost directly with the speed. Comparing the large and small fans with about the same efficiency, the former (running at a much lower speed, of course) is much more economical. Comparing the two fans running at the same speed, the smaller fan is very much the more economical. The delivery per revolution of fan is very nearly directly proportional to the area of the fan's diameter.

The quantity of air delivered per minute by the 3-ft. fan is nearly 12.5*R* cubic feet (the number of revolutions made by the fan per minute). For the 2-ft. fan the quantity is 5.7*R* cubic feet. For either of these or any other fans of which the area is *A* square feet, the delivery will be about $\frac{A}{200}$ cubic feet. Of course any change in the pitch of the blades might change these figures.

The net H.P. taken up is not far from proportional to the square of the number of revolutions above 100 per minute. Thus for the 3-ft. fan the net H.P. is $\frac{(R-100)^2}{200,000}$, while for the 2-ft. fan the net H.P. is $\frac{(R-100)^2}{1,000,000}$.

The denominators of these two fractions are very nearly proportional in the ratio of the square of the fan areas or the fourth power of the fan diameter. The net H.P. required to drive a fan of diameter *D* feet or area *A* square feet, at a speed of *R* revolutions per minute, will therefore be approximately $\frac{D^4(R-100)^2}{17,000,000}$ or $\frac{A^2(R-100)^2}{10,400,000}$.

The 2-ft. fan was noiseless at all speeds. The 3-ft. fan was also noiseless at 450 revolutions per minute.

Calculations of power, capacity, etc., of blowing-engines are the same as for air-compressors. They are built without any provision for the air during compression. About 400 feet per minute is the usual speed for recent forms of engines, but with positive air-valves, which are introduced to some extent, this speed may be increased. The efficiency of the engine, that is, the ratio of the I.H.P. of the air-cylinder to the steam-cylinder, is usually taken at 90 per cent, the losses by leakage, etc., being taken at 10 per cent.

STEAM-JET BLOWER AND EXHAUSTER.

The blower and exhauster is made by L. Schutte & Co., Philadelphia, on the principle of the steam-jet ejector. The following is a table of capacities:

Quantity of Air per hour in cubic feet.	Diameter of Pipes in inches.		Size No.	Quantity of Air per hour in cubic feet.	Diameter of Pipes in inches.	
	Steam.	Air.			Steam.	Air.
1,000	1½	1	5	30,000	2½	5
2,000	¾	1½	6	36,000	2½	6
4,000	1	2	7	42,000	3	6
6,000	1¼	2½	8	48,000	3	7
12,000	1½	3	9	54,000	3½	7
18,000	2	3½	10	60,000	3½	8
24,000	2	4				

Immissible vacuum and counter pressure, for which the apparatus is fitted, is up to a rarefaction of 20 inches of mercury, and a counter-pressure up to one sixth of the steam-pressure.

The capacity of capacities is based on a steam-pressure of about 60 lbs., and a counter-pressure of about 8 lbs. With an increase of steam-pressure or a counter-pressure the capacity will largely increase.

The steam-jet blower is used for boiler-firing, ventilation, and similar purposes where a low counter-pressure or rarefaction meets the requirements.

The capacities as given in the following table of capacities are under the conditions of a steam-pressure of 45 lbs., and a counter-pressure of, say, 8 lbs. of water:

Cubic feet of Air delivered per hour.	Diameter of Steam-pipe in inches.	Diameter in inches of—		Size No.	Cubic feet of Air delivered per hour	Diam. of Steam-pipe in inches.	Diameter in inches of—	
		Inlet	Disch.				Inlet	Disch.
6,000	¾	4	3	4	250,000	1	17	14
12,000	1½	5	4	6	500,000	1¼	24	20
30,000	1½	8	6	8	1,000,000	1½	32	27
60,000	¾	11	8	10	2,000,000	2	42	36
25,000	1	14	10					

Steam-jet as a Means for Ventilation.—Between 1810 and 1850 the steam-jet was employed to a considerable extent for ventilating collieries, and in 1852 a committee of the House of Commons reported that it was the most powerful and at the same time the cheapest method for the ventilation of mines; but experiments made shortly afterwards proved that this opinion was erroneous, and that furnace ventilation was not only less than half as expensive, and in consequence the jet was soon abandoned as a permanent method of ventilation.

For an account of these experiments see *Colliery Engineer*, Feb. 1850. The steam-jet, however, is sometimes advantageously used as a substitute, for the case of a fan standing for repairs, or after an explosion, where the furnace may not be kept going, or in the case of the fan having become useless.

HEATING AND VENTILATION.

Ventilation. (A. R. Wolff, *Stevens Indicator*, April, 1890)—The popular impression that the impure air falls to the bottom of a crowded room is erroneous. There is a constant mingling of the fresh air admitted with the impure air due to the law of diffusion of gases, to difference of temperature, etc. The process of ventilation is one of dilution of the impure air by the fresh, and a room is properly ventilated in the opinion of the hygienists when the dilution is such that the carbonic acid in the air does not exceed from 6 to 8 parts by volume in 10,000. Pure country air contains about 4 parts CO₂ in 10,000, and badly-ventilated quarters as high as 80 parts.

An ordinary man exhales 0.6 of a cubic foot of CO₂ per hour. New gas gives out 0.75 of a cubic foot of CO₂ for each cubic foot of gas burned. An ordinary lamp gives out 1 cu. ft. of CO₂ per hour. An ordinary gas gives out 0.3 cu. ft. per hour. One ordinary gaslight equals in this effect about 5½ men, an ordinary lamp 1½ men, and an ordinary candle 1 man.

To determine the quantity of air to be supplied to the inmates of a lighted room, to dilute the air to a desired standard of purity, we can establish equations as follows:

Let v = cubic feet of fresh air to be supplied per hour;

r = cubic feet of CO₂ in each 10,000 cu. ft. of the entering air;

R = cubic feet of CO₂ which each 10,000 cu. ft. of the air in the room may contain for proper health conditions;

n = number of persons in the room;

.6 = cubic feet of CO₂ exhaled by one man per hour.

Then $\frac{v \times r}{10,000} + .6n$ equals cubic feet of CO₂ communicated to the room during one hour.

This value divided by v and multiplied by 10,000 gives the proportion of CO₂ in 10,000 parts of the air in the room, and this should equal R , the standard of purity desired. Therefore

$$R = \frac{10,000 \left[\frac{v \times r}{10,000} + .6n \right]}{v}, \text{ or } v = \frac{6000n}{R - r} \dots$$

If we place r at 4 and R at 6, $v = \frac{6000}{6 - 4}n = 3000n, \dots$

or the quantity of air to be supplied per person is 3000 cubic feet per hour.

If the original air in the room is of the purity of external air, and the contents of the room is equal to 100 cu. ft. per inmate, only 3000 - 100 = 2900 cu. ft. of fresh air from without will have to be supplied the first hour to keep the air within the standard purity of 6 parts of CO₂ in 10,000. If the cubic contents of the room equals 200 cu. ft. per inmate, only 3000 - 200 = 2800 cu. ft. will have to be supplied the first hour to keep the air within standard purity, and so on.

Again, if we only desire to maintain a standard of purity of 8 parts carbonic acid in 10,000, equation (1) gives as the required air-supply per

$$v = \frac{6000}{8 - 4}n = 1500n, \text{ or } 1500 \text{ cu. ft. of fresh air per inmate per hour.}$$

Cubic feet of air containing 4 parts of carbonic acid in 10,000 necessary per person per hour to keep the air in room at the composition of

6	7	8	9	10	15	20	} parts of carbonic acid in 10,000 cubic feet.
3000	2000	1500	1200	1000	545	375	

If the original air in the room is of purity of external atmosphere (4 parts of carbonic acid in 10,000), the amount of air to be supplied the first hour for given cubic spaces per inmate, to have given standards of purity exceeded at the end of the hour is obtained from the following table

Cubic Feet of Space in Room per individual.	Proportion of Carbonic Acid in 10,000 Parts of the Air, not to be Exceeded at End of Hour.						
	6	7	8	9	10	15	20
	Cubic Feet of Air, of Composition 4 Parts of Carbonic Acid in 10,000, to be Supplied the First Hour.						
100	2900	1900	1400	1100	900	445	275
200	2800	1800	1300	1000	800	345	175
300	2700	1700	1200	900	700	245	75
400	2600	1600	1100	800	600	145	None
500	2500	1500	1000	700	500	45
600	2400	1400	900	600	400	None
700	2300	1300	800	500	300
800	2200	1200	700	400	200
900	2100	1100	600	300	100
1000	2000	1000	500	200	None
1500	1500	500	None	None
2000	1000	None
2500	500

It is exceptional that systematic ventilation supplies the 3000 cubic feet per inmate per hour, which adequate health considerations demand. Large auditoriums in which the cubic space per individual is great, and in which the atmosphere is thoroughly fresh before the rooms are occupied, and the occupancy is of two or three hours' duration, the systematic air-supply may be reduced, and 2000 to 2500 cubic feet per inmate per hour is a satisfactory allowance.

Hospitals where, on account of unhealthy excretions of various kinds, the ventilation must be largest, an air-supply of from 4000 to 6000 cubic feet per inmate per hour should be provided, and this is actually secured in some hospitals. A report dated March 15, 1882, by a commission appointed to examine the public schools of the District of Columbia, says:

"In each class-room not less than 15 square feet of floor-space should be allotted to each pupil. In each class-room the window-space should not be less than one fourth the floor-space, and the distance of desk most remote from the window should not be more than one and a half times the height of the top of the window from the floor. The height of the class room should never exceed 14 feet. The provisions for ventilation should be such as to provide for each person in a class-room not less than 30 cubic feet of fresh air per minute (1800 per hour), which amount must be introduced and thoroughly distributed without creating unpleasant draughts, or causing any part of the room to differ in temperature more than 2° Fahr., or the maximum temperature to exceed 70° Fahr."

When the air enters at or near the floor, it is desirable that the velocity of the air should not exceed 2 feet per second, which means larger sizes of register openings and flues than are usually obtainable, and much higher velocities of inlet than two feet per second are the rule in practice. The velocity of current into vent-flues can safely be as high as 6 or even 10 feet per second, without being disagreeably perceptible.

The entrance of fresh air into a room is co-incident with, or dependent on, the removal of an equal amount of air from the room. The ordinary means of removal is the vertical vent-duct, rising to the top of the building. Sometimes reliance for the production of the current in this vent-duct is placed solely on the difference of temperature of the air in the room and that of the external atmosphere; sometimes a steam coil is placed within the flue near its bottom to heat the air within the duct; sometimes steam pipes (sinks and returns) run up the duct performing the same functions; or pipes set within the flue, or exhaust fans, driven by steam or electric power, act directly as exhausters; sometimes the heating of the air in the flue is accomplished by gas-jets.

The draft of such a duct is caused by the difference of weight of the

heated air in the duct, and a column of equal height and cross-section of weight of the external air.

Let d = density, or weight in pounds, of a cubic foot of the external air.
Let d_1 = density, or weight in pounds, of a cubic foot of the air within the duct.

Let h = vertical height, in feet, of the vent-duct.
 $h(d - d_1)$ = the pressure, in pounds per square foot, with which the air is forced into and out of the vent-duct.

This pressure can be expressed in height of a column of the air within the vent-duct, and evidently the height of such column whose pressure would be $\frac{h(d - d_1)}{d_1}$.

Or, if t = absolute temperature of external air, and t_1 = absolute temperature of the air in vent-duct in the form, then the pressure equals

$$\frac{h(t_1 - t)}{t}$$

The theoretical velocity, in feet per second, with which the air travels through the vent-duct under this pressure is

$$v = \sqrt{\frac{2gh(t_1 - t)}{t}} = 8.02 \sqrt{\frac{h(t_1 - t)}{t}}$$

The actual velocity will be considerably less than this, on account of friction. This friction will vary with the form and cross-area of the vent-duct and its connections, and with the degree of roughness of its interior surface. On this account, as well as to prevent the loss of air through crevices in the wall, tin lining of vent-flues is desirable.

The loss by friction may be estimated at approximately 50%, and so the actual velocity of the air as it flows through the vent-duct is

$$v = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{2gh(t_1 - t)}{t}}, \text{ or, approximately, } v = 4 \sqrt{\frac{h(t_1 - t)}{t}}$$

If V = velocity of air in vent-duct, in feet per minute, and the external air be at 32° Fahr., since the absolute temperature on Fahrenheit scale is thermometric temperature plus 459.4,

$$V = 240 \sqrt{\frac{h(t_1 - t)}{491.4}}$$

from which has been computed the following table :

Quantity of Air, in Cubic Feet, Discharged per Minute through a Ventilating Duct, of which the Cross-sectional Area is One Square Foot (the External Temperature of Air being 32° Fahr.).

Height of Vent-duct in feet.	Excess of Temperature of Air in Vent-duct above External Air.							
	5°	10°	15°	20°	25°	30°	50°	100°
10	77	108	133	153	171	188	242	342
15	94	133	162	188	210	230	297	419
20	108	153	188	217	242	265	342	484
25	121	171	210	242	271	297	383	541
30	133	188	230	265	297	325	419	593
35	143	203	248	286	320	351	453	640
40	153	217	265	306	342	375	484	680
45	162	230	282	325	363	396	514	720
50	171	242	297	342	383	419	541	760

Multiplying the figures in above table by 60 gives the cubic feet of air discharged per hour per square foot of cross-section of vent-duct.

s-sectional area of vent-ducts we can find the total discharge; or sized air-removal, we can proportion the cross-sectional area of its required.

Icical Cooling of Air for Ventilation. (*Engineering* July 7, 1892.)—A pound of coal used to make steam for a fairly effi- refrigerating-machine can produce an actual cooling effect equal to duced by the melting of 16 to 46 lbs. of ice, the amount varying conditions of working. Or, 855 heat-units per lb. of coal converted rk in the refrigerating plant (at the rate of 3 lbs. coal per horse- ound) will abstract 2275 to 6545 heat-units of heat from the refriger- ly. If we allow 2000 cu. ft. of fresh air per hour per person as suffi- fair ventilation, with the air at an initial temperature of 80° F., its per cubic foot will be .0736 lb.; hence the hourly supply per person gh 2000 × .0736 lb. = 147.2 lbs. To cool this 10°, the specific heat of g 0.238, will require the abstraction of 147.2 × 0.238 × 10 = 350 heat- r person per hour.

g the figures given for the refrigerating effect per pound of coal as ated, and the required abstraction of 350 heat-units per person per ave a satisfactory cooling effect, the refrigeration obtained from a f coal will produce this cooling effect for 2275 ÷ 350 = 6.5 hours with the efficient working, or 6545 ÷ 350 = 18.7 hours with the most efficient . With ice at \$5 per ton, Mr. Wolff computes the cost of cooling with out \$5 per hour per thousand persons, and concludes that this is too re for any general use. With mechanical refrigeration, however, if me 10 hours' cooling per person per pound of coal as a fair practical in regular work, we have an expense of only 15 cts. per thousand per hour, coal being estimated at \$3 per short ton. This is for fuel d the various items of oil, attendance, interest, and depreciation on r, etc., must be considered in making up the actual total cost of cal refrigeration.

ventilation—Friction of Air in Underground Pas-

—In ventilating a mine or other underground passage the resistance ercome is, according to most writers on the subject, proportional to nt of the frictional surface exposed; that is, to the product *lo* of the f the gangway by its perimeter, to the density of the air in circula- he square of its average speed, *v*, and lastly to a coefficient *k*, whose al value varies according to the nature of the sides of the gangway rregularities of its course.

rmula for the loss of head, neglecting the variation in density as tant, is $p = \frac{ksv^2}{a}$, in which *p* = loss of pressure in pounds per square

square feet of rubbing-surface exposed to the air, *v* the velocity of feet per minute, *a* the area of the passage in square feet, and *k* the nt of friction. W. Fairley, in *Colliery Engineer*, Oct. and Nov. es the following formulae for all the quantities involved, using the ation as the above, with these additions: *h* = horse-power of ven- *l* = length of air-channel; *o* = perimeter of air-channel; *q* = quan- air circulating in cubic feet per minute; *u* = units of work, in foot- applied to circulate the air; *w* = water-gauge in inches. Then,

$$1. a = \frac{ksv^2}{p} = \frac{ksv^2q}{u} = \frac{ksv^3}{pv} = \frac{u}{pv} = \frac{q}{v'}$$

$$2. h = \frac{u}{33,000} = \frac{qp}{33,000} = \frac{5.2qw}{33,000}$$

$$3. k = \frac{pa}{sv^2} = \frac{u}{sv^3} = \frac{p}{sv^2 + a} = \frac{5.2w}{sv^2 + a}$$

$$4. l = \frac{s}{o} = \frac{pa}{kv^2o}$$

$$5. o = \frac{s}{l} = \frac{pa}{kv^2l}$$

$$6. p = \frac{ksv^2}{a} = \frac{u}{q} = 5.2w = \left(\sqrt[3]{\frac{u}{ks}} \right)^2 \frac{ks}{a} = \frac{ksv^3}{q} = \frac{u}{av}$$

$$11. v = \frac{u}{pa} = \frac{q}{a} = \sqrt[3]{\frac{u}{ks}} = \sqrt[3]{\frac{qp}{ks}} = \sqrt{\frac{pa}{ks}}$$

$$12. v^2 = \frac{pa}{ks} = \left(\sqrt[3]{\frac{u}{ks}}\right)^2$$

$$13. v^3 = \frac{u}{ks} = \frac{qp}{ks} = \frac{vpa}{ks}$$

$$14. w = \frac{p}{5.2} = \frac{ksv^2}{5.2a}$$

To find the quantity of air with a given horse-power and engine:

$$q = \frac{h \times 33,000 \times e}{p}$$

The value of k , the coefficient of friction, as stated, varie the nature of the sides of the gangway. Widely divergent va given by different authorities (see *Colliery Engineer*, Nov. generally accepted one until recently being probably that of .0000000217, which is the pressure per square foot in decimals each square foot of rubbing-surface and a velocity of one fo Mr. Fairley, in his "Theory and Practice of Ventilating Coal- value less than half of Atkinson's, or .00000001; and recent exp Murgue show that even this value is high under most conditi results are given in his paper on Experimental Investigations Head of Air-currents in Underground Workings, Trans. A. vol. xxiii, 63. His coefficients are given in the following table, in twelve experiments:

		Coeffie	
		Head	
		French	
Rock. gangways.	{	Straight, normal section00092
		Straight, normal section00094
		Straight, large section00104
		Straight, normal section00122
Brick-lined	{	Straight, normal section00030
		Straight, normal section00036

k in square feet of equivalent orifice.

$$\frac{rQ}{w} = \frac{Q}{2.7 \sqrt{w}}; \quad Q = \frac{A \times \sqrt{w}}{0.37}; \quad w = 0.1369 \times \left(\frac{Q}{A}\right)^2.$$

Column or the Head of Air Due to Differences in Temperature, etc. (Fairley.)

h = vertical column in feet;
 t = temperature of upcast;
 T = height of one cubic foot of the flowing air;
 t' = temperature of downcast;
 w = weight of downcast.

$$\frac{T - t}{T \times 459} \text{ or } \frac{5.2 \times w}{f}; \quad p = f \times M; \quad w = \frac{f \times M}{5.2} = \frac{p}{5.2}.$$

D = diameter of a round airway to pass the same amount of air as a square airway of the same length and power remaining the same:

A = area of round airway; A' = area of square airway; O = perimeter of round airway. Then $D^3 = \sqrt[3]{\frac{A^2 \times 3.1416}{.7854 \times O}}$.

Two fans are employed to ventilate a mine, each of which when worked separately produces a certain quantity, which may be indicated by A and B . The quantity of air that will pass when the two fans are worked together is $A + B^2$. (For mine-ventilating fans, see page 521.)

Efficiency of Fans and Heated Chimneys for Ventilating.

W. P. Trowbridge, Trans. A. S. M. E. vii. 531, gives a theory of the relative amounts of heat expended to remove a given quantity of pure air by a fan and by a chimney. Assuming the total efficiency of a fan to be only 1/35, which is made up of an efficiency of 1/10 for the fan itself, and 8/10 for efficiency as regards friction, and assuming an expenditure of heat to drive it of only 1/38 of the amount required to produce the same ventilation by a chimney 100 ft. high the fan will be 7.6 times more efficient.

In cases of moderate ventilation of rooms or buildings where the air is not drawn from the rooms and spontaneous ventilation is not

etc., is calculated as follows:

- S = amount of transmitting surface in square feet;
 t = temperature F. inside, t_0 = temperature outside;
 K = a coefficient representing, for various materials composed of various units per hour, for each degree of difference of temperature on the two sides of the material;
 Q = total heat transmission = $SK(t - t_0)$.

This quantity of heat is also the amount that must be conveyed into the room in order to make good the loss by transmission, but it is necessary to add the additional heat to be conveyed on account of the changes of ventilation. The coefficients K given below are those recommended by law by the German Government in the design of the heating of public buildings, and generally used in Germany for all buildings. They have been converted into American units by Mr. Wolff, and they agree well with good American practice:

VALUE OF K FOR EACH SQUARE FOOT OF BRICK WALL

Thickness of brick wall.	4"	8"	12"	16"	20"	24"	28"	32"
	0.68	0.46	0.33	0.26	0.23	0.20	0.174	0.15
1 sq. ft., wooden-beam construction, planked over or ceiled,	} as flooring } as ceiling.							
1 sq. ft., fireproof construction, floored over,	} as flooring } as ceiling.							
1 sq. ft., single window	} as flooring							
1 sq. ft., single skylight	} as ceiling.							
1 sq. ft., double window	} as flooring							
1 sq. ft., double skylight	} as ceiling.							
1 sq. ft., door	} as flooring							

These coefficients are to be increased respectively as follows: 10% when the building is exposed to a northerly exposure; 10% when the building is heated during the daytime only, and the location of the building is not an exposed one; 30% when heated during the daytime only, and the location of the building is an exposed one; 50% when the building is heated during the winter months with long intervals (say days or weeks) of non-heating.

The value of the radiating-surface is about as follows: Ordinary cast-iron radiating-surfaces, in American radiators (of Bu

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heated to 69°, except a double skylight in ceiling, 14 × 24 ft., outside temperature of 0°. Store-room beyond east wall at 12 ft. in wall. Corridor beyond south wall heated to 69°, 12, in wall. Cellar below, temperature 36°. The following table shows the calculation of heat transmission:

of Transmitting Surface.	Thickness of wall in inches.	Calculation of Area of Transmitting Surface.	Square feet of Surface.	$K(t - t_0)$.	Thermal Units.
wall.....	36"	63 × 22 = 448	938	9	8,442
windows (single).....		4 × 8 × 14	448	72	32,256
wall (store-room).....	36"	42 × 22 = 72	852	4	3,408
		6 × 12	72	19	1,368
wall (corridor).....	24"	45 × 22 = 72	918	2	1,836
		6 × 12	72	5	360
wall (corridor).....	36"	17 × 22 = 72	302	1	302
		6 × 12	72	5	360
		32 × 42 = 336	1,008	10	10,080
skylight.....		14 × 24	336	43	14,448
		62 × 42	2,604	4	10,416
					83,276
plementary allowance, north outside wall, 10%.....					814
" " " north outside windows, 10%.....					3,226
					87,346
d location and intermittent day or night use, 30% ...					26,204
al thermal units					113,550

That the lecture-room must be heated to 69 degrees Fahr. in when unoccupied, so as to be at this temperature when first occupied, there will be required, ventilation not being considered, and low-pressure steam-radiators being the heating media, about 455 sq. ft. of radiating-surface. (This gives a ratio of about 100 sq. ft. of radiating-surface for each sq. ft. of contents of room for each sq. ft. of heating-surface.)

Assuming that there are 160 persons in the lecture-room, and we provide 400 cubic feet of fresh air per person per hour, we will supply 160 × 400 = 64,000 cubic feet of air per hour (i.e., $\frac{400,000}{48,000}$ = over eight changes of air per hour).

64,000 cubic feet of air from 0° Fahr. to 69° Fahr. will require 400,000 × 0.0189 × 69 = 501,960 thermal units per hour (0.0189 being the product of a weight of 1 lb. of air by the specific heat of air). Accordingly there must be provided 501,960 sq. ft. of indirect surface, to heat the air required for the lecture-room in zero weather. If the room were to be warmed entirely indirectly by the air supplied to room (including the heat to be conveyed by transmission through walls, etc.), there would have to be provided 501,960 ÷ 4 = 125,490 sq. ft. of indirect heating-surface. This is the provision of an amount of indirect heating-surface of the order of 125,490 ÷ 400 = 313.7 sq. ft., and the fresh air entering the room would have to be at a temperature of about 84° Fahr., viz., 69° =

$\frac{69}{4} + 69 + 15 = 84^\circ$ Fahr.

In these calculations do not, however, take into account that 160 persons in the lecture-room give out 160 × 400 = 64,000 thermal units per hour; 50 electric lights give out 50 × 1600 = 80,000 thermal units per hour; 50 gaslights, 50 × 4800 = 240,000 thermal units per hour. The heat given out by the people and the gas-lighting would diminish considerably the amount of indirect heating-surface at required. Practically, it appears that the heat generated by the people and the gas-lighting, a total of 144,000 heat-units, more than covers the amount of heat transmitted through walls, etc. Moreover, that if the 50 gaslights give out 240,000 thermal units per hour, the air supplied for ventilation must be heated to a temperature below 69° Fahr., or the room will be heated to an unacceptably high temperature. If 400,000 cubic feet of fresh air per hour

are supplied, and 240,000 thermal units per hour generated by the be abstracted, it means that the air must, under these conditions

$\frac{240,000}{400,000 \times .0189} = \text{about } 32^\circ \text{ less than } 84^\circ, \text{ or at about } 52^\circ \text{ Fahr.}$
 more, the additional vitiation due to gaslighting would necessitate a larger supply of fresh air than when the vitiation of the atmosphere by people alone is considered, one gaslight vitiating the air as much as 10 men.

Various Rules for Computing Radiating-surface
 following rules are compiled from various sources. They are of the nature of "rule-of-thumb" rules than those given by Mr. Wood, above, but they may be useful for comparison.

Divide the cubic feet of space of the room to be heated, the square feet of wall surface, and the square feet of the glass surface by the given under these headings in the following table, and add the results together; the result will be the square feet of radiating-surface (F. Schumann.)

SPACE, WALL AND GLASS SURFACE WHICH ONE SQUARE FOOT OF SURFACE WILL HEAT.

Air Change.	Steam-pressure in pounds.	Space in cubic feet.	Exposure of Rooms.				
			All Sides.		Northwest.		South.
			Wall Surface, sq. ft.	Glass Surface, sq. ft.	Wall Surface, sq. ft.	Glass Surface, sq. ft.	Wall Surface, sq. ft.
Once per hour.	1	190	13.8	7	15.87	8.05	16.56
	3	210	15.0	7.7	17.25	8.85	18.00
	5	225	16.5	8.5	18.97	9.77	19.80
Twice per hour.	1	75	11.1	5.7	12.76	6.55	13.22
	3	82	12.1	6.2	13.91	7.13	14.52
	5	90	13.0	6.7	14.52	7.60	15.60

EMISSION OF HEAT-UNITS PER SQUARE FOOT PER HOUR FROM CAST-IRON RADIATORS. TEMP. OF AIR IN ROOM, 70° F. (F. Schumann)

Mean Temperature of Heated Pipe, Radiator, etc.	By Contact.		By Radiation.	By Radiation and Contact.
	Air quiet.	Air moving.		
Hot water..... 140°	55.51	92.52	59.63	115.14
" " 150°	65.45	109.18	69.69	135.14
" " 160°	75.68	126.13	80.19	155.87
" " 170°	86.18	143.30	91.12	177.30
" " 180°	96.93	161.55	102.15	199.43
" " 190°	107.90	179.83	114.45	222.35
" " 200°	119.13	198.55	127.00	246.13
" " or steam..... 210°	130.49	217.48	139.96	270.49
Steam..... 220°	142.30	237.00	155.27	297.47
" 230°	153.95	256.58	169.56	323.51
" 240°	165.90	279.83	184.58	350.48
" 250°	178.00	296.65	200.18	378.18
" 260°	189.90	316.50	214.36	404.36
" 270°	202.70	337.83	233.42	436.14
" 280°	215.30	358.85	251.21	466.51
" 290°	228.55	380.31	267.73	496.28
" 300°	240.85	401.41	279.12	523.35

HEATING-SURFACE REQUIRED FOR DIFFERENT KINDS OF BUILDINGS. (From the office of the Dubuque Steam Supply Co., External Air 0° F. Chas. A. Babcock.)

	Cubic ft. of Room heated by 1 sq. ft. of Surface.		Cubic ft. of Room heated by 1 sq. ft. of Surface.	
	Direct System.	Indirect System.	Direct System.	Indirect System.
Warehouses.....	50	40	Banks, offices, drug-stores	70 60
Wholesale.....	125	100	Large hotels.....	125 100
Retail.....	100	80	Churches.....	200 150

Nason Mfg. Co.'s catalogue gives the following: One square foot of surface will heat from 40 to 100 cu. ft. of space to 75° in - 10° latitudes. The size is intended to meet conditions of exposed or corner rooms of 8°, and those less so, as intermediate ones of a block. As a general rule, 1 sq. ft. of surface will heat 70 cu. ft. of air in outer or front rooms and 40 cu. ft. in inner rooms. In large stores in cities with buildings on each side, 100 is ample.

APPROXIMATE PROPORTIONS OF RADIATING-SURFACES.

One square foot radiating-surface will heat:

	In dwellings, schoolrooms, offices, etc.	In hall, stores, lofts, factories, etc.	In churches, large auditoriums, etc.
Heat radiation...	60 to 80 ft.	75 to 100 ft.	150 to 200 ft.
Direct radiation.	40 to 50 "	50 to 70 "	100 to 140 "

Exposed buildings exposed to prevailing north or west winds should have an addition made to the heating-surface on their exposed sides. The following rule is given in the catalogue of the Babcock & Wilcox Co., and is recommended by the Nason Mfg. Co.:

The heating-surface may be calculated by the rule: Add together the square feet of glass in the windows, the number of cubic feet of air required to be heated per minute, and one twentieth the surface of external wall and multiply this sum by the difference between the required temperature of the room and that of the external air at its lowest point, and divide the result by the difference in temperature between the steam in the pipes and the required temperature of the room. The quotient is the required heating-surface in square feet.

Overhead Steam-pipes. (A. R. Wolff, *Stevens Indicator*, 1887.)—In the overhead system of steam-heating is employed, in which system radiating pipes, usually 1½ in. in diam., are placed in rows overhead, supported upon horizontal racks, the pipes running horizontally, and side by side around the whole interior of the building, from 2 to 3 ft. from the floor and from 2 to 4 ft. from the ceiling, the amount of 1½ in. pipe required according to Mr. C. J. H. Woodbury, for heating mills (for which system is deservedly much in vogue), is about 1 ft. in length for 8 cu. ft. of space. Of course a great range of difference exists, due to the special character of the operating machinery in the mill, both in regard to the amount of air circulated by the machinery, and also the aid to the room by the friction of the journals.

Indirect Heating-surface.—J. H. Kinealy, in *Heating and Ventilation*, May 15, 1894, gives the following formula, deduced from results of experiments by C. B. Richards, W. J. Baldwin, J. H. Mills, and others, upon heaters of various kinds, supplied with varying amounts of air per square foot of surface:

$$= \frac{35.04}{T_2 - T_1 - 0.369} ; T_2 = (T_0 - T_1) \left(0.869 + \frac{35.04}{AV} \right) + T_1.$$

Cubic feet of air, reduced to 70° F., supplied to the heater per square foot of heating-surface per hour;
 Temperature of the steam or water in the heater;
 Temperature of the air when it enters the heater;
 Temperature of the air when it leaves the heater.

This formula is based upon an average of experiments made with indirect heaters, the results obtained by the use of the same in some cases be slightly too small and in others slightly too

although the error will in no case be great. No single formula ought to be expected to apply equally well to all dispositions of heating-surface in direct heaters, as the efficiency of such heater can be varied between wide limits by the construction and arrangement of the surface.

In indirect heating, the efficiency of the radiating-surface will increase and the temperature of the air will diminish, when the quantity of the air caused to pass through the coil increases. Thus 1 sq. ft. radiating-surface with steam at 213°, has been found to heat 100 cu. ft. of air per hour from zero to 150°, or 300 cu. ft. from zero to 100° in the same time. The best results are attained by using indirect radiation to supply the necessary ventilation, and direct radiation for the balance of the heat. (*Steam.*)

In indirect steam-heating the least flue area should be 1 to 1½ sq. ft. to every square foot of heating-surface, provided there are no long horizontal reaches in the duct, with little rise. The register should have twice the area of the duct to allow for the fretwork. For hot water heating from 30% more heating-surface and flue area should be given than for low pressure steam. (*Engineering Record*, May 26, 1894.)

Boiler Heating-surface Required. (A. R. Wolff, *Steam Indicator*, 1887.)—When the direct system is used to heat buildings in which the street floor is a store, and the upper floors are devoted to sales and stock rooms and to light manufacturing, and in which the fronts are of stone or iron, and the sides and the rear of building of brick—a safe rule to follow is to supply 1 sq. ft. of boiler heating-surface for each 700 cu. ft., and 1 sq. ft. of radiating-surface for each 100 cu. ft. of contents of building.

For heating mills, shops, and factories, 1 sq. ft. of boiler heating-surface should be supplied for each 475 cu. ft. of contents of building; and the same allowance should also be made for heating exposed wooden dwellings. In heating foundries and wooden shops, 1 sq. ft. of boiler heating-surface should be provided for each 400 cu. ft. of contents; and for structures in which glass enters very largely in the construction—such as conservatories, exhibition buildings, and the like—1 sq. ft. of boiler heating-surface should be provided for each 275 cu. ft. of contents of building.

When the indirect system is employed, the radiator-surface and the boiler capacity to be provided will each have to be, on an average, about 25% more than where direct radiation is used. This percentage also marks approximately the increased fuel consumption in the indirect system.

Steam (Babcock & Wilcox Co.) has the following: 1 sq. ft. of boiler-surface will supply from 7 to 10 sq. ft. of radiating-surface, depending upon the size of boiler and the efficiency of its surface, as well as that of the radiating surface. Small boilers for house use should be much larger proportionally than large plants. Each horse-power of boiler will supply from 340 to 400 sq. ft. of 1-in. steam-pipe, or 80 to 120 sq. ft. of radiating surface. Cubic feet of space has little to do with amount of steam or surface required, but is a convenient factor for rough calculations. Under ordinary conditions one horse-power will heat, approximately, in—

Brick dwellings, in blocks, as in cities	15,000	to	20,000	cu. ft.
“ stores “ “ “	10,000	“	15,000	“
“ dwellings, exposed all round	10,000	“	15,000	“
“ mills, shops, factories, etc.	7,000	“	10,000	“
Wooden dwellings, exposed	7,000	“	10,000	“
Foundries and wooden shops	6,000	“	10,000	“
Exhibition buildings, largely glass, etc.	4,000	“	15,000	“

Proportion of Grate-surface to Radiator-surface.

(J. R. Willett, *Heating and Ventilation*, Feb. 1894.)

Radiator-surf., } sq. ft.	100	200	400	600	800	1000	1200	1400	1600	1800
Grate-surface, } sq. in.	120	208	362	501	630	754	872	986	1100	1210

Steam-consumption in Car-heating.

C., M. & ST. PAUL RAILWAY TESTS. (*Engineering*, June 27, 1890, p. 78)

Outside Temperature.	Inside Temperature.	Water of Condensat per Car per Hour
	70	70 lbs.
	70	85
	70	100

Internal Diameters of Steam Supply-mains, with Total Resistance equal to 2 inches of Water-column,*

Steam Pressure 10 lbs. per square inch above atm., Temperature 239° F.

Formula, $d = 0.5374 \sqrt[5]{\frac{Q^2 l}{h}}$; where d = internal diameter in inches;

Q = 2.3 cubic feet of steam per minute per 100 sq. ft. of radiating-surface;

l = length of mains in feet; h = 159.3 feet head of steam to produce flow.

Internal Diameters in inches for Lengths of Mains from 1 ft. to 600 ft.										
1 ft.	10 ft.	20 ft.	40 ft.	60 ft.	80 ft.	100 ft.	200 ft.	300 ft.	400 ft.	600 ft.
1 ft. inch.	inch.	inch.	inch.	inch.	inch.	inch.	inch.	inch.	inch.	inch.
1	0.075	0.119	0.136	0.157	0.170	0.180	0.189	0.216	0.234	0.248
10	0.19	0.30	0.34	0.39	0.43	0.45	0.47	0.54	0.59	0.63
20	0.25	0.39	0.45	0.52	0.56	0.60	0.62	0.72	0.78	0.82
40	0.33	0.52	0.60	0.69	0.74	0.79	0.82	0.95	1.03	1.09
60	0.39	0.61	0.71	0.81	0.87	0.93	0.97	1.11	1.21	1.28
80	0.43	0.68	0.79	0.90	0.98	1.04	1.09	1.25	1.35	1.43
100	0.47	0.75	0.86	0.99	1.07	1.14	1.19	1.36	1.48	1.57
200	0.62	0.99	1.14	1.30	1.41	1.50	1.57	1.80	1.95	2.07
300	0.73	1.16	1.34	1.53	1.66	1.76	1.84	2.12	2.30	2.43
400	0.82	1.30	1.50	1.73	1.86	1.98	2.07	2.37	2.57	2.73
600	0.90	1.43	1.64	1.88	2.04	2.16	2.26	2.60	2.81	2.98
800	0.97	1.53	1.76	2.03	2.20	2.33	2.43	2.79	3.03	3.21
1000	1.05	1.72	1.98	2.27	2.46	2.61	2.73	3.13	3.40	3.60
1200	1.12	1.88	2.16	2.48	2.69	2.85	2.98	3.43	3.71	3.94
1400	1.25	2.04	2.33	2.67	2.90	3.07	3.21	3.68	4.00	4.23
1600	1.36	2.15	2.47	2.84	3.08	3.26	3.41	3.92	4.25	4.50
1800	1.43	2.27	2.61	3.00	3.25	3.44	3.60	4.13	4.49	4.75
2000	1.50	2.38	2.74	3.14	3.41	3.61	3.78	4.34	4.70	4.98
2200	1.57	2.48	2.85	3.28	3.55	3.76	3.93	4.52	4.90	5.19
2400	1.64	2.52	2.96	3.45	3.71	3.93	4.11	4.71	5.11	5.42
2600	1.71	2.62	3.06	3.65	3.95	4.18	4.37	5.02	5.44	5.77
2800	1.78	2.72	3.16	3.85	4.18	4.43	4.63	5.32	5.77	6.11
3000	1.84	2.82	3.26	4.03	4.39	4.66	4.87	5.64	6.11	6.47
3200	1.90	2.92	3.36	4.23	4.63	4.91	5.13	5.96	6.47	6.85
3400	1.97	3.02	3.46	4.43	4.89	5.19	5.42	6.27	6.85	7.24

*From Robert Briggs's paper on American Practice of Warming Buildings Steam (Proc. Inst. C. E., 1883, vol. lxxi).

For other resistances and pressures above atmosphere multiply by the pective factors below:

Per col. 6 in. 12 in. 24 in. | Press. ab. atm. 0 lbs. 3 lbs. 30 lbs. 60 lbs.
 Multiply by 0.8027 0.6988 0.6084 | Multiply by 1.023 1.015 0.973 0.948

Registers and Cold-air Ducts for Indirect Steam Heating.

The *Locomotive* gives the following table of openings for registers and cold-air ducts, which has been found to give satisfactory results. The cold-boxes should have 1½ sq. in. area for each square foot of radiator surface, never less than ¾ the sectional area of the hot-air ducts. The hot air ducts should have 2 sq. in. of sectional area to each square foot of radiator area on the first floor, and from 1½ to 2 inches on the second floor.

Radiating Surface in Stacks.	Cold-air Supply, First Floor.		Size Register.	Cold-air Supply, 2d Floor.
	inches		inches	inches
45 square feet	5 by 9		9 by 12	4 by 10
60 " "	6 by 10		10 by 14	4 by 14
75 " "	8 by 10		10 by 14	5 by 15
90 " "	9 by 10		12 by 15	6 by 15
108 " "	9 by 12		12 by 19	6 by 18
120 " "	10 by 12		12 by 22	8 by 15
135 " "	11 by 12		14 by 24	9 by 15
150 " "	12 by 12		16 by 20	12 by 19

*Unless in the table approximate to the rules given, and it will be an easy flow of air and a full distribution through the registers to be heated.

Physical Properties of Steam and Condensed Water under Conditions of Ordinary Practice in Warming Steam. (Briggs.)

A	Steam-pressure } above atm... per square inch } total.....	lbs.	0	3	10	30
		lbs.	14.7	17.7	24.7	44.7
B	Temperature of steam.....	Fahr.	212°	229°	239°	274°
C	Temperature of air.....	Fahr.	60°	60°	60°	60°
D	Difference = B - C.....	Fahr.	152°	169°	179°	214°
E	Heat given out per minute per 100 sq. ft. of radiating-surface = D × 3	} units	456	486	537	642
F	Latent heat of steam.....	Fahr.	905°	958°	940°	921°
G	Volume of 1 lb. weight of steam	cu. ft.	26.4	22.1	16.2	9.24
H	Weight of 1 cubic foot of steam	lb.	0.0380	0.0452	0.0618	0.108
J	Volume Q of steam per minute to give out E units = E × G ÷ F.	} cu. ft.	12.48	11.21	9.30	6.44
K	Weight of 1 cubic foot of condensed water at temperature B.	} lbs.	59.64	59.51	59.05	58.07
L	Volume of condensed water to return to boiler per minute = J × H + K.	cu. ft.	0.0079	0.0085	0.0096	0.0120
M	Head of steam equivalent to 12 inches water-column = K ÷ H.	feet	1569	1317	955.5	586.7
STEAM-SUPPLY MAINS.						
N	Head h of steam, equivalent to assumed 2 inches water- column for producing steam flow Q, = M ÷ 6.	} feet	261.5	219.5	159.3	89.43
P	Internal diameter d of tube* for flow Q when l = 1 foot.	inch	0.484	0.481	0.474	0.461
R	Do. do. when l = 100 feet.	inch	1.217	1.207	1.190	1.138
S	Ratios of values of d.	ratio	1.023	1.015	1.000	0.973
WATER-RETURN MAINS.						
T	Head h assumed at 1/8-inch water-column for producing full-bore water-flow Q.	} foot	0.0417	0.0417	0.0417	0.0417
U	Internal diameter d of tube* for flow Q when l = 1 foot.	inch	0.147	0.151	0.158	0.153
V	Do. do. when l = 100 feet.	inch	0.369	0.373	0.378	0.438
W	Ratios of values of d.	ratio	0.926	0.932	1.000	1.092

* P, P, U, V are each determined from the formula $d = 0.5374 \sqrt[5]{\frac{Qh}{A}}$

Size of Steam Pipes for Steam Heating. (See also *Flow of Steam in Pipes*.)—*Sizes of vertical main pipes, Direct radiation.* Willeit, *Heating and Ventilation*, Feb., 1894.)

Diameter of pipe, inches. 1 1 1/4 1 1/2 2 2 1/4 3 3 1/4 4 5
Sq. ft. of radiator surface 40 70 110 220 360 560 810 1110 1300

A horizontal branch pipe for a given extent of radiator surface should be one size larger than a vertical pipe for the same surface.

The Nason Mfg. Co. gives the following:

Diameter of pipe, in. 1 1/4 1 1/2 2 2 1/4 3 3 1/4
Radiator surface sq. ft. (maximum) .. 125 200 500 1000 1500 2500

When mains and surfaces are very much above the boiler the pipes should be as large as given above; under very favorable circumstances

as a 4-inch pipe may supply from 2000 to 2500 sq. ft. of surface, a 6-inch for 5000 sq. ft., and a 10-inch pipe for 15,000 to 20,000 sq. ft., if the run from boiler is not too great. Less than 1½-inch pipe should be run horizontally in a main unless for a single radiator connection. The Babcock & Wilcox Co. says: Where the condensed water is returned to the boiler, or where low pressure of steam is used, the diameter of the main leading from the boiler to the radiating-surface should be at least one tenth the square root of the radiating-surface, in square feet. Thus a 1-inch pipe will supply 100 square feet of radiating-surface if itself included. Return-pipes should be at least ¾ inch in diameter, never less than one half the diameter of the main—longer returns require larger pipe. A thorough drainage of steam-pipes will effectually allay cracking and pounding noises therein.

Wolff's Practice.—Mr. Wolff gives the following figures showing his practice (1897) in proportioning mains and returns. They are based on a direct loss of pressure of 2% for a length of 100 ft. of pipe, not in allowance for bends and valves (see p. 678). For longer runs divide the units given in the table by 0.1 $\sqrt{\text{length in ft.}}$. Besides giving the units the table also indicates the amount of direct radiating surface that steam-pipes can supply, on the basis of an emission of 350 thermal units per hour for each square foot of direct radiating surface.

Size of Pipes for Steam Heating.

2 lbs. Pressure		5 lbs. Pressure		Diam. of Supply, In.	Diam. of Return, In.	2 lbs. Pressure		5 lbs. Pressure	
Thermal Units per Hr., Thousands	Heating-surface, Sq. Ft.	Thermal Units per Hr., Thousands	Heating-surface, Sq. Ft.			Thermal Units per Hr., Thousands	Heating-surface, Sq. Ft.	Thermal Units per Hr., Thousands	Heating-surface, Sq. Ft.
9	36	15	60	5	3¼	90	3720	1550	6200
18	72	30	120	6	3½	1500	6000	2500	10000
30	120	50	200	7	4	2250	9000	3750	15000
70	280	120	480	8	4	3200	12800	5400	21600
132	528	220	880	9	4½	4450	17800	7500	30000
225	900	375	1500	10	5	5800	23200	9750	39000
330	1320	550	2200	12	6	9250	37000	15500	62000
480	1920	800	3200	14	7	13500	54000	23000	92000
690	2760	1150	4600	16	8	19000	76000	32500	130000

Heating a Greenhouse by Steam.—Wm. J. Baldwin answers a question in the *American Machinist* as below: With five pounds steam-pressure, how many square feet or inches of heating-surface is necessary to heat a square foot of glass on the roof, ends, and sides of a greenhouse to maintain a night heat of 55° to 65°, while the thermometer outside is at from 15° to 30° below zero; also, what boiler-surface is necessary? Which is the best for the purpose to use—2" pipe or 1½" pipe?

Reliable authorities agree that 1.25 to 1.50 cubic feet of air in an hour of space will be cooled per minute per sq. ft. of glass as many degrees below normal temperature of the house exceeds that of the air outside. At +65° and -30° there will be a difference of 95°, or, say, one cubic foot of air cooled 127.5° F. for each sq. ft. of glass for the most extreme case mentioned. Multiply this by the number of square feet of glass, and divide by 60, and we have the number of cubic feet of air cooled 1° per minute in the building or house. Divide the number thus found by 48, and the units of heat required, approximately. Divide again by 953, and we will give the number of pounds of steam that must be condensed from the boiler, and temperature of five pounds above atmosphere to water at the same temperature in an hour to maintain the heat. Each square foot of heating-surface of pipe will condense from ¼ to nearly ½ lb. of steam per hour, according as the coils are exposed or well or poorly arranged, for which an average of ¼ lb. may be taken. According to this, it will require 3 sq. ft. of heating-surface per lb. of steam to be condensed. Proportion the heating-surface of the boiler to have about one fifth the actual radiating-surface, if the boiler is to keep steam over night, and proportion the grate to burn not more than six pounds of coal per sq. ft. of grate per hour. With very slow combustion, such as takes place in base-burning boilers, the grate may be proportioned for four to five pounds of coal per hour. It is cheaper to use 1½" pipe than of 2", and there is nothing to be gained by using larger pipes if the coils are very long. The pipes in a greenhouse should be

under or in front of the benches, with every chance for a good coil of air. "Header" coils are better than "return-bend" coils for this purpose.

Mr. Baldwin's rule may be given the following form: Let H = ft. transferred per hour, T = temperature inside the greenhouse, t = temperature outside, S = sq. ft. of glass surface; then $H = 1.5S(T - t) = 1.875S(T - t)$. Mr. Wolff's coefficient K for single skylights was $H = 1.118S(T - t)$.

Heating a Greenhouse by Hot Water.—W. M. Macke Richardson & Boynton Co., in a lecture before the Master Plumbers Association, N. Y., 1889, says: I find that while greenhouses were heated by 4-inch and 3-inch cast-iron pipe, on account of the large water which they contained, and the supposition that they gave better factation and a more even temperature, florists of long experience have tried 4-inch and 3-inch cast-iron pipe, and also 2-inch wrought-iron pipe for a number of years in heating their greenhouses by hot water and who have also tried steam-heat, tell me that they get better and greater economy, and are able to maintain a more even temperature with wrought-iron pipe and hot water than by any other system used. They attribute this result principally to the fact that this system contains less water and on this account the heat can be raised and quicker than by any other arrangement of pipes, and a more uniform temperature maintained than by steam or any other system.

HOT-WATER HEATING.

(Nason Mfg. Co.)

There are two distinct forms or modifications of hot-water apparatus depending upon the temperature of the water.

In the first or open-tank system the water is never above 212° temperature, and rarely above 200°. This method always gives satisfactory results, the surface is sufficiently liberal, but in making it so its cost is consequently greater than that for a steam-heating apparatus.

In the second method, sometimes called (erroneously) high-pressure water heating, or the closed-system apparatus, the tank is closed, provided with a safety-valve set at 10 lbs. it is practically as safe as an open-tank system.

Law of Velocity of Flow.—The motive power of the circulation in a hot-water apparatus is the difference between the specific gravities of the ascending and the descending pipes. This effective pressure is small, and is equal to about one grain for each foot in height for every degree difference between the pipes; thus, with a height of 12' in "1" pipe and a difference between the temperatures of the up and down pipes of 1° the difference in their specific gravities is equal to 8.16 grains on each cubic inch of the section of return-pipe, and the velocity of the circulation is proportioned to these differences in temperature and height.

To Calculate Velocity of Flow.—Thus, with a height of 12' in "1" pipe equal to 10' and a difference in temperatures of the flow at the top and bottom of 8°, the difference in their specific gravities will equal 81.6 grains, or $\times 7000 = .0166$ lbs., or $\times 2.31$ (feet of water in one pound) = .0383 ft. per second, or $\times 60 = 2.3$ ft. per minute. In this calculation the effect of friction is entirely omitted. Considerable deduction must be made from the theoretical velocity. Even in apparatus where length of pipe is not great, pipes of larger areas and with few bends or angles, a large deduction must be made from the theoretical velocity, while in a complex apparatus with small head, the velocity is so much restricted that sometimes as much as from 50% to 90% must be deducted to obtain the true rate of circulation.

Main flow-pipes from the heater, from which branches may be taken, should be preferred to the practice of taking off nearly as many pipes from the heater as there are radiators to supply.

It is not necessary that the main flow and return pipes should be of the same capacity that of all their branches. The hottest water will seek the level, while gravity will cause an even distribution of the heated water surface is properly proportioned.

It is not necessary to reduce the size of the vertical mains as they rise above the level of the floor. The size for each floor should be the same as for the first floor. In hot water, the pipes must be unconfined.

of the pipes consequent on having their temperatures in a hot-water tank is required to keep the apparatus filled with water, and expands 1/24 of its bulk on being heated from 40° to 212°, and must have capacity to hold certainly this increased bulk. It is also required that the supply cistern be placed on level with or above the top of the apparatus, in order to receive the air which collects in the pipes and radiators, and capable of holding at least 1/30 of the water in the apparatus.

Climate Proportions of Radiating-surfaces to Cubic Capacities of Space to be Heated.

Foot of Radiating-surface will supply—	In Dwellings, School-rooms, Offices, etc.	In Halls, Stores, Lofts, Factories, etc.	In Churches, Large Auditoriums, etc.
Temperature difference between radiator and room—	50 to 70 cu. ft.	65 to 90 cu. ft.	130 to 180 cu. ft.
Temperature difference between radiator and outside air—	30 to 50 " "	35 to 65 " "	70 to 130 " "
Temperature difference between radiator and outside air—	30 to 60 " "	35 to 75 " "	70 to 150 " "
Temperature difference between radiator and outside air—	20 to 40 " "	25 to 50 " "	50 to 100 " "

Table of Main and Branch Pipes and square feet of coil which will supply, in a low-pressure hot-water apparatus (212°) for direct radiation, when coils are at different altitudes for direct in the lower story for indirect radiation:

Direct Radiation. Height of Coil above Bottom of Boiler, in feet.

	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
sq. ft.	sq. ft.	sq. ft.	sq. ft.	sq. ft.	sq. ft.	sq. ft.	sq. ft.	sq. ft.	sq. ft.	sq. ft.
50	52	53	55	57	59	61	63	65	68	70
89	92	95	98	101	103	108	112	116	121	124
140	144	149	153	158	161	169	175	182	189	193
202	209	214	222	228	235	243	252	261	271	277
359	370	380	393	405	413	433	449	465	483	493
561	577	595	613	633	643	678	701	727	755	768
807	835	856	888	912	941	974	1009	1046	1086	1103
1099	1132	1160	1202	1241	1283	1327	1374	1425	1480	1500
1436	1478	1520	1571	1621	1654	1733	1795	1861	1933	1963
1817	1871	1927	1988	2052	2120	2193	2272	2356	2445	2485
2244	2309	2376	2454	2531	2574	2713	2805	2907	3019	3063
3228	3341	3424	3532	3648	3763	3897	4036	4184	4344	4400
4396	4528	4664	4808	4964	5132	5308	5496	5700	5920	6000
5744	5912	6080	6284	6484	6616	6932	7180	7444	7736	7800
7368	7484	7708	7952	8208	8482	8774	9088	9424	9780	9840
8976	9236	9516	9816	10124	10296	10852	11220	11628	12076	12160
10860	11180	11519	11879	12262	12666	13108	13576	14078	14620	14720
12912	13364	13896	14308	14592	15052	15588	16144	16736	17376	17480
15169	15615	16090	16591	17126	17697	18307	18961	19633	20420	20520
17584	18109	18656	19232	19856	20528	21232	21984	22760	23560	23660
20195	20789	21419	22080	22801	23561	24373	25244	26140	27060	27160
22978	23643	24320	25136	25936	26464	27728	28720	29720	30720	30820

The best forms of hot-water-heating boilers are proportioned as follows:

1 sq. ft. of grate-surface to about 40 sq. ft. of boiler-surface.
1 " " boiler- " " 5 " " radiating-surface.
1 " " grate- " " 200 " " " "

Rules for Hot-water Heating.—J. L. Saunders (Heating Ventilation, Dec. 15, 1894) gives the following: Allow 1 sq. ft. of radiating surface for every 3 ft. of glass surface, and 1 sq. ft. for every 30 sq. wall surface, also 1 sq. ft. for the following numbers of cubic feet of in the several cases mentioned.

In dwelling-houses:	Libraries and dining-rooms, first floor.....	35 to 40
	Reception halls, first floor.....	40 to 50
	Stair halls, " "	40 to 50
	Chambers above, " "	50 to 65
	Libraries, sewing-rooms, nurseries, etc.,	
	above first floor.....	45 to 50
	Bath rooms	30 to 40
Public-school rooms.....		60 to 80
Offices.....		50 to 65
Factories and stores		65 to 90
Assembly halls and churches		90 to 150

To find the necessary amount of indirect radiation required to heat a room, find the required amount of direct radiation according to the foregoing method and add 50%. This if wrought-iron pipe coil surface is used; if iron pin indirect-stack surface is used it is advisable to add from 70% to 80%.

Sizes of hot-air flues, cold-air ducts, and registers for indirect radiation.
Hot-air flues, first floor: Make the net internal area of the flue equal to $\frac{1}{4}$ sq. in. to every square foot of radiating surface in the indirect stack; **second floor:** Make the net internal area of the flue equal to $\frac{1}{8}$ sq. in. to every square foot of radiating surface in the indirect stack.

Cold-air ducts, first floor: Make the net internal area of the duct equal to $\frac{1}{4}$ sq. in. to every square foot of radiating surface in the indirect stack; **second floor:** Make the net internal area of the duct equal to $\frac{1}{8}$ sq. in. to every square foot of radiating surface in the indirect stack.

Hot-air registers should have their net area equal in full to the area of the product is the net area of register.

Arrangement of Mains for Hot-water Heating.
 Mackay, Lecture before Master Plumbers' Assoc., N. Y., 1889.)—The two different systems of mains in general use, either of which, if properly placed, will give good satisfaction. One is the taking of a single large main from the heater to supply all the radiators on the several floors, corresponding return main of the same size. The other is the taking of a number of 2-inch wrought-iron mains from the heater, with the same number of return mains of the same size, branching off to the several radiators or coils with $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch or 1-inch pipe, according to the size of the radiator coil. A 2-inch main will supply three $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch or four 1-inch branches; these branches should be taken from the top of the horizontal main, at a nipple and elbow, except in special cases where it is found necessary to take the flow of water to the near radiator, for the purpose of assisting the circulation in the far radiator; in this case the branch is taken from the bottom of the horizontal main. The flow and return mains are usually run side by side, suspended from the basement ceiling, and should have a gradual ascent from the heater to the radiators of at least 1 inch in 10 feet. It is customary to have an advantage where 2-inch mains are used, to reduce the size of the main at every point where a branch is taken off.

The single or large main system is best adapted for large buildings; there is a limit as to size of main which it is not wise to go beyond—usually 6-inch, except in special cases.

The proper area of cold-air pipe necessary for 100 square feet of radiation in hot-water heating is 75 square inches, while the hot-air pipe should have at least 100 square inches of area. There should be a damper on the cold-air pipe for the purpose of controlling the amount of air admitted to the radiator, depending on the severity of the weather.

BLOWER SYSTEM OF HEATING AND VENTILATING.

provides for the use of a fan or blower which takes its supply from the outside of the building to be heated, forces it over a duct either centrally or divided up into a number of independent then into the several ducts or flues leading to the various rooms. The movement of the warmed air is positive, and the delivery of the air to various points of supply is certain and entirely independent of the outside conditions. For engines, fans, and steam-coils used with the blower system, see page 519.

Tests with Radiators of 60 sq. ft. of Surface.

(Dec., 1893).—After having determined the volume and temperature of the warm air passing through the flues and radiators from a fan, a fan was applied to each flue, forcing in air, and new sets of tests were made. The results showed that more than two and one-half times as much air was warmed with the fans in use, and the falling off of the volume of this greatly increased air-volume was only about 12.6%. The circulation of steam in the radiators with the forced-air circulation was 66% greater than with natural-air draught. One of the test figures obtained is as follows:

	Natural Draught in Flue.	Forced-air Circulation.
Volume of air per minute.....	457.5	1227
Volume of steam per minute in ounces.....	11.7	19.6
Pressure in radiator, pounds.....	9	9
Temperature of air after leaving radiator.....	142°	124°
" " before passing through radiator.....	61°	61°
" " radiating surface in square feet.....	60	60
Dimensions in both cases.....	12 x 18 inches.	

Probably an error in the determination of the volume of air in the test appears from the following calculation. (W. K.) Assume steam in condensing from 9 lbs. pressure and cooling to the temperature at which the water may have been discharged from the radiator is 120 heat-units, or 62.5 h. u. per ounce; that the air weighed .076 lb. and that its specific heat is .238. We have

	Natural Draught.	Forced Draught.
Heat by steam, ounces x 62.5.....	= 731	1225 H.U.
Heat by air, cu. ft. x .076 x diff. of temp. x .238 =	673	1399 "

Heat of forced draught the air received 14% more heat than the heat of natural draught, which is impossible. Taking the heat given up by the steam in the test as a measure of the work done by the radiator, the temperature of the steam at 120° and the average temperature of the air in the case of natural draught at 102° and in the other case at 93°, we have for the temperature difference in the two cases 135° and 144° respectively; dividing the heat-units we find that each square foot of radiating surface gives up 12.24 heat-units per hour per degree of difference of temperature, or 8.5 heat-units per hour per degree of difference of temperature in the case of natural draught, and 8.5 heat-units in the case of forced draught. $12.24 \times 144 = 1763$ heat-units per square foot of surface.

At the Pennsylvania State Hospital in Philadelphia, 2000 feet of pipe surface heats 250,000 cubic feet of space, ventilating as well; this is equivalent to 1250 feet of pipe surface for about 350 cubic feet of space, or 3.5 feet of pipe surface for 1000 cubic feet. The fan is located in a separate building about 100 feet from the hospital, and the air, after being heated, is conveyed through an underground brick duct with a loss of about 10 degrees in cold weather. (H. I. Snell, Trans. A. S. M. E. ix. 106.)

Building to 70° F. Inside when the Outside Temperature is Zero.

It is customary in some contracts for heating a building that the apparatus will heat the interior of the building to 70° F. As it may not be practicable to obtain zero weather for a test, it may be difficult to prove the performance of the apparatus. E. Macgovern, in *Engineering Record*, Feb. 3, 1894, gives a test to show that a test may be made in weather of a building to be heated to 70° F. an zero, if the heat of the interior is raised above 70° F. The temperature of the rooms the lower is the efficiency of the apparatus. Hence the efficiency depends upon the difference between the interior and exterior temperatures.

temperature inside of the radiator and the temperature of the room concludes that a heating apparatus sufficient to heat a given building in zero weather with a given pressure of steam will be found to be same building, steam-pressure constant, to 110° at 60°, 95° at 50°, 82° at 74° at 32°, outside temperature. The accuracy of these figures, however, has not been tested by experiment.

The following solution of the question is proposed by the author. Its results quite different from those of Mr. Macgovern, but, like them, had experimental confirmation.

- Let S = sq. ft. of surface of the steam or hot-water radiator;
 W = sq. ft. of surface of exposed walls, windows, etc.;
 T_s = temp. of the steam or hot water, T_1 = temp. of inside of building or room, T_o = temp. of outside of building or room;
 a = heat-units transmitted per sq. ft. of surface of radiator per degree of difference of temperature;
 b = average heat-units transmitted per sq. ft. of walls per hour degree of difference of temperature, including allowance for ventilation.

It is assumed that within the range of temperatures considered Newton's law of cooling holds good, viz., that it is proportional to the difference of temperature between the two sides of the radiating-surface.

Then $aS(T_s - T_1) = bW(T_1 - T_o)$. Let $\frac{bW}{aS} = C$; then

$$T_s - T_1 = C(T_1 - T_o); \quad T_1 = \frac{T_s + CT_o}{1 + C}; \quad C = \frac{T_s - T_1}{T_1 - T_o}$$

$$\text{If } T_1 = 70, \text{ and } T_o = 0, C = \frac{T_s - 70}{70}$$

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \text{Let } T_s = 140^\circ, & 213.5^\circ, & 308^\circ; \\ \text{Then } C = 1, & 2.05, & 3.4. \end{array}$$

From these we derive the following:

Temperature of Steam or Hot Water, T_s .	Outside Temperatures, T_o .					
	- 20°	- 10°	0°	10°	20°	30°
	Inside Temperatures, T_1 .					
140°	60	65	70	75	80	85
213.5	56.6	63.3	70	76.7	83.4	90.2
308	54.5	62.3	70	77.7	85.5	93.2

Heating by Electricity.—If the electric currents are generated by a dynamo driven by a steam-engine, electric heating will prove very expensive, since the steam-engine wastes in the exhaust-steam and by radiation about 90% of the heat-units supplied to it. In direct steam-heating, a good boiler and properly covered supply-pipes, we can utilize about 70% of the total heat value of the fuel. One pound of coal, with a heating value of 13,000 heat-units, would supply to the radiators about 13,000 × .70 = 9,100 heat-units. In electric heating, suppose we have a first-class condensing engine developing 1 H.P. for every 2 lbs. of coal burned per hour. This would be equivalent to 1,980,000 ft.-lbs. ÷ 778 = 2545 heat-units per hour for 1 lb. of coal. The friction of the engine and of the dynamo, the loss by electric leakage, and by heat radiation from the condenser, might reduce the heat-units delivered as electric current to the electric radiator, and these converted into heat to 50% of this, or only 1272 heat-units, or less than one twelfth of that delivered to the steam-radiator in direct steam-heating. Electric heating, therefore, will prove uneconomical unless the electric current is derived from water or wind power, which would otherwise be wasted. (See Electrical Engineering.)

WATER.

Expansion of Water.—The following table gives the relative volumes of water at different temperatures, compared with its volume at 4° C. according to Kopp, as corrected by Porter.

Cent.	Fahr.	Volume.	Cent.	Fahr.	Volume.	Cent.	Fahr.	Volume.
4°	39.1°	1.00000	35°	95°	1.00586	70°	158°	1.02241
5	41	1.00001	40	104	1.00707	75	167	1.02548
10	50	1.00025	45	113	1.00967	80	176	1.02872
20	68	1.00083	50	122	1.01186	85	185	1.03413
30	86	1.00171	55	131	1.01423	90	194	1.03570
40	104	1.00286	60	140	1.01678	95	203	1.03943
50	122	1.00425	65	149	1.01951	100	212	1.04332

Weight of 1 cu. ft. at 39.1° F. = 62.4245 lb. + 1.04332 = 59.833, weight of 1 cu. ft. at 212° F.

Weight of Water at Different Temperatures.—The weight of water at maximum density, 39.1°, is generally taken at the figure given by Rankine, 62.425 lbs. per cubic foot. Some authorities give as low as 59. The figure 62.5 commonly given is approximate. The highest authoritative figure is 62.425. At 32° F. the figures range from 62.291 to 62.360. The figure 62.355 is generally accepted as the most accurate.

At 32° F. figures given by different writers range from 62.379 to 62.418. The latter figure, and Hamilton Smith, Jr., (from Rosetti), gives 62.355.

Weight of Water at Temperatures above 212° F.—Porter (Annals "Steam-engine Indicator," p. 52) says that nothing is known as to the expansion of water above 212°. Applying formulæ derived from experiments made at temperatures below 212°, however, the weight and volume above 212° may be calculated, but in the absence of experimental data we are not certain that the formulæ hold good at higher temperatures. Thurston, in his "Engine and Boiler Trials," gives a table from which we get the following (neglecting the third decimal place given by him):

Temp., deg. F.	Weight, lbs. per cubic foot.	Temp., deg. F.	Weight, lbs. per cubic foot.	Temp., deg. F.	Weight, lbs. per cubic foot.	Temp., deg. F.	Weight, lbs. per cubic foot.
59.71	280	57.90	350	55.52	420	52.86	490
59.64	290	57.59	360	55.16	430	52.47	500
59.37	300	57.26	370	54.79	440	52.07	510
59.10	310	56.93	380	54.41	450	51.66	520
58.81	320	56.58	390	54.03	460	51.25	530
58.52	330	56.24	400	53.64	470	50.85	540
58.21	340	55.88	410	53.26	480	50.44	550

Expansion on Heat gives the following:

Temperature F.	212°	250°	300°	350°	400°	450°	500°
Weight per cubic foot.	59.82	58.85	57.22	55.94	54.34	52.70	51.02

At 212° figures given by different writers (see Trans. A. S. M. E., x, p. 2) range from 59.56 to 59.845, averaging about 59.77.

Weight of Water per Cubic Foot, from 32° to 212° F. units per pound, reckoned above 32° F.: The following table, interpolating the table given by Clark as calculated from Rankine with corrections for apparent errors, was published by the aut Trans. A. S. M. E., vi. 90. (For heat units above 212° see Steam

Temp., deg. F.	Weight, lbs. per cubic foot.	Heat-units.	Temperature, deg. F.	Weight, lbs. per cubic foot.	Heat-units.	Temperature, deg. F.	Weight, lbs. per cubic foot.	Heat-units.
32	62.42	0.	78	62.25	46.03	133	61.68	91.16
33	62.42	1.	79	62.24	47.03	134	61.67	92.17
34	62.42	2.	80	62.23	48.04	135	61.65	93.17
35	62.42	3.	81	62.22	49.04	136	61.63	94.17
36	62.42	4.	82	62.21	50.04	137	61.61	95.18
37	62.42	5.	83	62.20	51.04	138	61.60	96.18
38	62.42	6.	84	62.19	52.04	139	61.58	97.19
39	62.42	7.	85	62.18	53.05	130	61.56	98.19
40	62.42	8.	86	62.17	54.05	131	61.54	99.20
41	62.42	9.	87	62.16	55.05	132	61.52	100.20
42	62.42	10.	88	62.15	56.05	133	61.51	101.21
43	62.42	11.	89	62.14	57.05	134	61.49	102.21
44	62.42	12.	90	62.13	58.06	135	61.47	103.22
45	62.42	13.	91	62.12	59.06	136	61.45	104.22
46	62.42	14.	92	62.11	60.06	137	61.43	105.23
47	62.42	15.	93	62.10	61.06	138	61.41	106.23
48	62.41	16.	94	62.09	62.06	139	61.39	107.24
49	62.41	17.	95	62.08	63.07	140	61.37	108.25
50	62.41	18.	96	62.07	64.07	141	61.36	109.25
51	62.41	19.	97	62.06	65.07	142	61.34	110.26
52	62.40	20.	98	62.05	66.07	143	61.32	111.26
53	62.40	21.01	99	62.03	67.08	144	61.30	112.27
54	62.40	22.01	100	62.02	68.08	145	61.28	113.28
55	62.39	23.01	101	62.01	69.08	146	61.26	114.28
56	62.39	24.01	102	62.00	70.09	147	61.24	115.29
57	62.39	25.01	103	61.99	71.09	148	61.22	116.29
58	62.38	26.01	104	61.97	72.09	149	61.20	117.30
59	62.38	27.01	105	61.96	73.10	150	61.18	118.31
60	62.37	28.01	106	61.95	74.10	151	61.16	119.31
61	62.37	29.01	107	61.93	75.10	152	61.14	120.32
62	62.36	30.01	108	61.92	76.10	153	61.12	121.33
63	62.36	31.01	109	61.91	77.11	154	61.10	122.33
64	62.35	32.01	110	61.89	78.11	155	61.08	123.34
65	62.34	33.01	111	61.88	79.11	156	61.06	124.35
66	62.34	34.02	112	61.86	80.12	157	61.04	125.35
67	62.33	35.02	113	61.85	81.12	158	61.02	126.36
68	62.33	36.02	114	61.83	82.13	159	61.00	127.37
69	62.32	37.02	115	61.82	83.13	160	60.98	128.37
70	62.31	38.02	116	61.80	84.13	161	60.96	129.38
71	62.31	39.02	117	61.78	85.14	162	60.94	130.39
72	62.30	40.02	118	61.77	86.14	163	60.92	131.40
73	62.29	41.02	119	61.75	87.15	164	60.90	132.41
74	62.28	42.03	120	61.74	88.15	165	60.87	133.41
75	62.28	43.03	121	61.72	89.15	166	60.85	134.42
76	62.27	44.03	122	61.70	90.16	167	60.83	135.43
77	62.26	45.03						

Comparison of Heads of Water in Feet with Various Units.

- One foot of water at 39° F. = 62.425 lbs. on the square
- " " " " = 0.4335 lbs. on the square
- " " " " = 0.0295 atmosphere
- " " " " = 0.8823 inch of mercury
- " " " " = 179.3 feet of air at 32° F. & atmosphere

on the square foot, at 32° F. = 0.01602 foot of water;
 on the square inch " " " " = 2.307 feet of water;
 sphere of 29.922 inches of mercury = 33.9 " " "
 h of mercury at 32° F. = 1.133 " " "
 t of air at 32 deg., and one atmosphere. = 0.001293 " " "
 t of average sea-water. = 1.026 foot of pure water;
 t of water at 62° F. = 62.355 lbs. per sq. foot;
 " " " 62° F. = 0.43302 lbs. per sq. inch;
 h of water at 62° F. = 0.036085 " " "
 and of water on the square inch at 62° F. = 2.3094 feet of water.

Pressure in Pounds per Square Inch for Different Heads of Water.

° F. 1 foot head = 0.433 lb. per square inch, 433 × 144 = 62,352 lbs. per square foot.

feet.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0		0.433	0.866	1.299	1.732	2.165	2.598	3.031	3.464	3.897
1	4.330	4.763	5.196	5.629	6.062	6.495	6.928	7.361	7.794	8.227
2	8.660	9.093	9.526	9.959	10.392	10.825	11.258	11.691	12.124	12.557
3	12.990	13.423	13.856	14.289	14.722	15.155	15.588	16.021	16.454	16.887
4	17.320	17.753	18.186	18.619	19.052	19.485	19.918	20.351	20.784	21.217
5	21.650	22.083	22.516	22.949	23.382	23.815	24.248	24.681	25.114	25.547
6	25.980	26.413	26.846	27.279	27.712	28.145	28.578	29.011	29.444	29.877
7	30.310	30.743	31.176	31.609	32.042	32.475	32.908	33.341	33.774	34.207
8	34.640	35.073	35.506	35.939	36.372	36.805	37.238	37.671	38.104	38.537
9	38.970	39.403	39.836	40.269	40.702	41.135	41.568	42.001	42.434	42.867

Head in Feet of Water, Corresponding to Pressures in Pounds per Square Inch.

per square inch = 2.30947 feet head, 1 atmosphere = 14.7 lbs. per sq. 33.94 ft. head.

lb. p. sq. in.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
0		2.309	4.619	6.928	9.238	11.547	13.857	16.166	18.476	20.785
1	23.0947	25.404	27.714	30.023	32.333	34.642	36.952	39.261	41.570	43.880
2	46.1894	48.499	50.808	53.118	55.427	57.737	60.046	62.356	64.665	66.975
3	69.2841	71.594	73.903	76.213	78.522	80.831	83.141	85.450	87.760	90.069
4	92.3788	94.688	96.998	99.307	101.617	103.926	106.235	108.545	110.854	113.163
5	115.4735	117.783	120.092	122.401	124.711	127.020	129.329	131.638	133.947	136.256
6	138.5682	140.878	143.187	145.496	147.805	150.114	152.423	154.732	157.041	159.350
7	161.6629	163.972	166.281	168.590	170.900	173.209	175.518	177.827	180.136	182.445
8	184.7576	187.066	189.375	191.684	193.993	196.302	198.611	200.920	203.229	205.538
9	207.8523	210.161	212.470	214.779	217.088	219.397	221.706	224.015	226.324	228.633

Pressure of Water due to its Weight.—The pressure of still water on the square foot, against the sides of any pipe, channel, or of any shape whatever is due solely to the "head," or height of the surface of the water above the point at which the pressure is considered, and is equal to 4.3302 lb. per square inch for every foot of head, 62.35 lbs. per square foot for every foot of head (at 62° F.). The pressure per square inch is equal in all directions, downwards, upwards or sideways, and is independent of the shape or size of the containing

surface against a vertical surface, as a retaining-wall, at any point, is in the same ratio to the head above that point, increasing from 0 at the top to a maximum at the bottom. The total pressure against a vertical surface of a unit's breadth increases as the area of a right-angled triangle

whose perpendicular represents the height of the strip and whose represents the pressure on a unit of surface at the bottom; that is, ceases as the square of the depth. The sum of all the horizontal pressures is represented by the area of the triangle, and the resultant of this is equal to this sum exerted at a point one third of the height from the bottom. (The centre of gravity of the area of a triangle is one third of its height.) The horizontal pressure is the same if the surface is inclined to the vertical.

(For an elaboration of these principles see Trautwine's Pocket-Book, the chapter on Hydrostatics in any work on Physics. For dams, retaining walls, etc., see Trautwine.)

The amount of pressure on the interior walls of a pipe has no apparent effect upon the amount of flow.

Buoyancy.—When a body is immersed in a liquid, whether it sink, it is buoyed up by a force equal to the weight of the bulk of the liquid displaced by the body. The weight of a floating body is equal to the weight of the bulk of the liquid that it displaces. The upward pressure of the liquid may be regarded as exerted at the centre of gravity of the displaced water, which is called the centre of pressure or of buoyancy. A vertical line drawn through it is called the axis of buoyancy or of equilibrium. In a floating body at rest a line joining the centre of gravity and the centre of buoyancy is vertical, and is called the axis of equilibrium. An external force causes the axis of equilibrium to lean, if a vertical line drawn upward from the centre of buoyancy to this axis, the point where it cuts the axis is called the *metacentre*. If the metacentre is above the centre of gravity the distance between them is called the metacentric height; the body is then said to be in stable equilibrium, tending to return to its original position when the external force is removed.

Boiling-point.—Water boils at 212° F. (100° C.) at mean atmospheric pressure at the sea-level, 14.696 lbs. per square inch. The temperature at which water boils at any given pressure is the same as the temperature at which saturated steam at the same pressure. For boiling-point of water at any pressure than 14.696 lbs. per square inch, see table of the Properties of Saturated Steam.

The Boiling-point of Water may be Raised.—When water is entirely freed of air, which may be accomplished by freezing or by the cohesion of its atoms is greatly increased, so that its boiling-point may be raised over 50° above the ordinary boiling-point before ebullition takes place. It was found by Faraday that when such air-free water is heated to the rupture of the liquid was like an explosion. When water is covered by a film of oil, its boiling temperature may be raised considerably above its normal standard. This has been applied as a theoretical explanation of the instance of boiler-explosions.

The freezing-point also may be lowered, if the water is perfectly freed of air, to 10° C., or 18° Fahrenheit below the normal freezing-point. (H. Smith, Jr., on Hydraulics, p. 13.) The density of water at 14° F. is .99989; at 39° F. being 1, and at 32° F., .99987.

Freezing-point.—Water freezes at 32° F. at the ordinary atmospheric pressure, and ice melts at the same temperature. In the melting of 1 lb. of ice into water at 32° F. about 143 heat-units are absorbed, or 143 cal.; and in freezing 1 lb. of water into ice a like quantity of heat is given out to the surrounding medium.

Sea-water freezes at 27° F.; The ice is fresh. (Trautwine.)

Ice and Snow. (From Clark.)—1 cubic foot of ice at 32° F. weighs 57.30 lbs.; 1 pound of ice at 32° F. has a volume of .0174 cu. ft. = 30.06 cu. in.

Relative volume of ice to water at 32° F., 1.0855, the expansion in the solid state being 8.55%. Specific gravity of ice = 0.922, at 32° F. being 1.

At high pressures the melting-point of ice is lower than 32° F., the rate of .0133° F. for each additional atmosphere of pressure.

The specific heat of ice is .504, that of water being 1.

1 cubic foot of fresh snow, according to humidity of atmosphere, weighs 12 lbs. 1 cubic foot of snow moistened and compacted by rain: 15 lbs. (Trautwine.)

Specific Heat of Water. (From Clark's Steam-engine.)—Calculated by means of Regnault's formula, $c = 1 + 0.00004t + 0.0000008t^2$, which c is the specific heat of water at any temperature t in centigrade degrees, the specific heat at the freezing-point being 1.

British Ther- mal Units per pound, above 32° F.	Specific Heat at the given Temperature.	Mean Specific Heat between 32° F. and the given Temp.	Tempera- tures.		British Ther- mal Units per pound, above 32° F.	Specific Heat at the given Temperature.	Mean Specific Heat between 32° F. and the given Temp.
			Cent.	Fahr.			
0.000	1.0000		120°	248°	217.449	1.0177	1.0067
18.004	1.0005	1.0002	130	266	235.791	1.0304	1.0076
36.018	1.0012	1.0005	140	284	254.187	1.0432	1.0087
54.047	1.0020	1.0009	150	302	272.628	1.0562	1.0097
72.060	1.0030	1.0018	160	320	291.132	1.0694	1.0109
90.157	1.0042	1.0017	170	338	309.690	1.0828	1.0121
108.247	1.0056	1.0023	180	356	328.320	1.0964	1.0133
126.378	1.0072	1.0030	190	374	347.004	1.0401	1.0146
144.508	1.0089	1.0035	200	392	365.760	1.0440	1.0160
162.686	1.0109	1.0042	210	410	384.588	1.0481	1.0174
180.900	1.0130	1.0050	220	428	403.488	1.0524	1.0189
199.152	1.0153	1.0058	230	446	422.477	1.0568	1.0204

Compressibility of Water.—Water is very slightly compressible. Its compressibility is from .000040 to .000051 for one atmosphere, decreasing as the temperature rises. For each foot of pressure distilled water will be reduced in volume .0000015 to .0000013. Water is so incompressible that a depth of a mile a cubic foot of water will weigh only about 1/100 more than at the surface.

THE IMPURITIES OF WATER.

By E. Hunt and G. H. Clapp, Trans. A. I. M. E. xvii, 338.)

In all analyses are made to determine (1) its hardness, or the facility with which it "forms a lather," necessary for washing; or (2) its adaptation for manufacturing purposes.

At the annual meeting of the Chemical Section of the A. A. S. it was determined to report all water analyses in parts per thousand, hundred-thousand,

or million grains per imperial (British) gallons into parts per 100,000, distilled water. To convert parts per 100,000 into grains per U. S. gallon, multiply by 2 or .583.

In the common commercial analysis of water is made to determine its hardness by making steam. Water containing more than 5 parts per 100,000 of sulphuric or nitric acid is liable to cause serious corrosion, not only of the boiler itself, but of the pipes, cylinders, pistons, and valves, in which the steam comes in contact.

The residue in water used for making steam causes the interior linings of the boiler to become coated, and often produces a dangerous hard scale which prevents the cooling action of the water from protecting the boiler from rust burning.

Calcium magnesium bicarbonates in water lose their excess of carbonic dioxide, and often, especially when the water contains sulphuric acid, with the other solid residues constantly being formed by the boiler, a very hard and insoluble scale. A larger amount than 100 parts per 100,000 of total solid residue will ordinarily cause troublesome incrustation. It should condemn the water for use in steam-boilers, unless a scale can be obtained.

The following is a tabulated form of the causes of trouble with water for steam-boilers, and the proposed remedies, given by Prof. L. M. Norton.

CAUSES OF INCRUSTATION.

1. Presence of suspended matter.

2. Presence of deposited salts from concentration.

3. Presence of carbonates of lime and magnesia by boiling off the carbonic dioxide holds them in solution.

4. Deposition of sulphates of lime, because sulphate of lime is but slightly soluble in cold water, less soluble in hot water, insoluble above 57°.
5. Deposition of magnesia, because magnesium salts decompose at high temperature.
6. Deposition of lime soap, iron soap, etc., formed by saponification of grease.

MEANS FOR PREVENTING INCRUSTATION.

1. Filtration.
2. Blowing off.
3. Use of internal collecting apparatus or devices for direct circulation.
4. Heating feed-water.
5. Chemical or other treatment of water in boiler.
6. Introduction of zinc into boiler.
7. Chemical treatment of water outside of boiler.

TABULAR VIEW.

Troublesome Substance.	Trouble.	Remedy or Prevention.
Sediment, mud, clay, etc.	Incrustation.	Filtration; blowing off.
Readily soluble salts.	"	Blowing off.
Bicarbonates of lime, magnesia, iron.	"	Heating feed. Addition of caustic soda, magnesia, etc.
Sulphate of lime.	"	Addition of calcium chloride.
Chloride and sulphate of magnesium.	Corrosion.	Addition of carbonate of soda, etc.
Carbonate of soda in large amounts.	Priming.	Addition of barium chloride, etc.
Acid (in mine waters).	Corrosion.	Alkali.
Dissolved carbonic acid and oxygen.	"	Heating feed. Addition of caustic soda, lime, etc.
Grease (from condensed water).	"	Slacked lime and carbonate of soda.
Organic matter (sewage).	Priming.	Substitute with ferric chloride.
Organic matter.	Corrosion.	Ditto.

The mineral matters causing the most troublesome boiler-scaling are carbonates and sulphates of lime and magnesia, oxides of iron and silica. The analyses of some of the most common and troublesome boiler-scaling are given in the following table:

Analyses of Boiler-scale. (Chandler.)

	Sulphate of Lime.	Magnesia.	Silica.	Peroxide of Iron.	Water.
N. Y. C. & H. R. Ry., No. 1	74.07	9.19	0.65	0.08	1.14
" " " No. 2	71.37	1.76
" " " No. 3	62.86	18.95	2.60	0.92	1.28
" " " No. 4	53.05	4.79
" " " No. 5	46.83	5.33
" " " No. 6	30.80	31.17	7.15	1.05	2.41
" " " No. 7	4.95	2.61	2.07	1.03	0.63
" " " No. 8	0.88	2.84	0.65	0.36	0.13
" " " No. 9	4.81	2.92
" " " No. 10	30.07	8.24

In Parts per 100,000 of Water giving Bad Results in Steam-boilers. (A. E. Hunt.)

	Bicarbonate of Lime deposited on Boiling	Bicarbonate of Magnesia deposited on Boiling	Total Lime.	Total Magnesia.	Sulphuric Acid.	Chlorine.	Iron.	Organic Matter.	Alumina.	Chloride of Sodium.
Water.....	110	25	119	39	890	590	780	30	640
".....	151	38	1,90	48	360	990	38	21	30	13.10
".....	75	89	95	120	310	21	75	10	80	36
a River.....	130	21	161	33	210	38	70
".....	80	70	94	81	219	210	90
".....	32	32	61	1.04	28	1.90	38
near Oil-works	30	50	41	68	600	42	23

stances have been added with the idea of causing chemical to prevent boiler-scale. As a general rule, these do more good, for a boiler is one of the worst possible places in which to smelting reaction, where it nearly always causes more or less of the metal, and is liable to cause dangerous explosions.

where water containing large amounts of total solid residue is used, a heavy petroleum oil, free from tar or wax, which is not acted on by acids or alkalies, not having sufficient wax in it to cause a film, and which has a vaporizing point at nearly 600° F., will give results in preventing boiler-scale. Its action is to form a thin layer over the boiler linings, protecting them largely from the action of the water and greasing the sediment which is formed, thus preventing the formation of scale and keeping the solid residue from the surface of the water in such a plastic suspended condition that it can be blown off from the boiler by the process of "blowing off." If the boiler is blown off sufficiently often, this sediment forms into a "putty" which facilitates cleaning the boilers. Any boiler using bad water should be cleaned every twelve hours.

Hardness of Water.—The hardness of water, or its opposite quality, softness, the ease with which it will form a lather with soap, depends rather upon the presence of compounds of lime and magnesia. Soaps consist, chemically, of oleate, stearate, and palmitate, of potassium base, usually soda and potash. The more lime and magnesia in the water, the more soap a given volume of the water will decompose, and the more insoluble oleate, palmitate, and stearate of lime and magnesia, the more soap must be added to a gallon of water in order that a necessary quantity of soap may remain in solution to form the lather.

The hardness of samples of water is generally expressed in terms of the number of standard soap-measures consumed by a gallon of water in forming permanent lather.

A standard soap-measure is the quantity required to precipitate one ounce of carbonate of lime.

It is only reckoned that one gallon of pure distilled water takes one ounce to produce a lather. Therefore one is deducted from the number of soap-measures found to be necessary to use to produce a gallon of water, in reporting the number of soap-measures, of the hardness of the water sample. In actually making tests for hardness, a "miniature gallon," or seventy cubic centimetres, is used instead of the inconvenient larger amount. The standard measure is made by dissolving ten grammes of pure castile soap (containing 60 per cent of alkali) in a litre of weak alcohol (of about 35 per cent alcohol). This solution containing exactly sufficient soap in one cubic centimetre of solution to precipitate one milligramme of carbonate of lime.

The standard soap solution is reduced to terms of the hardness of the water taken.

It is charged with a bicarbonate of lime, magnesia, or iron.

it will, on the excess of the carbonic acid being expelled, deposit a considerable quantity of the lime, magnesia, or iron, and consequently the water will be softer. The hardness of the water after this deposit of lime, long boiling, is called the *permanent hardness* and the difference between this and the total hardness is called *temporary hardness*.

Lime salts in water react immediately on soap-solutions, precipitating oleate, palmitate, or stearate of lime at once. Magnesia salts, on the contrary, require some considerable time for reaction. They are, however, more powerful hardeners; one equivalent of magnesia salts consumes much soap as one and one-half equivalents of lime.

The presence of soda and potash salts softens rather than hardens water. Each grain of carbonate of lime per gallon of water causes an increased expenditure for soap of about 2 ounces per 100 gallons of water. (*News*, Jan. 31, 1885.)

Purifying Feed-water for Steam-boilers.—To effect purification of water before and after being fed into a boiler, a device is manufactured by the Albany Steam Trap Company, Albany, N. Y., to remove the impurities by the process of a continuous circulation of the water through the boiler and back into the boiler. The scale-forming impurities that are held in suspension are thus brought in contact and "arrested" by the filtering agent contained in the filter while under pressure, and at a temperature limited only by that contained in the boiler.

It is sometimes desirable, in the removal of the sulphates and carbonates from the feed-water, to heat the water up to nearly the same temperature as it is in the boiler, and then to filter the same before feeding it into the boiler. The operation in a general way is: The water is first forced into an exhaust-heater by the feed-pump, and there it is heated by the exhaust from the engine, say to 200°, and at this temperature it enters a reheater. The reheater consists of a vertical, cylindrical shell containing a series of water pans or shelves, and so arranged that as the water enters it delivered into the top pan, and then overflows into the second, and down the series to the bottom, and during its transit deposits the scale-forming material. The circulating-pump takes the water from the bottom of the reheater and forces it through the filter on its way into the boiler.

Mr. W. B. Cogswell, of the Solvay Process Co.'s Soda Works in Syracuse, N. Y., thus describes the system of purification of boiler feed-water at these works (*Trans. A. S. M. E.*, xiii, 255):

For purifying, we use a weak soda liquor, containing about 12 to 15 lbs. Na_2CO_3 per litre. Say 1½ to 2 M³ (or 397 to 530 gals.) of this liquor is introduced into the precipitating tank. Hot water about 60° C. is then turned into the reaction of the precipitation goes on while the tank is filling, which requires about 15 minutes. When the tank is full the water is filtered through the Hyatt (4), 5 feet diameter, and the Jewell (1), 10 feet diameter, filters 30 minutes. Forty tanks treated per 24 hours.

Charge of water purified at once..... 35 M³, 9,275 gallons
Soda in purifying reagent..... 15 kgs. Na_2CO_3
Soda used per 1,000 gallons..... 3.5 lbs.

A sample is taken from each boiler every other day and tested for Baumé, soda and salt. If the deg. B. is more than 2, that boiler is blown down to reduce it below 2 deg. B.

The following are some analyses given by Mr. Cogswell:

	Lake Water, grams per litre.	Mud from Hyatt Filter.	Scale from Boiler-tube.	So for Pa
Calcium sulphate.....	.261	3.70	51.24	3
Calcium chloride.....	.186			
Calcium carbonate.....	.091	63.37	19.76	5
Magnesium carbonate.....	.015	1.11	25.21	
Magnesium chloride.....	.087			
Salt, NaCl.....	.63		.14	
Silica.....		15.17	2.29	
Iron and aluminum oxide.....		3.75	1.10	
Total.....	1.270	87.10	92.74	

Hard Water for Locomotive Use.—A water-soft-operation at Fossil, in Western Wyoming, on the Union Falls, described in *Eng'g News*, June 9, 1892. It is the invention of a man of Kansas City. The general plan adopted is to first displace the water in a closed tank, and then connect this to the supply main. The water will be forced into the main tank, the supply-pipe being cut off. A thorough mixture of the solution with the water is obtained by a side-pipe from the bottom of the tank is opened from time to time to allow the precipitate. The pipe leading to the tender is arranged to draw from near the surface.

A tank 24 feet in diameter and 16 feet high will contain about 46,600 gallons of water. About three hours should be allowed for this amount of water to pass through the tank to insure thorough precipitation, giving a consumption of about 15,000 gallons per hour. Should more water be required, auxiliary settling-tanks should be provided.

Salts added to precipitate the scale-forming impurities are soda ash and quicklime, varying in proportions according to the relative amounts of sulphates and carbonates in the water to be treated. Sodium carbonate is added to produce just enough sodium sulphate to combine with the remaining lime and magnesia sulphate and produce their corresponding magnesia salt, thereby to get rid of the lime, which produces foaming, if allowed to accumulate.

HYDRAULICS—FLOW OF WATER.

Discharge of Water through Orifices and Pipes.—The discharge of water through rectangular or circular orifices, with the head measured from the center of the orifice to the surface of the still water in the feeding reservoir.

$$Q = C \sqrt{2gH} \times a. \quad (1)$$

where Q = discharge in cubic feet per second; C = coefficient of discharge; a = area of orifice.

$$Q = C' \sqrt{2gH} \times LH. \quad (2)$$

where Q = discharge in cubic feet per second; C' = coefficient of discharge; L = length of orifice; H = head in feet measured from the center of the orifice to the surface of the still water in the feeding reservoir.

$$Q = cL \sqrt{2g} \times (\sqrt{H_0^3} - \sqrt{H_1^3}). \quad (3)$$

where Q = discharge in cubic feet per second; c = coefficient of discharge; L = length of orifice; H_0 = head in feet measured from the center of the orifice to the surface of the still water in the feeding reservoir; H_1 = head in feet measured from the center of the orifice to the surface of the still water in the receiving reservoir.

$$Q = c' \sqrt{2gH} \times Lh. \quad (4)$$

where Q = discharge in cubic feet per second; C' = coefficient of discharge; L = length of orifice; H = head in feet measured from the center of the orifice to the surface of the still water in the feeding reservoir; h = head in feet measured from the center of the orifice to the surface of the still water in the receiving reservoir.

The coefficients c and C' are given below.

$2g = 8.02$; H = head in feet measured from centre of orifice to surface of still water; H_0 = head measured from bottom of orifice; H_1 = head measured from top of orifice; $h = H$, corrected for velocity of approach; $H + \frac{4}{3} \frac{V_0^2}{2g}$; a = area in square feet; L = length in feet.

Water from Orifices.—The theoretical velocity of water flowing from an orifice is the same as the velocity of a falling body which has fallen through a height equal to the head of water, $= \sqrt{2gH}$. The actual velocity at the smaller section of the *vena contracta* is substantially the same as the theoretical, but the velocity at the plane of the orifice is less. The coefficient C has the nearly constant value of .62. The diameter of the *vena contracta* is therefore about .73 of the diameter of the orifice. The approximate coefficient = .62, and c the coefficient of discharge = .62.

cient, the ratio $\frac{C}{c}$ varies with different ratios of the head to the diameter of the vertical orifice, or to $\frac{H}{D}$. Hamilton Smith, Jr., gives the following

For $\frac{H}{D} = .5$.875	.1	1.5	2.	2.5	5.	10.
$\frac{C}{c} =$.9604	.9849	.9918	.9965	.9980	.9987	.9997

For vertical rectangular orifices of ratio of head to width W :

For $\frac{H}{W} = .5$.6	.8	.1	1.5	2.	3.	4.	5.
$\frac{C}{c} =$.9428	.9657	.9823	.9890	.9953	.9974	.9988	.9993

For $H \div D$ or $H \div W$ over 8, $C = c$, practically.

Weisbach gives the following values of c for circular orifices in a thin plate, $H =$ measured head from centre of orifice.

D ft.	H ft.					
	.066	.33	.82	2.0	3.0	45.
.033	.711	.665	.637	.628	.641	.632
.066			.629	.621		
.10			.622	.614		
.13			.614	.607		

For an orifice of $D = .033$ ft. and a well-rounded mouthpiece, H being effective head in feet,

$H = .066$	1.64	11.5	56	338
$c = .959$.967	.975	.994	.994

Hamilton Smith, Jr., found that for great heads, 312 ft. to 336 ft., with varying mouthpieces, c has a value of about one, and for small thin orifices in thin plates, with full contraction, $c =$ about .60. Some of Smith's experimental values of c for orifices in thin plates discharging air are as follows. All dimensions in feet.

Circular, in steel, $D = .020$,	$H =$.739	2.43	3.19		
	$c =$.6495	.6298	.6264		
Circular, in brass, $D = .050$,	$H =$.185	.596	1.74	2.73	3.57
	$c =$.6525	.6965	.6113	.6070	.6060
Circular, in brass, $D = .100$,	$H =$.129	.457	.900	1.73	2.05
	$c =$.6337	.6155	.6096	.6362	.6388
Circular, in iron, $D = .100$,	$H =$	1.80	1.81	2.81	4.28	
	$c =$.6061	.6041	.6033	.6036	
Square, in brass, $.05 \times .05$,	$H =$.313	.877	1.79	2.81	3.79
	$c =$.6410	.6238	.6157	.6127	.6113
Square, in brass, $.10 \times .10$,	$H =$.181	.439	1.71	2.75	3.74
	$c =$.6292	.6139	.6084	.6076	.6060
Rectangular, in brass, $L = .300, W = .050 \dots$	$H =$.261	.917	1.82	2.83	3.75
	$c =$.6476	.6280	.6203	.6180	.6174

For the rectangular orifice, L , the length, is horizontal.

Mr. Smith, as the result of the collation of much experimental data others as well as his own, gives tables of the value of c for vertical orifices with full contraction, with a free discharge into the air, with the inner edge of the plate, in which the orifice is pierced, plane, and with sharp corners, so that the escaping vein only touches these inner edges. The tables are abridged below. The coefficient c is to be used in the formulae (1) and (4) above. For formulae (1) and (2) use the coefficient C found from

above.

Values of Coefficient *c* for Vertical Orifices with Sharp Edges, Full Contraction, and Free Discharge into Air. (Hamilton Smith, Jr.)

Depth of Orifices <i>H</i> .	Square Orifices. Length of the Side of the Square, in feet.											
	.02	.03	.04	.05	.07	.10	.12	.15	.20	.40	.60	1.0
.4	.660	.645	.636	.637	.628	.621	.616	.611				
.6	.648	.636	.628	.623	.618	.613	.610	.608	.605	.603	.601	.600
.8	.632	.622	.616	.612	.609	.607	.606	.606	.605	.605	.604	.603
1.0	.623	.616	.612	.609	.607	.605	.605	.605	.604	.604	.603	.602
1.2	.616	.611	.608	.606	.605	.604	.604	.603	.603	.603	.602	.601
1.5	.606	.605	.604	.603	.602	.602	.602	.602	.602	.601	.601	.600
2.0	.599	.598	.598	.598	.598	.598	.598	.598	.598	.598	.598	.598

Depth of Orifices <i>H</i> .	Circular Orifices. Diameters, in feet.											
	.02	.03	.04	.05	.07	.10	.12	.15	.20	.40	.60	1.0
.4				.637	.628	.618	.612	.606				
.6	.655	.640	.630	.624	.618	.613	.609	.605	.601	.596	.593	.590
.8	.644	.631	.623	.617	.612	.608	.605	.603	.600	.598	.595	.593
1.0	.632	.621	.614	.610	.607	.604	.601	.600	.599	.599	.597	.596
1.2	.623	.614	.609	.605	.603	.602	.600	.599	.599	.598	.597	.596
1.5	.618	.611	.607	.604	.602	.600	.599	.599	.598	.598	.597	.596
2.0	.611	.606	.603	.601	.599	.598	.598	.597	.597	.597	.596	.595
2.5	.601	.600	.599	.598	.597	.596	.596	.596	.596	.596	.596	.594
3.0	.596	.596	.595	.595	.594	.594	.594	.594	.594	.594	.594	.593
4.0	.593	.593	.592	.592	.592	.592	.592	.592	.592	.592	.592	.592

HYDRAULIC FORMULÆ.—FLOW OF WATER IN OPEN AND CLOSED CHANNELS.

Flow of Water in Pipes.—The quantity of water discharged through a pipe depends on the "head;" that is, the vertical distance between the level surface of still water in the chamber at the entrance end of the pipe and the level of the centre of the discharge end of the pipe; also upon the length of the pipe, upon the character of its interior surface, upon its smoothness, and upon the number and sharpness of the bends; but it is independent of the position of the pipe, as horizontal, or inclined upwards or downwards.

The head, instead of being an actual distance between levels, may be caused by pressure, as by a pump, in which case the head is calculated as a vertical distance corresponding to the pressure 1 lb. per sq. in. = 2.309 ft. head, or 1 ft. head = .433 lb. per sq. in.

The total head operating to cause flow is divided into three parts: 1. The *velocity head*, which is the height through which a body must fall *in vacuo* to acquire the velocity with which the water flows into the pipe = $v^2 \div 2g$, in which *v* is the velocity in ft. per sec. and $2g = 64.32$; 2. the *entry-head*, that is required to overcome the resistance to entrance to the pipe. With sharp-edged entrance the entry-head = about $\frac{1}{4}$ the velocity-head; with smooth rounded entrance the entry-head is inappreciable; 3. the *friction-head*, due to the frictional resistance to flow within the pipe.

In ordinary cases of pipes of considerable length the sum of the entry and friction heads required scarcely exceeds 1 foot. In the case of long pipes with low heads the sum of the velocity and entry heads is generally so small that it may be neglected.

General Formula for Flow of Water in Pipes and Conduits.

Mean velocity in ft. per sec. = $c \sqrt{\text{mean hydraulic head} \div \text{slope}}$

Do, for pipes running full = $c \sqrt{\frac{\text{diameter}^5}{4}}$

in which *c* is a coefficient determined by experiment.

The mean hydraulic radius = $\frac{\text{Area of wet cross-section}}{\text{wet perimeter.}}$

In pipes running full, or exactly half full, and in semicircular open nels running full it is equal to $\frac{1}{4}$ diameter.

The slope = the head (or pressure expressed as a head, in feet)

+ length of pipe measured in a straight line from end to end

In open channels the slope is the actual slope of the surface, or its h unit of length, or the sine of the angle of the slope with the horizon.

If r = mean hydraulic radius, s = slope = head \div length, v = velocity per second all dimensions in feet, $v = c \sqrt{r} \sqrt{s} = c \sqrt{rs}$.

Quantity of Water Discharged.—If Q = discharge in cubic feet per second and a = area of channel, $Q = av = ac \sqrt{rs}$.

$a \sqrt{r}$ is approximately proportional to the discharge. It is a maximum at 308° , corresponding to $19/20$ of the diameter, and the flow of a conduit full is about 5 per cent greater than that of one completely filled.

Table giving Fall in Feet per Mile, the Distance on which it corresponds to a Fall of 1 Ft., and also the Value of s and \sqrt{s} for Use in the Formula $v = c \sqrt{rs}$.

$s = H \div L$ = sine of angle of slope = fall of water-surface (H), in inches, divided by that distance.

Fall in Feet per Mi.	Slope, 1 Foot in	Sine of Slope, s .	\sqrt{s} .	Fall in Feet per Mi.	Slope, 1 Foot in	Sine of Slope, s .	\sqrt{s} .
0.25	21120	.0000473	.006881	17	310.6	.0032197	.0567
.30	17600	.0000568	.007538	18	293.3	.0034091	.0583
.40	13200	.0000758	.008704	19	277.9	.0035985	.0600
.50	10560	.0000947	.009731	20	264	.0037879	.0617
.60	8800	.0001136	.010660	22	240	.0041667	.0645
.702	7520	.0001320	.011532	24	220	.0045455	.0672
.805	6560	.0001524	.012347	26	203.1	.0049243	.0700
.904	5840	.0001712	.013085	28	188.6	.0053030	.0727
1.	5280	.0001894	.013762	30	176	.0056818	.0755
1.25	4224	.0002367	.015386	35.20	150	.0066667	.0816
1.5	3520	.0002841	.016854	40	132	.0075758	.0869
1.75	3017	.0003314	.018205	44	120	.0084833	.0922
2.	2610	.0003788	.019463	48	110	.0093909	.0975
2.25	2347	.0004261	.020641	52.8	100	.010	.1028
2.5	2112	.0004735	.021760	60	88	.0113236	.1081
2.75	1920	.0005208	.022822	66	80	.0125	.1134
3.	1760	.0005682	.023837	70.4	75	.0135333	.1187
3.25	1625	.0006154	.024807	80	66	.0151515	.1240
3.5	1508	.0006631	.025751	88	60	.0166667	.1293
3.75	1408	.0007102	.026650	96	55	.0181818	.1346
4	1320	.0007576	.027524	105.6	50	.02	.1400
5	1056	.0009470	.030773	120	44	.0227273	.1453
6	880	.0011364	.03371	132	40	.025	.1506
7	754.3	.0013257	.036416	160	33	.0303030	.1559
8	660	.0015152	.038925	220	24	.0416667	.1612
9	586.6	.0017044	.041286	264	20	.05	.1665
10	528	.0018939	.043519	330	16	.0625	.1718
11	443.6	.0020833	.045643	440	12	.0833333	.1771
12	440	.0022727	.047673	528	10	.1	.1824
13	406.1	.0024621	.04962	660	8	.125	.1877
14	377.1	.0026515	.051493	880	6	.1666667	.1930
15	352	.0028409	.0533	1056	5	.2	.1983
16	330	.0030303	.055048	1320	4	.25	.2036

of \sqrt{r} for Circular Pipes, Sewers, and Conduits of different Diameters.

hydraulic depth = $\frac{\text{area}}{\text{perimeter}} = \frac{1}{4}$ diam. for circular pipes run-
or exactly half full.

\sqrt{r} in Feet.	Diam., ft. in.	\sqrt{r} in Feet.	Diam., ft. in.	\sqrt{r} in Feet.	Diam., ft. in.	\sqrt{r} in Feet.
.088	2	.707	4 6	1.061	9	1.500
.102	2 1	.722	4 7	1.070	9 3	1.521
.125	2 2	.736	4 8	1.080	9 6	1.541
.144	2 3	.750	4 9	1.089	9 9	1.561
.161	2 4	.764	4 10	1.099	10	1.581
.177	2 5	.777	4 11	1.109	10 3	1.601
.191	2 6	.790	5	1.118	10 6	1.620
.204	2 7	.804	5 1	1.127	10 9	1.639
.228	2 8	.817	5 2	1.137	11	1.658
.251	2 9	.829	5 3	1.146	11 3	1.677
.290	2 10	.842	5 4	1.155	11 6	1.696
.323	2 11	.854	5 5	1.164	11 9	1.714
.354	3	.866	5 6	1.173	12	1.732
.382	3 1	.878	5 7	1.181	12 3	1.750
.408	3 2	.890	5 8	1.190	12 6	1.768
.433	3 3	.901	5 9	1.199	12 9	1.785
.456	3 4	.913	5 10	1.208	13	1.803
.479	3 5	.924	5 11	1.216	13 3	1.820
.500	3 6	.935	6	1.225	13 6	1.837
.520	3 7	.946	6 3	1.250	14	1.871
.540	3 8	.957	6 6	1.275	14 6	1.904
.559	3 9	.968	6 9	1.299	15	1.936
.577	3 10	.979	7	1.323	15 6	1.968
.595	3 11	.990	7 3	1.346	16	2.
.612	4	1.	7 6	1.369	16 6	2.031
.629	4 1	1.010	7 9	1.392	17	2.061
.646	4 2	1.021	8	1.414	17 6	2.091
.661	4 3	1.031	8 3	1.436	18	2.121
.677	4 4	1.041	8 6	1.458	19	2.180
.692	4 5	1.051	8 9	1.479	20	2.236

of the Coefficient c . (Chiefly condensed from P. J. Flynn of Water.)—Almost all the old hydraulic formulæ for finding the velocity in open and closed channels have constant coefficients, and are correct for only a small range of channels. They have often been given incorrect results with disastrous effects. Ganguillet and Kutter have investigated the American, French, and other experiments, and as the result of their labors the formula now generally known as Kutter's formula. There are so many varying conditions affecting the velocity, that all hydraulic formulæ are only approximations to the result.

When the surface-slope measurement is good, Kutter's formula will give a result not exceeding 7½% error, provided the rugosity coefficient of the channel is known for the site. For small open channels D'Arcy's and Manning's formulæ, and for cast-iron pipes D'Arcy's formulæ, are generally as being approximately correct.

Manning's Formula for measures in feet is

$$v = \left\{ \frac{1.486}{n} \left(49.15 + \frac{.00081}{s} \right) \right\} \times \sqrt{rs},$$

v = mean velocity in feet per second; r = $\frac{a}{p}$ = hydraulic mean

depth in feet = area of cross-section in square feet divided by wetter in lineal feet; s = fall of water-surface (h) in any distance; by that distance, $= \frac{h}{l}$, = sine of slope; n = the coefficient of rug-
 pending on the nature of the lining or surface of the channel. If the first term of the right-hand side of the equation equal c , we have formula, $v = c \sqrt{rs} = c \times \sqrt{r} \times \sqrt{s}$.

Values of n in Kutter's Formula.—The accuracy of Kutter's formula depends, in a great measure, on the proper selection of the coefficient of roughness n . Experience is required in order to give the right value of this coefficient, and to this end great assistance can be obtained, by this selection, by consulting and comparing the results obtained in experiments on the flow of water already made in different channels.

In some cases it would be well to provide for the contingency of deterioration of channel, by selecting a high value of n , as, for example, where a dense growth of weeds is likely to occur in small channels, where channels are likely not to be kept in a state of good repair.

The following table, giving the value of n for different materials piled from Kutter, Jackson, and Hering, and this value of n applied each instance, to the surfaces of other materials equally rough.

VALUE OF n IN KUTTER'S FORMULA FOR DIFFERENT CHANNELS

$n = .009$, well-planed timber, in perfect order and alignment; or perhaps .01 would be suitable.

$n = .010$, plaster in pure cement; planed timber; glazed, coated or enamelled stoneware and iron pipes; glazed surfaces of every sort in perfect order.

$n = .011$, plaster in cement with one third sand, in good condition on iron, cement, and terra cotta pipes, well joined, and in best order.

$n = .012$, unplanned timber, when perfectly continuous on the flumes.

$n = .013$, ashlar and well-laid brickwork; ordinary metal; earthen stoneware pipe in good condition, but not new; cement and terra-cotta not well jointed nor in perfect order; plaster and planed wood in inferior condition; and, generally, the materials mentioned when in imperfect or inferior condition.

$n = .015$, second class or rough-faced brickwork; well-dressed steel and slightly tuberculated iron; cement and terra-cotta pipes, perfect joints and in bad order; and canvas lining on wooden flumes.

$n = .017$, brickwork, ashlar, and stoneware in an inferior condition; tuberculated iron pipes; rubble in cement or plaster in good order; and well rammed, $\frac{1}{16}$ to $\frac{1}{8}$ inch diameter; and, generally, the materials mentioned with $n = .013$ when in bad order and condition.

$n = .020$, rubble in cement in an inferior condition; coarse rubble set in a normal condition; coarse rubble set dry; ruined bricks and masonry; coarse gravel well rammed, from 1 to $\frac{1}{16}$ inch diameter with beds and banks of very firm, regular gravel, carefully trimmed in defective places; rough rubble with bed partially covered with silt and mud; rectangular wooden troughs, with battens on the sides, spaced apart; trimmed earth in perfect order.

$n = .025$, canals in earth above the average in order and regimen; $n = .025$, canals and rivers in earth of tolerably uniform cross-section and direction, in moderately good order and regimen, and free from stones and weeds.

$n = .075$, canals and rivers in earth below the average in order and regimen.

$n = .030$, canals and rivers in earth in rather bad order and regimen, with stones and weeds occasionally, and obstructed by detritus.

$n = .035$, suitable for rivers and canals with earthen beds in bad order and regimen, and having stones and weeds in great quantities.

$n = .05$, torrents encumbered with detritus.

Kutter's formula has the advantage of being easily adapted to the surface of the pipe exposed to the flow of water, by a change of value of n . For cast-iron pipes it is usual to use $n = .013$ to provide for future deterioration of the surface.

Reducing Kutter's formula to the form $v = c \times \sqrt{r} \times \sqrt{s}$, and taking coefficient of roughness in the formula = .011, .012, and .013, and c = 49.4, 50.0, and 50.6, have the following values of the coefficient c for different sizes of conduit.

of c in Formula $v = c \times \sqrt[4]{R} \times \sqrt{s}$ for Metal Pipes and Moderately Smooth Conduits Generally.

By KUTTER'S FORMULA. ($s = .001$ or greater.)

r .	$n = .011$	$n = .012$	$n = .013$	Diameter.	$n = .011$	$n = .012$	$n = .013$
	$c =$	$c =$	$c =$	ft.	$c =$	$c =$	$c =$
	47.1	7	152.7	139.2	127.9
	61.5	8	155.4	141.9	130.4
	77.4	9	157.7	144.1	132.7
	87.4	77.5	69.5	10	159.7	146	134.5
	105.7	94.6	85.3	11	161.5	147.8	136.2
	116.1	104.3	94.4	12	163	149.3	137.7
	129.6	111.3	101.1	14	165.8	152	140.4
	133.6	120.8	110.1	16	168	154.2	142.1
	140.4	127.4	116.5	18	169.9	156.1	144.4
	145.4	132.3	121.1	20	171.6	157.7	146
	149.4	136.1	124.8				

ular pipes the hydraulic mean depth r equals $\frac{1}{4}$ of the diameter. ing to Kutter's formula the value of c , the coefficient of discharge, e for all slopes greater than 1 in 1000; that is, within these limits ant. We further find that up to a slope of 1 in 2640 the value of c practical purposes, constant, and even up to a slope of 1 in 5000 ence in the value of c is very little. This is exemplified in the

of c for Different Values of $\sqrt[4]{R}$ and s in Kutter's Formula, with $n = .013$.

$$v = c \sqrt[4]{R} \times \sqrt{s}.$$

Slopes.

in 1000	1 in 2500	1 in 3333.3	1 in 5000	1 in 10,000
93.6	91.5	90.4	88.4	83.3
116.5	115.2	114.4	113.2	109.7
142.6	142.8	143.0	143.1	143.8

ability of the values of the coefficient of Kutter's formula for less than 6 in. diameter is considered doubtful. (See note under age 564.)

of c for Earthen Channels, by Kutter's Formula, for Use in Formula $v = c \sqrt[4]{rs}$.

Coefficient of Roughness, $n = .0225$.					Coefficient of Roughness, $n = .035$.				
$\sqrt[4]{R}$ in feet.					$\sqrt[4]{R}$ in feet.				
0.4	1.0	1.8	2.5	4.0	0.4	1.0	1.8	2.5	4.0
c	c	c	c	c	c	c	c	c	c
35.7	62.5	80.3	89.2	99.9	19.7	37.6	51.6	59.3	69.2
35.5	62.3	80.3	89.3	100.2	19.6	37.6	51.6	59.4	69.4
35.2	62.1	80.3	89.5	100.6	19.4	37.4	51.6	59.5	69.8
34.6	61.7	80.3	89.8	101.4	19.1	37.1	51.6	59.7	70.4
34.	61.2	80.3	90.1	102.2	18.8	36.9	51.6	59.9	71.0
33.	60.5	80.3	90.7	103.7	18.3	36.4	51.6	60.4	72.2
31.6	59.4	80.3	91.5	106.0	17.6	35.8	51.6	60.9	73.9
30.5	58.5	80.3	92.3	107.9	17.1	35.3	51.6	60.5	75.4
29.5	56.7	80.2	93.9	113.2	16.2	34.3	51.6		
27.4	55.7	80.2	94.8	115.0	15.6	33.8	51.5		

Mr. Molesworth, in the 22d edition of his "Pocket-book of English Formulae," gives a modification of Kutter's formula as follows: For cast-iron pipes, $v = c \sqrt{rs}$, in which

$$c = \frac{181 + \frac{.00281}{s}}{1 + \frac{.026}{\sqrt{d}} \left(41.6 + \frac{.00281}{s} \right)^{.5}}$$

in which d = diameter of the pipe in feet.

(This formula was given incorrectly in Molesworth's 21st edition.)

Molesworth's Formula.— $v = \sqrt{krs}$, in which the values of k are as follows:

Nature of Channel.	Values of k for Velocities	
	Less than 4 ft. per sec.	More than 4 ft. per sec.
Brickwork.....	8800	8500
Earth.....	7800	6800
Shingle.....	6400	5900
Rough, with boulders.....	5300	4700

In very large channels, rivers, etc., the description of the channel is the result so slightly that it may be practically neglected, and k assumed from 8500 to 9000.

Flynn's Formula.—Mr. Flynn obtains the following expression for the value of Kutter's coefficient for a slope of .001 and a value of $n =$

$$c = \frac{183.72}{1 + \left(44.41 \times \frac{.013}{\sqrt{r}} \right)}$$

The following table shows the close agreement of the values of c obtained from Kutter's, Molesworth's, and Flynn's formulae:

Diameter.	Slope.	Kutter.	Molesworth.
6 inches	1 in 40	71.50	71.48
6 inches	1 in 1000	69.50	69.79
4 feet	1 in 400	117.	117.
4 feet	1 in 1000	116.5	116.55
8 feet	1 in 700	130.5	130.68
8 feet	1 in 2600	129.8	129.93

Mr. Flynn gives another simplified form of Kutter's formula for use with different values of n as follows:

$$v = \left(\frac{K}{1 + \left(44.41 \times \frac{n}{\sqrt{r}} \right)} \right) \sqrt{rs}$$

In the following table the value of K is given for the several values of n :

n	K	n	K	n	K	n	K	n	K
.009	245.63	.012	195.33	.015	165.14	.018	145.03	.021	130.21
.010	225.51	.013	183.72	.016	157.6	.019	139.73	.022	127.02
.011	209.05	.014	187.77	.017	150.94	.020	134.96	.023	124.23

If in the application of Mr. Flynn's formula given above within the limits of n as given in the table, we substitute for n , K , and \sqrt{r} their values from the table, we have the form of Kutter's formula.

be, when $u = .011$, and $d = 3$ feet, we have

$$v = \frac{209.05}{1 + \left(44.41 \times \frac{.011}{.866}\right)} \times \sqrt{rs}.$$

Formula:

even surfaces, fine plastered sides and bed, planed planks, etc.,

$$v = \sqrt{1 + .000045 \left(10.16 + \frac{1}{r}\right)} \times \sqrt{rs}.$$

surfaces such as cut-stone, brickwork, unplanned planking, mortar,

$$v = \sqrt{1 + .000013 \left(4.354 + \frac{1}{r}\right)} \times \sqrt{rs}.$$

uneven surfaces, such as rubble masonry:

$$v = \sqrt{1 + .00006 \left(1.219 + \frac{1}{r}\right)} \times \sqrt{rs}.$$

surfaces, such as earth:

$$v = \sqrt{1 + .00035 \left(0.3438 + \frac{1}{r}\right)} \times \sqrt{rs}.$$

tion of Bazin's formula, known as D'Arcy's Bazin's:

$$v = r \sqrt{\frac{1000s}{.08534r + 0.35}}$$

channels of less than 20 feet bed Bazin's formula for earthen
in good order gives very fair results, but Kutter's formula is super-
almost all countries where its accuracy has been investigated.
table on p. 561 shows the value of c , in Kutter's formula, for a wide
channels in earth, that will cover anything likely to occur in the
practice of an engineer.

2's Formula for clean iron pipes under pressure is

$$v = \left\{ \frac{rs}{.00007736 + \frac{.00000162}{r}} \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

modification of D'Arcy's formula is

$$v = \left(\frac{155256d}{12d + 1} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \times \sqrt{rs}$$

d = diameter in feet.

formula, as given by J. B. Francis, C.E., for old cast-iron pipe,
deposit and under pressure, is

$$v = \left(\frac{144d^2s}{.0082(12d + 1)} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

modification of D'Arcy's formula for old cast-iron pipe is

$$v = \left(\frac{70243.2d}{12d + 1} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \times \sqrt{rs}.$$

For Pipes Less than 5 inches in Diameter, coefficients in the formula $v = c \sqrt{rs}$, from the formula of D'Arcy, Kutter, and Fanning.

Diam. in inches.	D'Arcy, for Clean Pipes.	Kutter, for $n = .011$ $s = .001$	Fanning, for Clean Iron Pipes	Diam. in inches	D'Arcy, for Clean Pipes.	Kutter, for $n = .011$ $s = .001$	Van
$\frac{3}{8}$	59.4	32.		$1\frac{3}{4}$	90.7	58.8	
$\frac{1}{2}$	65.7	36.1		2	92.9	61.5	
$\frac{3}{4}$	74.5	42.6		$2\frac{1}{2}$	96.1	66.	
1	80.4	47.4	80.4	3	98.5	70.1	
$1\frac{1}{4}$	84.8	51.9		4	101.7	77.4	
$1\frac{1}{2}$	88.1	55.4	88.	5	103.8	82.9	

Mr. Flynn, in giving the above table, says that the facts show that the coefficients diminish from a diameter of 5 inches to smaller diameters, is a safer plan to adopt coefficients varying with the diameter than a constant coefficient. No opinion is advanced as to what coefficients should be used with Kutter's formula for small diameters. The facts are stated, giving the results of well-known authors.

Older Formulae.—The following are a few of the many formulas for the flow of water in pipes given by earlier writers. As they have constant coefficients, they are not considered as reliable as the newer formulae.

$$\text{Prony, } v = 97 \sqrt{rs} - .08;$$

$$\text{Eytelwein, } v = 50 \sqrt{\frac{dh}{l + 50d}} \quad \text{or } v = 108 \sqrt{rs} - 0.13;$$

$$\text{Hawksley, } v = 48 \sqrt{\frac{dh}{l + 54d}}; \quad \text{Neville, } v = 140 \sqrt{rs} - 11 \sqrt{\frac{1}{r}}$$

In these formulae d = diameter in feet; h = head of water in feet; length of pipe in feet; s = sine of slope = $\frac{h}{l}$; r = mean hydraulic

$$= \frac{\text{area} + \text{wet perimeter}}{4} \text{ for circular pipe.}$$

Mr. Santo Crimp (*Eng'g*, August 4, 1893) states that observations on brick sewers show that the actual discharge is 33% greater than calculated by Eytelwein's formula. He thinks Kutter's formula not superior to D'Arcy's for brick sewers, the usual coefficient of roughness is former, viz., .013, being too low for large sewers and far too small in the case of small sewers.

D'Arcy's formula for brickwork is

$$v = \frac{\sqrt{2g}}{m} \sqrt{rs}; \quad m = a \left(1 + \frac{B}{r} \right); \quad a = .0037285; \quad B = .229663.$$

VELOCITY OF WATER IN OPEN CHANNELS.

Irrigation Canals.—The minimum mean velocity required to prevent the deposit of silt or the growth of aquatic plants is in Northern Italy taken at $1\frac{1}{4}$ feet per second. It is stated that in America a higher velocity is required for this purpose, and it varies from 2 to $3\frac{1}{4}$ feet per second. The maximum allowable velocity will vary with the nature of the soil of the bed. A sandy bed will be disturbed if the velocity exceeds 3 feet per second. Good loam with not too much sand will bear a velocity of 4 feet per second. The Cavour Canal in Italy, over a gravel bed, has a velocity about 5 feet per second. (Flynn's "Irrigation Canals.")

Mean Surface and Bottom Velocities.—According to the formula of Bazin,

$$v = 0.848a - 25.4 \sqrt{rs}; \quad v = vb + 10.8 \sqrt{rs}.$$

$10.87 \sqrt{rs}$, in which v = mean velocity in feet per second, v_s = surface velocity in feet per second, v_b = bottom velocity in feet per second, r = hydraulic mean depth in feet = area of cross-section divided by wetted perimeter in feet, s = sine of slope. The velocity, or that of the particles in contact with the bed, is less than the mean velocity as the greatest velocity is the mean.

In ordinary cases the velocities may be taken as bearing nearly the proportions of 3, 4, and 5. In very slow currents nearly as 2, 3, and 4.

Bottom and Mean Velocities.—Ganguillet & Kutter give a table of safe bottom and mean velocity in channels, calculated by the formula $v = v_b + 10.87 \sqrt{rs}$:

Material of Channel.	Safe Bottom Velocity v_b , in feet per second.	Mean Velocity v , in feet per second.
Smooth earth	0.249	0.328
.....	0.499	0.656
.....	1.000	1.312
.....	1.998	2.625
.....	2.999	3.938
.....	4.003	5.579
.....	4.988	6.564
.....	6.006	8.204
.....	10.009	13.137

Ganguillet & Kutter state that they are unable for want of observations to verify these figures are trustworthy. They consider them to be proportionately small than too large, and therefore recommend to be used with caution.

When a channel is to be dug at a high velocity and carrying large quantities of silt is very likely to be choked, even when constructed of the best masonry.

Resistance of Soils to Erosion by Water.—W. A. Burr, *Eng'g* 1894, gives a diagram showing the resistance of various soils to erosion by water.

It is shown that a velocity greater than 1.1 feet per second will erode pure clay, while pure sand will stand a velocity of 7.35 feet per second. The proportion of clay carried by any soil, the higher the velocity. Mr. Burr states that experiments have shown that the law of resistance of soils to resist erosion is parabolic. From his following figures are selected representing different classes of soils.

Pure sand resists erosion by flow of	1.1 feet per second.
.....	1.2 " "
.....	1.8 " "
.....	3.0 " "
.....	4.8 " "
.....	6.2 " "
.....	7.35 " "

Transporting Power of Water.—Prof. J. H. Burgin, *Elements of Geology*, states:

The transporting power of water, or its power of overcoming cohesion, varies as the sixth power of the velocity of the current.

If the velocity of a current varies as the sixth power of the velocity, the transporting power therefore be increased ten times, the transporting power is increased 1,000,000 times. A current running three feet per second will carry fragments of stone of the size of an egg, or about three ounces weight. A current of ten miles an hour will carry fragments of one and a half tons, and a torrent of twenty miles an hour will carry fragments of 100 tons.

The transporting power of water must not be confounded with its erosive power. The resistance to be overcome in the one case is weight, in the other case is cohesion; the latter varies as the square; the former as the sixth power of the velocity.

In the case of removal of slightly cohering material, the resistance

mixture of these two resistances, and the power of removing matter vary at some rate between v^2 and v^4 .

Baldwin Latham has found that in order to prevent deposits of matter in small sewers or drains, such as those from 6 inches to 9 inches in diameter, a mean velocity of not less than 3 feet per second should be maintained. Sewers from 12 to 34 inches diameter should have a velocity of not less than 2½ feet per second, and in sewers of larger dimensions in no case should the velocity be less than 2 feet per second.

The specific gravity of the materials has a marked effect upon the velocities necessary to move them. T. E. Blackwell found that a stone of sp. gr. of 1.96 was moved by a current of from 1.25 to 1.50 ft. per second, while stones of a sp. gr. of 2.32 to 3.00 required a velocity of 2.5 to 3.5 ft. per second.

Chailly gives the following formula for finding the velocity required to move rounded stones or shingle :

$$v = 5.67 \sqrt{ag},$$

in which v = velocity of water in feet per second, a = average diameter of the body to be moved, g = its specific gravity.

Geo. Y. Wisner, *Eng'g News*, Jan 10, 1895, doubts the general statements made by many authorities concerning the rate of flow and the size of particles which different velocities will move.

The scouring action of any river, for any given rate of current, is an inverse function of the depth. The fact that some engineer has found a given velocity of current on some stream of unknown depth to move sand or gravel has no bearing whatever on what may be expected in streams of the same velocity in streams of greater depths. In channels 4 to 5 ft. deep a mean velocity of 3 to 5 ft. per second may produce rapid scour, while in depths of 18 ft. and upwards current velocities of 6 to 8 ft. per second often have no effect whatever on the channel bed.

Grade of Sewers.—The following empirical formula is given by the engineermeister's "Cleaning and Sewerage of Cities," for the minimum grade of sewer of clear diameter equal to d inches, and either circular or rectangular section :

$$\text{Minimum grade, in per cent.} = \frac{100}{5d + 50}$$

As the lowest limit of grades which can be flushed, 0.1 to 0.2 per cent, may be assumed for sewers which are sometimes dry, while 0.3 per cent may be assumed for the trunk sewers in large cities. The sewers should rarely be flatter than these grades.

Relation of Diameter of Pipe to Quantity Discharged

In many cases which arise in practice the information sought is whether a given diameter of pipe is necessary to supply a given quantity of water under a given head. The diameter is commonly taken to vary as the two-fifth power of the discharge. This is almost certainly too large. Hagen's formula, with

Unwin's coefficients, give $d = c \left(\frac{Q}{h} \right)^{\frac{1}{5}}$, where $c = .339$ when Q is in cubic feet per second.

Mr. Thrupp has proposed a formula which makes d vary as the 3/5 power of the discharge, and the formula of M. Vallot, a French engineer, makes d vary as the .375 power of the discharge. (*Engineering*.)

FLOW OF WATER—EXPERIMENTS AND TABLES

The Flow of Water through New Cast-iron Pipes

recently measured by S. Bent Russell, of the St. Louis, Mo., Water Works. The pipe was 12 inches in diameter, 1631 feet long, and laid on a grade from end to end. Under an average total head of 3.36 feet the flow was 43,300 cubic feet in seven hours; under an average head of 3.37 feet the flow was the same; under an average total head of 3.41 feet the flow was 46,700 cubic feet in 8 hours and 35 minutes. Making allowance for the head due to entrance and to curves, it was found that the value of the formula $v = c \sqrt[5]{rs}$ was from 88 to 93. (*Eng'g Record*, April 14, 1895.)

Water in a 20-inch Pipe 75,000 Feet Long.—A comparison of experimental data with calculations by different laws

s. B. Brush, Trans. A. S. C. E., 1888. The pipe experimented
t supplying the city of Hoboken, N. J.

TAINED BY THE HACKENSACK WATER COMPANY, FROM 1882-1887,
ING THROUGH A 20-IN. CAST-IRON MAIN 75,000 FEET LONG.

bs. per sq. in. at pumping-station:						
100	105	110	115	120	125	130
re head in feet :						
66	77	89	100	112	123	135
U. S. gallons in 24 hours, 1 = 1000 :						
3,165	3,354	3,566	3,804	3,904	4,116	4,255
ity in main in feet per second :						
2.24	2.36	2.52	2.68	2.76	2.92	3.00
consumed in delivering each million gals. at given velocities :						
\$5.15	\$8.00	\$8.10	\$8.30	\$8.60	\$9.00	\$9.60
discharge by D'Arcy's formula :						
3,004	3,244	3,488	3,699	3,915	4,102	4,297

s in Smooth Cast-iron Water-pipes from 1 Foot
feet in Diameter, on Hydraulic Grades of 0.5
to 8 Feet per Mile; with Corresponding Values
 $V = c \sqrt{rs}$. (D. M. Greene, in *Eng'g News*, Feb. 24, 1894.)

Hydraulic Grade; Feet per Mile = h .

$h = 0.5$ $c = 0.000047$	1.0 $c = 0.0001894$	1.5 $c = 0.0002841$	2.0 $c = 0.0003788$	3.0 $c = 0.0005682$	4.0 $c = 0.0007576$
$V = 0.4542$	0.6673	0.8356	0.9803	1.2277	1.4402
$c = 92.7$	97.0	99.1	100.7	103.0	104.7
$V = 0.7359$	-1.0793	1.3516	1.5856	1.9857	2.3294
$c = 106.6$	110.9	113.4	115.2	117.9	119.7
$V = 0.9733$	1.4298	1.7906	2.1017	2.6306	3.0860
$c = 115.5$	119.9	122.6	124.4	127.5	129.5
$V = 1.1883$	1.7456	2.1861	2.5645	3.2116	3.7676
$c = 122.1$	126.8	129.7	131.8	134.7	136.9
$V = 1.3872$	2.0379	2.5521	2.9939	3.7493	4.3983
$c = 127.5$	132.4	135.5	137.6	140.7	142.9
$V = 1.5742$	2.3126	2.8961	3.3975	4.2548	4.9913
$c = 132.1$	137.8	140.3	142.6	145.8	148.1
$V = 1.7518$	2.5736	3.2230	3.7809	4.7350	5.5546
$c = 135.9$	141.4	146.0	146.8	150.2	152.5
$V = 1.9218$	2.8234	3.5358	4.1479	5.1945	6.0936
$c = 139.7$	145.1	148.4	150.7	154.1	156.5
$V = 2.0854$	3.0638	3.8368	4.5010	5.6368	6.6125
$c = 142.9$	148.4	151.7	154.2	157.6	160.1

ties in this table have been calculated by Mr. Greene's modifica-
Chezy formula, which modification is found to give results
by from 1.25 to - 2.65 per cent (average 0.9 per cent) from very
asured flows in pipes from 16 to 48 inches in diameter, on grades
et to 10.296 feet per mile, and in which the velocities ranged
o 6.193 feet per second. The only assumption made is that the
mula for V gives correct results in conduits from 4 feet to 9
eter, as it is known to do in conduits less than 4 feet in diameter.
cles on Flow of Water in long tubes are to be found in *Eng'g*
ows ; G. B. Pearsons, *Sept. 23, 18.6*; E. Sherman Gould, *Feb. 16,*
18, and 23, 1889; J. L. Fitzgerald, *Sept. 6 and 13, 1890*; Jas. Duane
J. T. Fanning, July 14, 1892; A. N. Talbot, *Aug. 11, 1892*.

Flow of Water in Circular Pipes, Sewers, &c., Full, Based on Kutter's Formula, with Discharge in cubic feet per second.

Diam. pipe.	Slope, or Head Driven, or Location					
	1 in 40	1 in 70	1 in 100	1 in 200	1 in 300	1 in 400
6 in.	.456	.344	.288	.204	.160	.144
8 "	.707	.576	.482	.347	.270	.240
10 "	1.17	.889	.744	.520	.410	.360
12 "	1.70	1.29	1.08	.770	.600	.540
14 "	2.37	1.79	1.50	1.060	.830	.750
Slope ...	1 in 60	1 in 80	1 in 100	1 in 200	1 in 300	1 in 400
10 in.	2.81	2.34	2.01	1.43	1.10	.990
11 "	3.14	2.64	2.28	1.66	1.28	1.15
12 "	3.52	2.94	2.55	1.87	1.45	1.30
13 "	3.95	3.24	2.81	2.07	1.60	1.44
14 "	4.43	3.54	3.08	2.26	1.75	1.56
Slope ...	1 in 100	1 in 200	1 in 300	1 in 400	1 in 500	1 in 600
15 in.	4.96	3.84	3.35	2.43	1.95	1.77
16 "	5.54	4.32	3.78	2.76	2.18	2.00
18 "	6.72	5.16	4.50	3.27	2.55	2.34
20 "	7.50	5.88	5.10	3.70	2.90	2.67
22 "	8.37	6.60	5.68	4.15	3.20	2.94
24 "	9.34	7.32	6.24	4.62	3.50	3.20
Slope ...	1 in 200	1 in 400	1 in 600	1 in 800	1 in 1000	1 in 1200
2 ft.	13.88	11.93	9.17	7.54	7.10	6.80
2 ft. 2 in.	19.73	18.96	11.39	9.87	8.82	8.38
2 ft. 4 in.	24.15	17.07	13.94	12.07	10.80	9.90
2 ft. 6 in.	28.08	16.56	16.73	14.54	12.60	11.62
2 ft. 8 in.	31.71	16.54	19.04	17.35	15.52	13.90
Slope ...	1 in 500	1 in 750	1 in 1000	1 in 1250	1 in 1500	1 in 2000
2 ft. 10 in.	35.84	21.10	18.27	16.34	14.82	13.30
3 "	30.14	24.61	21.31	19.06	17.40	15.71
3 ft.	24.80	28.30	24.68	22.07	20.15	18.00
3 ft. 2 in.	20.08	32.11	28.84	25.35	23.14	21.02
3 ft. 4 in.	16.10	37.25	33.38	28.87	26.36	24.00
3 ft. 6 in.	12.80	43.32	38.50	32.72	29.87	27.00
3 ft. 8 in.	10.00	47.65	41.97	36.91	33.69	31.20
4 "	8.47	53.40	46.30	41.41	37.80	34.50
4 ft.	6.97	59.28	51.47	46.76	42.82	39.00
5 "	5.80	67.00	58.08	53.21	49.65	45.50
Slope ...	1 in 750	1 in 1000	1 in 1500	1 in 2000	1 in 2500	1 in 3000
5 ft. 6 in.	125.2	108.4	88.54	76.67	68.58	62.60
6 "	157.8	136.7	111.6	96.66	86.45	78.92
6 ft.	195.0	168.8	137.9	119.4	106.8	97.49
7 "	237.7	205.9	168.1	145.6	130.2	118.8
7 ft.	285.3	247.1	201.7	174.7	156.3	142.6
Slope ...	1 in 1500	1 in 2000	1 in 2500	1 in 3000	1 in 3500	1 in 4000
8 ft.	239.4	207.3	195.4	169.3	156.7	146.6
8 ft. 6 in.	281.7	243.5	217.8	198.8	184.0	172.2
9 "	327.0	283.1	253.3	231.2	214.0	200.2
9 ft. 6 in.	376.9	326.4	291.9	266.5	240.7	230.8
10 "	431.4	373.6	334.1	305.0	282.4	264.2

For U. S. gallons multiply the figures in the table by 7.48
 For a given diameter the quantity of flow varies as the square
 of the slope. From this principle the flow for other

in the table may be found. Thus, what is the flow for a pipe 8 feet
ter, slope 1 in 125? From the table take $Q = 207.3$ for slope 1 in 2000,
ven slope 1 in 125 is to 1 in 2000 as 16 to 1, and the square root of this
a 4 to 1. Therefore the flow required is $207.3 \times 4 = 829.2$ cu. ft.

Circular Pipes, Conduits, etc., Flowing Full.

es of the factor $ac \sqrt{r}$ in the formula $Q = ac \sqrt{r} \times \sqrt{s}$ correspond-
different values of the coefficient of roughness, n . (Based on Kutter's
ta.)

Value of $ac \sqrt{r}$.

$n = .010.$	$n = .011.$	$n = .012.$	$n = .013.$	$n = .015.$	$n = .017.$
6.906	6.0627	5.3800	4.8216	3.9604	3.329
21.25	18.742	16.708	15.029	12.421	10.50
46.03	41.487	37.149	33.497	27.803	23.60
80.05	76.347	68.44	61.867	51.600	43.93
141.2	125.60	112.79	102.14	85.496	72.99
214.1	190.79	171.66	155.68	130.58	111.8
307.6	274.50	247.33	224.63	188.77	164
421.9	377.07	340.10	309.23	260.47	223.9
559.6	500.78	452.07	411.27	347.28	299.3
722.4	647.18	584.90	532.76	451.23	388.8
911.8	817.50	739.59	674.09	570.90	493.3
1128.9	1013.1	917.41	836.69	709.56	613.9
1374.7	1234.4	1118.6	1021.1	866.91	750.8
1652.1	1484.2	1345.9	1229.7	1045	906
1962.8	1764.3	1600.9	1463.9	1245.8	1080.7
2682.1	2413.3	2193	2007	1711.4	1487.3
3543	3191.8	2903.6	2659	2373.7	1977
4557.8	4111.9	3742.7	3429	2934.8	2557.2
5731.5	5176.3	4713.9	4322	3702.3	3332.5
7075.2	6394.9	5825.9	5339	4588.3	4010
8595.1	7774.3	7087	6510	5591.6	4893
10296	9318.3	8501.8	7814	6717	5884.2
12196	11044	10083	9272	7978.3	6995.3
14298	12954	11832	10889	9377.9	8226.3
16604	15049	13751	12663	10917	9580.7
19118	17338	15847	14597	12594	11061
21858	19834	18134	16709	14426	12678
24823	22534	20612	18996	16412	14424
28020	25444	23285	21464	18555	16393
31482	28593	26179	24139	20876	18595
35156	31987	29254	26981	23352	20954
39104	35529	32558	30041	26012	23598
43307	39358	36077	33301	28850	26451
47751	43412	39802	36752	31860	28117
52491	47739	43773	40432	35073	30965
57496	52308	47969	44322	38454	33975
62748	57103	52382	48413	42040	37147
74191	67557	62008	57343	49833	44073
86769	79050	72594	67140	58387	51669
100617	91711	84247	77932	67839	60067
115769	105570	96991	89759	78201	69301
132133	120570	110905	102559	89423	79259

Flow of Water in Circular Pipes, Conduits, etc., Flowing under Pressure.

ed on D'Arcy's formulæ for the flow of water through cast-iron pipes
comparison of results obtained by Kutter's formula, with $n = .013$
used from Flynn on Water Power.)

es of a , and also the values of the factors $c \sqrt{r}$ and $ac \sqrt{r}$ for use in
mulæ $Q = av$; $v = c \sqrt{r} \times \sqrt{s}$, and $Q = ac \sqrt{r} \times \sqrt{s}$.

Q = discharge in cubic feet per second, a = area in square feet, v = velocity in feet per second, r = mean hydraulic depth, $\frac{1}{4}$ diam. for pipes round full, s = sine of slope.

(For values of \sqrt{s} see page 558.)

Size of Pipe.		Clean Cast-iron Pipes.		Value of $ac\sqrt{r}$ by Kutter's Formula, when $n = .013$.	Old Cast-iron Pipes Lined with Deposits	
d = diam. in ft. in.	a = area in square feet.	For Velocity, $c\sqrt{r}$.	For Discharge, $ac\sqrt{r}$.		For Velocity, $c\sqrt{r}$.	For Discharge, $ac\sqrt{r}$.
	$\frac{3}{8}$.00077	5.251	.00403	3.532	.002
	$\frac{1}{2}$.00136	6.702	.00914	4.507	.003
	$\frac{3}{4}$.00307	9.309	.02855	6.261	.005
	1	.00545	11.61	.06334	7.811	.008
	$1\frac{1}{4}$.00852	13.68	.11659	9.255	.012
	$1\frac{1}{2}$.01227	15.58	.19115	10.48	.016
	$1\frac{3}{4}$.01670	17.32	.28936	11.65	.021
	2	.02182	18.96	.41357	12.75	.026
	$2\frac{1}{2}$.0341	21.94	.74786	14.76	.033
	3	.0491	24.63	1.2089	16.56	.041
	4	.0873	29.37	2.5630	19.75	.052
	5	.136	33.54	4.5610	22.56	.065
	6	.196	37.38	7.3068	25.07	.080
	7	.267	40.65	10.852	27.34	.096
	8	.349	43.75	15.270	29.43	.011
	9	.442	46.73	20.652	31.42	.013
	10	.545	49.45	26.952	33.26	.015
	11	.660	52.16	34.428	35.09	.017
1		.785	54.65	42.918	36.75	.019
1	2	1.000	59.34	63.435	39.91	.022
1	4	1.396	63.67	88.886	42.43	.025
1	6	1.767	67.75	119.72	45.37	.028
1	8	2.182	71.71	156.46	48.34	.031
1	10	2.640	75.32	198.83	50.658	.034
2	2	3.142	78.80	247.57	52.961	.037
2	2	3.687	82.15	302.90	55.258	.040
2	4	4.276	85.39	365.14	57.436	.043
2	6	4.909	88.39	433.92	59.455	.046
2	8	5.585	91.51	511.10	61.55	.049
2	10	6.305	94.40	595.17	63.49	.051
3	3	7.068	97.17	686.76	65.35	.053
3	2	7.875	99.93	786.94	67.21	.055
3	4	8.726	102.6	895.7	69	.057
3	6	9.621	105.1	1011.2	70.70	.059
3	8	10.559	107.6	1136.5	72.40	.061
3	10	11.541	110.2	1271.4	74.10	.063
4		12.566	112.6	1414.7	75.73	.065
4	3	14.186	116.1	1647.6	78.12	.068
4	6	15.904	119.6	1901.9	80.43	.071
4	9	17.721	122.8	2176.1	82.20	.073
5	3	19.636	126.1	2476.4	84.83	.075
5	3	21.648	129.3	2799.7	86.99	.077
5	6	23.758	132.4	3146.3	89.07	.079
5	9	25.967	135.4	3516	91.08	.081
6	6	24.274	138.4	3912.8	93.08	.083
6	6	34.183	144.1	4782.1	96.93	.086
7		38.485	149.6	5757.5	100.61	.089
7	6	44.179	154.9	6841.6	104.11	.092
8		50.266	160	8043	107.61	.095
8	6	56.745	165	9364.7	10889	.098
9		63.622	169.8	10804	12663	.101
9	6	71.4	174.5	12370	14537	.104
10		79.1	179.1	14066	16509	.107

Area in square feet.	Clean Cast-iron Pipes.		Value of $ac\sqrt{r}$ by Kutter's Formula, when $n = .013$	Old Cast-iron Pipes Lined with Deposit.	
	For Velocity, $c\sqrt{r}$.	For Discharge, $ac\sqrt{r}$.		For Velocity, $c\sqrt{r}$.	For Discharge, $ac\sqrt{r}$.
590	183.6	15893	18966	123.4	10690
633	187.9	17855	21464	126.3	12010
869	192.2	19966	24139	129.3	13429
908	196.3	22204	26981	132	14935
719	200.4	24598	30011	134.8	16545
733	204.4	27184	33301	137.5	18252
139	208.3	29818	36752	140.1	20056
938	212.2	32664	40432	142.7	21971
130	216.0	35660	44332	145.2	23986
715	219.6	38807	48413	147.7	26103
692	223.3	42125	52753	150.1	28385
662	226.9	45621	57343	152.6	30866
825	230.4	49273	62132	155	33144
981	233.9	53082	67140	157.3	35704
529	237.3	57074	72409	159.6	38389
470	240.7	61249	77932	161.9	41199
529	247.4	70154	89759	166.4	47186
159	253.8	79736	102559	170.7	53633

Water in Circular Pipes from $\frac{3}{8}$ inch to 12 inches Diameter.

D'Arcy's formula for clean cast-iron pipes. $Q = ac\sqrt{r}\sqrt{s}$.

Dia. in.	Slope, or Head Divided by Length of Pipe.							
	1 in 10.	1 in 20.	1 in 40.	1 in 60.	1 in 80.	1 in 100.	1 in 150.	1 in 200.
		Quantity in		cubic	feet per	sec. ond.		
$\frac{3}{8}$.00127	.00090	.00064	.00052	.00045	.00040	.00033	.00028
$\frac{1}{2}$.00289	.00204	.00145	.00118	.00102	.00091	.00075	.00065
$\frac{3}{4}$.00903	.00638	.00451	.00369	.00319	.00286	.00238	.00202
1	.02003	.01416	.01001	.00818	.00708	.00633	.00517	.00448
$1\frac{1}{4}$.03687	.02607	.01843	.01505	.01303	.01166	.00952	.00824
$1\frac{1}{2}$.06044	.04274	.03022	.02468	.02137	.01912	.01561	.01352
$1\frac{3}{4}$.09140	.06470	.04575	.03736	.03235	.02894	.02363	.02046
2	.13077	.09247	.06539	.05339	.04624	.04136	.03377	.02927
$2\frac{1}{2}$.22647	.16732	.11824	.09655	.08361	.07479	.06106	.05288
3	.33225	.27031	.19113	.15607	.13515	.12089	.09871	.08548
4	.51042	.37309	.26321	.20668	.18654	.16630	.12927	.11333
5	1.4422	1.0198	.72109	.58882	.50992	.45610	.37241	.32251
6	2.3104	1.6338	1.1532	.94331	.81690	.73068	.59660	.51666
7	3.4314	2.4265	1.7157	1.4110	1.2132	1.0852	.88607	.76734
8	4.8284	3.4143	2.4141	1.9713	1.7072	1.5270	1.2408	1.0797
9	6.5302	4.6178	3.2651	2.6662	2.3089	2.0632	1.6862	1.4603
10	8.5222	6.0265	4.2611	3.4795	3.0132	2.6952	2.2006	1.9058
11	10.886	7.6981	5.4431	4.4447	3.8491	3.4428	2.8110	2.4344
12	13.571	9.5905	6.7853	5.5407	4.7982	4.3918	3.5043	3.0347
$\frac{1}{100}$.3162	.2236	.1581	.1201	.1118	.1	.08165	.07071

Q' = quantity in gallons per minute and d = diameter in inches, then

$$Q' = \frac{d^3 \times .7854 \times 100 \times 7.4805}{144} = 4.08d^3,$$

or any other velocity, V' , in feet per minute, $Q' = 4.08d^3 \frac{V'}{100} = .0408d^3 V'$.

When diameter of pipe in inches and velocity in feet per second, to find discharge in cubic feet and in gallons per minute.

$$Q' = \frac{d^3 \times .7854 \times v \times 60}{144} = 0.32735d^3 v \text{ cubic feet per minute.}$$

$$= .32735 \times 7.4805 \text{ or } 2.448d^3 v \text{ U. S. gallons per minute.}$$

To find the capacity of a pipe or cylinder in gallons, multiply the square of the diameter in inches by the length in inches and by .0034. Or multiply square of the diameter in inches by the length in feet and by .0408.

$$Q = \frac{.7854d^2 l}{231} = .0034d^2 l \text{ (exact) } .0034 \times 12 = .0408.$$

LOSS OF HEAD.

The loss of head due to friction when water, steam, air, or gas of any kind flows through a straight tube is represented by the formula

$$h = f \frac{4l}{d} \frac{v^2}{2g}; \quad \text{whence } v = \sqrt{\frac{64.4}{4f} \frac{hd}{l}},$$

which l is the length and d is the diameter of the tube, both in feet; v is velocity in feet per second, and f is a coefficient to be determined by experiment. According to Weisbach, $f = .0064$, in which case

$$\sqrt{\frac{64.4}{4f}} = 50, \quad \text{and } v = 50 \sqrt{\frac{hd}{l}},$$

which is one of the older formulæ for flow of water (Downing's). Prof. Unwin says that the value of f is possibly too small for tubes of small bore, he would put $f = .006$ to $.01$ for 4-inch tubes, and $f = .0084$ to $.012$ for 2-inch tubes. Another formula by Weisbach is

$$h = \left(.0144 + \frac{.01716}{\sqrt{v}} \right) \frac{l}{d} \frac{v^2}{2g}.$$

Rankine gives

$$f = .005 \left(1 + \frac{1}{13d} \right).$$

From the general equation for velocity of flow of water $v = c \sqrt{r} \sqrt{h}$, in round pipes $c \sqrt{\frac{d}{4}} \sqrt{\frac{h}{l}}$, we have $v^2 = c^2 \frac{d}{4} \frac{h}{l}$ and $h = \frac{4lv^2}{c^2 d}$, in which

c is the coefficient of D'Arcy's, Bazin's, Kutter's, or other formula, as found by experiment. Since this coefficient varies with the condition of the inner surface of the tube, as well as with the velocity, it is to be expected that the values of the loss of head given by different writers will vary as much as those of the quantity of flow. Two tables for loss of head per 100 ft. in length in pipes of different diameters with different velocities are given below. The first is given by Clark, based on Ellis' and Howland's experiments; the second is from the Pelton Water-wheel Co.'s catalogue, authority not stated. The loss of head as given in these two tables for any given diameter and velocity differs considerably. Either table should be used with caution and the result compared with the quantity of flow for the given diameter and head given in the tables of flow based on Kutter's and D'Arcy's formulæ.

**Relative Loss of Head by Friction for each 100
Length of Clean Cast-iron Pipe.**

(Based on Ellis and Howland's experiments.)

Velocity in Feet per Second.	Diameter of Pipes in Inches.								
	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	12
	Loss of Head in Feet, per 100 Feet Long.								
Feet	Feet of Head	Feet of Head	Feet of Head	Feet of Head	Feet of Head	Feet of Head	Feet of Head	Feet of Head	Feet of Head
2	.97	.55	.41	.32	.27	.23	.19	.17	.15
2.5	1.49	.93	.64	.50	.43	.36	.30	.27	.24
3	1.9	1.2	.82	.72	.61	.51	.44	.39	.35
3.5	2.6	1.6	1.2	1.0	.7	.71	.61	.52	.46
4	3.3	2.2	1.7	1.3	.9	.92	.79	.69	.61
4.5	1.6	1.2	1.2	1.01	.87	.77
5	1.2	1.1	.9
5.5
6
	15	18	21	24	27	30	33	36	42
2	.11	.065	.075	.065	.065	.062	.049	.047	.03
2.5	.17	.147	.117	.109	.088	.085	.076	.067	.06
3	.25	.21	.17	.15	.13	.12	.108	.10	.08
3.5	.34	.29	.23	.20	.18	.16	.15	.14	.11
4	.44	.36	.31	.27	.23	.22	.20	.17	.14
4.5	.56	.46	.39	.34	.30	.28	.25	.22	.18
5	.70	.58	.48	.41	.37	.34	.30	.27	.22
5.5	.84	.70	.59	.50	.44	.39	.36	.32	.27
659	.53	.49	.43	.4	.33

Loss of Head in Pipe by Friction.—Loss of head by friction in each 100 feet in length of different diameters of pipe when discharging following quantities of water per minute (Pelton Water-wheel Co.):

Velocity in Feet per Second.	Inside Diameter of Pipe in Inches.									
	1		2		3		4		5	
	Loss of Head in Feet. <i>h</i>	Cubic Feet per Minute. <i>Q</i>	Loss of Head in Feet. <i>h</i>	Cubic Feet per Minute. <i>Q</i>	Loss of Head in Feet. <i>h</i>	Cubic Feet per Minute. <i>Q</i>	Loss of Head in Feet. <i>h</i>	Cubic Feet per Minute. <i>Q</i>	Loss of Head in Feet. <i>h</i>	Cubic Feet per Minute. <i>Q</i>
2.0	2.37	.65	1.185	2.62	.791	5.89	.593	10.4	.474	16.3
3.0	4.89	.99	2.44	3.92	1.62	8.83	1.22	15.7	.978	24.5
4.0	8.20	1.32	4.10	5.23	2.73	11.80	2.05	20.9	1.64	32.7
5.0	12.33	1.65	6.17	6.54	4.11	14.70	3.08	26.2	2.46	40.9
6.0	17.23	1.98	8.61	7.85	5.74	17.70	4.31	31.4	3.45	49.1
7.0	22.89	2.31	11.45	9.16	7.62	20.6	5.72	36.6	4.57	57.2

Inside Diameter of Pipe in Inches.

7		8		9		10		11		12	
<i>h</i>	<i>Q</i>	<i>h</i>	<i>Q</i>	<i>h</i>	<i>Q</i>	<i>h</i>	<i>Q</i>	<i>h</i>	<i>Q</i>	<i>h</i>	<i>Q</i>
.338	32.0	.296	41.9	.264	53	.237	65.4	.216	79.2	.198	94.2
.698	45.1	.611	62.8	.544	79.5	.488	98.2	.444	119	.407	141
1.175	64.1	1.027	83.7	.913	106	.822	131	.747	158	.685	188
1.76	80.2	1.54	105	1.37	132	1.23	163	1.122	198	1.028	235
2.46	96.2	2.15	125	1.92	159	1.71	196	1.56	237	1.43	283
3.26	112.0	2.85	146	2.52	185	2.28	229	2.07	277	1.91	330

Inside Diameter of Pipe in Inches.

13		14		15		16		18		20	
<i>h</i>	<i>Q</i>	<i>h</i>	<i>Q</i>	<i>h</i>	<i>Q</i>	<i>h</i>	<i>Q</i>	<i>h</i>	<i>Q</i>	<i>h</i>	<i>Q</i>
.183	110	.169	128	.158	147	.147	167	.132	212	.119	262
.375	166	.349	193	.325	221	.306	251	.271	318	.245	393
.632	221	.587	256	.548	294	.513	335	.450	424	.410	523
.949	276	.881	321	.822	368	.770	419	.685	530	.617	654
1.325	332	1.229	385	1.148	442	1.076	502	.957	636	.861	785
1.75	387	1.63	449	1.52	515	1.43	586	1.27	742	1.143	916

Inside Diameter of Pipe in Inches.

22		24		26		28		30		36	
<i>h</i>	<i>Q</i>	<i>h</i>	<i>Q</i>	<i>h</i>	<i>Q</i>	<i>h</i>	<i>Q</i>	<i>h</i>	<i>Q</i>	<i>h</i>	<i>Q</i>
.108	316	.098	377	.091	442	.084	513	.079	589	.066	848
.222	475	.204	565	.188	663	.174	770	.163	883	.135	1273
.373	633	.342	754	.315	885	.293	1026	.273	1178	.228	1607
.561	792	.513	942	.474	1106	.440	1283	.411	1472	.342	2121
.782	950	.717	1131	.662	1327	.615	1539	.574	1767	.479	2545
1.040	1109	.953	1319	.879	1548	.817	1796	.762	2061	.636	2868

EXAMPLE.—Given 200 ft. head and 600 ft. of 11-inch pipe, carrying 119 cubic feet of water per minute. To find effective head: In right-hand column, under 11-inch pipe, find 119 cubic ft.; opposite this will be found the loss by friction in 100 ft. of length for this amount of water, which is .444. Multiply this by the number of hundred feet of pipe, which is 6, and we have 2.66 ft., which is the loss of head. Therefore the effective head is 200 - 2.66 = 197.34.

EXPLANATION.—The loss of head by friction in pipe depends not only upon diameter and length, but upon the quantity of water passed through it. The head or pressure is what would be indicated by a pressure-gauge attached to the pipe near the wheel. Readings of gauge should be taken while the water is flowing from the nozzle.

To reduce heads in feet to pressure in pounds multiply by .433. To reduce pounds pressure to feet multiply by 2.309.

Cox's Formula.—Weisbach's formula for loss of head caused by the action of water in pipes is as follows:

$$\text{Friction-head} = \left(0.0144 + \frac{0.01716}{\sqrt{V}} \right) \frac{L \cdot V^3}{5.367d}$$

where *L* = length of pipe in feet;

V = velocity of the water in feet per second;

d = diameter of pipe in inches.

William Cox (*Amer. Mach.*, Dec. 28, 1893) gives a simpler formula which gives almost identical results:

$$H = \text{friction-head in feet} = \frac{L \cdot 4V^2 + 5V - 2}{1200}$$

$$\frac{Hd}{L} = \frac{4V^2 + 5V - 2}{1200}$$

He gives a table by means of which the value of $\frac{4V^2 + 5V - 2}{1200}$ is obtained when V is known, and *vice versa*.

VALUES OF $\frac{4V^2 + 5V - 2}{1200}$.

V	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9
1	.00583	.00695	.00813	.00938	.01070	.01208	.01353	.01505	.01663	.01826
2	.02000	.02178	.02363	.02555	.02753	.02958	.03170	.03388	.03613	.03844
3	.04082	.04328	.04580	.04838	.05103	.05375	.05653	.05938	.06229	.06526
4	.06833	.07145	.07463	.07788	.08120	.08458	.08803	.09155	.09513	.09878
5	.10250	.10628	.11013	.11405	.11803	.12208	.12620	.13038	.13463	.13894
6	.14332	.14778	.15230	.15688	.16153	.16625	.17103	.17588	.18079	.18576
7	.19083	.19595	.20113	.20638	.21170	.21708	.22253	.22805	.23363	.23926
8	.24500	.25078	.25663	.26255	.26853	.27458	.28070	.28688	.29313	.29944
9	.30583	.31228	.31880	.32538	.33203	.33875	.34553	.35238	.35929	.36626
10	.37333	.38045	.38763	.39488	.40220	.40958	.41703	.42455	.43213	.43978
11	.44750	.45528	.46313	.47105	.47903	.48708	.49520	.50338	.51163	.51994
12	.52833	.53678	.54530	.55388	.56253	.57125	.58003	.58888	.59779	.60676
13	.61583	.62495	.63413	.64338	.65270	.66208	.67153	.68105	.69063	.69926
14	.71000	.71978	.72963	.73955	.74953	.75958	.76970	.77988	.79013	.80044
15	.81083	.82128	.83180	.84238	.85303	.86375	.87453	.88538	.89629	.90726
16	.91833	.92945	.94063	.95188	.96320	.97458	.98603	.99755	1.00913	1.02078
17	1.03250	1.04428	1.05613	1.06805	1.08003	1.09208	1.10420	1.11638	1.12863	1.14094
18	1.15333	1.16578	1.17830	1.19088	1.20353	1.21625	1.22903	1.24188	1.25479	1.26776
19	1.28083	1.29395	1.30713	1.32038	1.33370	1.34708	1.36053	1.37405	1.38763	1.40126
20	1.41500	1.42878	1.44263	1.45655	1.47053	1.48458	1.49870	1.51288	1.52713	1.54144
21	1.55583	1.57028	1.58480	1.59938	1.61403	1.62875	1.64353	1.65838	1.67329	1.68826

The use of the formula and table is illustrated as follows:

Given a pipe 5 inches diameter and 1000 feet long, with 49 feet head, H will the discharge be?

If the velocity V is known in feet per second, the discharge is 0.32725 cubic foot per minute.

By equation 2 we have

$$\frac{4V^2 + 5V - 2}{1200} = \frac{Hd}{L} = \frac{49 \times 5}{1000} = 0.245;$$

whence, by table, $V =$ real velocity $= 8$ feet per second.

The discharge in cubic feet per minute, if V is velocity in feet per second and d diameter in inches, is $0.32725d^2V$, whence, discharge

$$= 0.32725 \times 25 \times 8 = 65.45 \text{ cubic feet per minute.}$$

The velocity due the head, if there were no friction, is $8.025 \sqrt{H} = 5$ feet per second, and the discharge at that velocity would be

$$0.32725 \times 25 \times 5 = 40.906 \text{ cubic feet per minute.}$$

Suppose it is required to deliver this amount, 460 cubic feet, at a rate of 2 feet per second, what diameter of pipe will be required and what will be the loss of head by friction?

$$d = \text{diameter} = \sqrt{\frac{Q}{V \times 0.32725}} = \sqrt{\frac{460}{2 \times 0.32725}} = \sqrt{708} = 26.5 \text{ in.}$$

Having now the diameter, the velocity, and the discharge, the friction loss is calculated by equation 1 and use of the table; thus,

$$H = \frac{L}{d} \frac{4V^2 + 5V - 2}{1200} = \frac{1000}{26.5} \times 0.02 = \frac{20}{26.5} = 0.75 \text{ foot,}$$

thus leaving $49 - 0.75 =$ say 48 feet effective head applicable to power-producing purposes.

Problems of the loss of head may be solved rapidly by means of the *Pipe Computer*, a mechanical device on the principle of the slide-rule, by Keuffel & Esser, New York.

**Heads at Given Rates of Discharge in Clean
on Pipes for Each 1000 Feet of Length.**
(taken from Ellis and Howland's Hydraulic Tables.)

head, feet.	6-inch Pipe.		8-inch Pipe.		10-inch Pipe.		12-inch Pipe.		14-inch Pipe.	
	Velocity in ft. per sec.	Friction-head, feet.	Velocity in ft. per sec.	Friction-head, feet.	Velocity in ft. per sec.	Friction-head, feet.	Velocity in ft. per sec.	Friction-head, feet.	Velocity in ft. per sec.	Friction-head, feet.
.50	.38	.11	.16	.04	.10	.02	.07	.01
.75	.57	.32	.32	.10	.20	.04	.14	.02	.10	.01
1.00	1.13	1.08	.64	.39	.41	.11	.28	.05	.21	.03
1.50	1.70	2.28	.96	.60	.61	.22	.43	.10	.31	.05
2.00	2.27	3.92	1.28	1.01	.82	.36	.57	.16	.42	.08
2.50	2.84	6.00	1.60	1.52	1.02	.54	.71	.24	.52	.12
3.00	3.40	8.52	1.91	2.13	1.23	.75	.85	.32	.63	.16
3.50	3.97	11.48	2.23	2.85	1.43	.99	.99	.43	.73	.21
4.00	4.54	14.89	2.55	3.68	1.63	1.27	1.13	.54	.83	.27
4.50	5.11	18.76	2.87	4.61	1.82	1.57	1.27	.65	.93	.34
5.00	5.67	23.01	3.19	5.64	2.04	1.93	1.42	.81	1.04	.40
5.50	6.24	27.68	3.51	6.76	2.25	2.23	1.57	1.14	1.25	.55
6.00	6.81	32.89	3.83	8.03	2.45	2.72	1.70	1.14	1.46	.73
6.50	7.39	44.54	4.47	10.88	2.86	3.66	1.98	1.52	1.67	.94
7.00	9.08	57.95	5.09	14.05	3.27	4.73	2.27	1.96	1.67	.94
7.50	10.21	73.12	5.74	17.68	3.68	5.93	2.55	2.45	1.88	1.17
8.00	11.35	90.05	6.38	21.74	4.08	7.28	2.84	3.00	2.08	1.43
8.50	13.61	129.20	7.66	31.70	4.90	10.38	3.40	4.26	2.50	2.02
9.00	15.88	175.88	8.94	42.13	5.72	14.02	3.97	5.74	2.91	2.72
9.50	18.15	228.62	10.21	54.84	6.53	18.22	4.54	7.44	3.33	3.51
10.00	20.42	288.90	11.47	69.32	7.35	22.96	5.11	9.36	3.75	4.41
10.50	22.69	356.32	12.77	85.27	8.17	28.25	5.67	11.50	4.17	5.41
11.00	15.96	132.70	10.21	43.87	7.09	17.82	5.21	8.35
11.50	12.25	62.32	8.51	25.51	6.25	11.93
12.00	8.34	21.00

Friction-head, feet.	18-inch Pipe.		20-inch Pipe.		24-inch Pipe.		30-inch Pipe.		36-inch Pipe.	
	Velocity in ft. per sec.	Friction-head, feet.	Velocity in ft. per sec.	Friction-head, feet.	Velocity in ft. per sec.	Friction-head, feet.	Velocity in ft. per sec.	Friction-head, feet.	Velocity in ft. per sec.	Friction-head, feet.
.32	.63	.13	.51	.08	.35	.04	.23	.01	.16	.01
.50	1.26	.44	1.02	.27	.71	.12	.45	.04	.32	.02
1.00	1.89	.93	1.53	.56	1.06	.24	.68	.09	.47	.04
1.50	2.52	1.60	2.04	.96	1.42	.41	.91	.15	.63	.06
2.00	3.15	2.45	2.55	1.47	1.77	.62	1.13	.22	.79	.09
2.50	3.78	3.48	3.06	2.09	2.13	.87	1.36	.30	.95	.13
3.00	4.41	4.70	3.57	2.81	2.48	1.16	1.59	.40	1.10	.17
3.50	5.04	6.09	4.08	3.64	2.84	1.50	1.82	.52	1.26	.22
4.00	5.67	7.67	4.59	4.58	3.19	1.88	2.04	.64	1.42	.27
4.50	6.30	9.43	5.11	5.62	3.55	2.31	2.27	.78	1.58	.33
5.00	7.57	13.49	6.18	8.03	4.23	3.28	2.72	1.11	1.89	.46
5.50	7.15	10.86	4.96	4.43	3.18	1.49	2.21	.62
6.00	5.67	5.75	3.63	1.93	2.52	.80
6.50	6.38	7.25	4.08	2.43	2.84	1.00
7.00	4.54	2.98	3.15	1.23
7.50	5.44	4.25	3.78	1.53
8.00	6.36	5.75	4.41	1.83

Effect of Bends and Curves in Pipes.—Weisbach's

bends: Loss of head in feet = $.131 + 1.847 \left(\frac{r}{R} \right)^{\frac{2}{3}} \times \frac{v^2}{64.4} \times \frac{\alpha}{180}$, in

= internal radius of pipe in feet, R = radius of curvature of axis of pipe in feet per second, and α = the central angle, or angle subtended by the bend.

Hamilton Smith, Jr., in his work on Hydraulics, says: The experimental data at hand are entirely insufficient to permit a satisfactory analysis of this quite complicated subject; in fact, about the only experiments are those made by Bossut and Dubaut with small pipes.

Curves.—If the pipe has easy curves, say with radius not less than ten diameters of the pipe, the flow will not be materially diminished, and the tops of all curves are kept below the hydraulic grade-line and can be made for escape of air from the tops of all curves. (Trautwine.)

Hydraulic Grade-line.—In a straight tube of uniform diameter throughout, running full and discharging freely into the air, the hydraulic grade-line is a straight line drawn from the discharge end to a point immediately over the entry end of the pipe and at a depth below the surface equal to the entry and velocity heads. (Trautwine.)

In a pipe leading from a reservoir, no part of its length should be below the hydraulic grade-line.

Flow of Water in House-service Pipes.

Mr. E. Kuichling, C.E., furnished the following table to the Hydraulic Meter Co.:

Condition of Discharge.	Pressure in Main, pounds per square inch.	Discharge, or Quantity capable of being delivered, in Cubic Feet per Minute, from the Pipe, under the conditions specified in the first column.							
		Nominal Diameters of Iron or Lead Service-Pipes, Inches.							
		$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{5}{8}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	1	$1\frac{1}{2}$	2	3	
Through 35 feet of service-pipe, no back pressure.	30	1.10	1.92	3.01	6.13	16.58	33.34	88.16	173
	40	1.27	2.22	3.48	7.08	19.14	38.50	101.80	200
	50	1.42	2.48	3.89	7.92	21.40	43.04	113.83	225
	60	1.56	2.71	4.26	8.67	23.44	47.15	124.68	245
	75	1.74	3.03	4.77	9.70	26.21	52.71	139.39	275
	100	2.01	3.50	5.50	11.20	30.27	60.87	160.96	315
130	2.29	3.99	6.28	12.77	34.51	69.40	183.52	365	
Through 100 feet of service-pipe, no back pressure.	30	0.66	1.16	1.84	3.78	10.40	21.80	58.19	115
	40	0.77	1.34	2.12	4.36	12.01	24.59	67.19	135
	50	0.86	1.50	2.37	4.88	13.43	27.50	75.13	155
	60	0.94	1.65	2.60	5.34	14.71	30.12	82.30	165
	75	1.05	1.84	2.91	5.97	16.45	33.68	92.01	185
	100	1.22	2.13	3.36	6.90	18.99	38.89	106.24	215
130	1.39	2.42	3.83	7.86	21.66	44.34	121.14	245	
Through 100 feet of service-pipe and 15 feet vertical rise.	30	0.55	0.96	1.52	3.11	8.57	17.55	47.90	95
	40	0.66	1.15	1.81	3.72	10.24	20.95	57.20	115
	50	0.75	1.31	2.06	4.24	11.67	23.87	65.18	135
	60	0.83	1.45	2.29	4.70	12.94	26.48	72.25	145
	75	0.94	1.64	2.59	5.32	14.64	29.96	81.79	165
	100	1.10	1.92	3.02	6.21	17.10	35.00	95.55	195
130	1.26	2.20	3.48	7.14	19.66	40.23	109.82	225	
Through 100 feet of service-pipe, and 30 feet vertical rise.	30	0.44	0.77	1.22	2.50	6.80	14.11	38.63	75
	40	0.55	0.97	1.53	3.15	8.68	17.79	48.68	95
	50	0.65	1.14	1.79	3.69	10.16	20.82	56.98	115
	60	0.73	1.28	2.02	4.15	11.45	23.47	64.22	135
	75	0.84	1.47	2.32	4.77	13.15	26.95	73.76	145
	100	1.00	1.74	2.75	5.65	15.58	31.93	87.38	175
130	1.15	2.02	3.19	6.55	18.07	37.02	101.33	205	

Friction Losses in Hose.—In the above table the velocity discharged per jet were for stated pressures at the play-pipe.

In providing for this pressure due allowance is to be made for losses in each hose, according to the streams of greatest discharge to be used.

The loss of pressure or its equivalent loss of head (h) in the hose found by the formula $h = v^2(4m) \frac{l}{2gd}$.

In this formula, as ordinarily used, for friction per 100 ft. of $2\frac{1}{2}$ in. there are the following constants: $2\frac{1}{2}$ in. diameter of hose $d = 2\frac{1}{2}$ length of hose $l = 100$ ft., and $2g = 64.4$. The variables are: $v = 90$ feet per second; $h =$ loss of head in feet per 100 ft. of hose; $m =$ coefficient found by experiment; the velocity v is found from the pressures of the jets through the given diameter of hose.

Head and Pressure Losses by Friction in 100 Lengths of Rubber-lined Smooth $2\frac{1}{2}$ -in. Hose.

Discharge per minute, gallons.	Velocity per second, ft.	Coefficient, m .	Head Lost, ft.	Pressure Lost, lbs. per sq. in.	Galls. 24 in.
200	13.072	.00150	22.80	9.93	289
250	16.388	.00446	35.55	15.43	380
300	18.858	.00442	46.80	20.31	490
347	21.677	.00439	61.53	26.70	600
350	22.873	.00439	68.48	29.73	664
400	26.144	.00436	88.83	38.53	873
450	29.408	.00434	111.80	48.52	1100
500	32.675	.00432	137.50	59.67	1350
550	33.982	.00431	148.40	64.40	1450

These frictions are for given volumes of flow in the hose and the ties respectively due to those volumes, and are independent of nozzle. The changes in nozzle do not affect the friction in the hose; no change in velocity of flow, but a larger nozzle with equal pressure the nozzle augments the discharge and velocity of flow, and thus increases the friction loss in the hose.

Loss of Pressure (p) and Head (h) in Rubber Smooth $2\frac{1}{2}$ -in. Hose may be found approximately by the

$p = \frac{lq^2}{4150d^5}$ and $h = \frac{lq^2}{1801d^5}$, in which $p =$ pressure lost by the pounds per square inch; $l =$ length of hose in feet; $q =$ gallons discharged per minute; $d =$ diam. of the hose in inches, $2\frac{1}{2}$ in.; $h =$ head in feet. The coefficient of d^5 would be decreased for rougher.

The loss of pressure and head for a $1\frac{1}{4}$ -in. stream with power to height of 80 ft. is, in each 100 ft. of $2\frac{1}{2}$ -in. hose, approximately 20 ft. ft. net, or, say, including friction in the hydrant, $\frac{1}{2}$ ft. loss of head foot of hose.

If we change the nozzles to $1\frac{1}{4}$ or $1\frac{3}{8}$ in. diameter, then for the same height of stream we increase the friction losses on the hose to 1 foot $\frac{2}{3}$ ft. and 1 ft. head, respectively, for each foot-length of hose.

These computations show the great difficulty of maintaining stream through large nozzles unless the hose is very short, especially gravity or direct-pressure system.

This single $1\frac{1}{4}$ -in. stream requires approximately 56 lbs. pressure, lent to 120 ft. head, at the play-pipe, and 45 to 50 ft. head for each length of smooth $2\frac{1}{2}$ -in. hose, so that for 100, 200, and 300 ft. of must have available heads at the hydrant or fire-engine of 116, 136, ft. respectively. If we substitute $1\frac{1}{4}$ -in. nozzles for same height of we must have available heads at the hydrants or engine of 183, 200 ft., respectively, or we must increase the diameter of a portion of the long hose and save friction-loss of head.

Rated Capacities of Steam Fire-engines, which is one third greater than their ordinary rate of work at flood, are stated as follows:

3d size,	550 gals. per min., or	792,000 gals. per 24 hours
2d "	700 "	1,008,000 "
1st "	" "	1,296,000 "
1st "	" "	1,584,000 "

as required at Nozzle and at Pump, with Quantity Pressure of Water Necessary to throw Water as Distances through Different-sized Nozzles— $2\frac{1}{2}$ -inch Rubber Hose and Smooth Nozzles.

Experiments of Ellis & Leshure, Fanning's "Water Supply.")

Size of Nozzles.	1 Inch.				$1\frac{1}{8}$ Inch.			
nozzle, lbs. per sq. in.	40	60	80	100	40	60	80	100
at pump or hydrant with 1-inch rubber hose	48	73	97	121	54	81	108	135
minute	155	189	219	245	196	240	277	310
distance thrown, feet.	109	142	168	186	113	148	175	193
distance thrown, feet.	79	108	131	148	81	112	137	157

Size of Nozzles.	$1\frac{1}{4}$ Inch.				$1\frac{3}{8}$ Inch.			
nozzle, lbs. per sq. in.	40	60	80	100	40	60	80	100
at pump or hydrant with $1\frac{1}{2}$ -inch rubber hose	61	92	123	154	71	107	144	180
minute	242	297	343	383	293	358	413	462
distance thrown, feet.	118	156	186	207	124	166	200	224
distance thrown, feet.	82	115	142	164	85	118	146	169

water length of $2\frac{1}{2}$ -inch hose the increased friction can be obtained the differences between the above given "pressure at nozzle" and "pressure at pump or hydrant with 100 feet of hose." For $2\frac{1}{2}$ -inch hose (using 1-inch nozzle, with 40-pound pressure at said nozzle) it requires 16-pounds pressure to overcome the friction in 100 feet of hose, and 200 feet of same size hose.

Loss of Flow due to Increase of Length of Hose.

(From Fanning's Experiments, Trans. A. S. C. E. 1889.)—If the static pressure at pump or hydrant is 100 lbs., and the hydrant-pipes of such size that the pressure at the nozzle is 40 lbs., the hose $2\frac{1}{2}$ in. nominal diam., and the nozzle $1\frac{1}{8}$ in. diam., the effective fire-stream obtainable and the quantity in gallons per minute will be:

	Linen Hose.		Best Rubber-lined Hose.	
	Height, feet.	Gals. per min.	Height, feet.	Gals. per min.
50 ft. of $2\frac{1}{2}$ -in. hose	73	261	81	282
50 " " " "	42	184	61	229
50 " " " "	27	146	46	153

If the hose is of smoothest and best rubber-lined hose, if diameter be $2\frac{1}{2}$ in., effective height of stream will be 39 ft. (177 gals.); if diameter be 2 in., effective height of stream will be 46 ft. (192 gals.)

THE SIPHON.

A siphon is a bent tube of unequal branches, open at both ends, and conveying a liquid from a higher to a lower level, over an intermediate higher than either. Its parallel branches being in a vertical plane and filled into two bodies of liquid whose upper surfaces are at different levels, the fluid will stand at the same level both within and without each branch of the tube when a vent or small opening is made at the bend. If the vent is withdrawn from the siphon through this vent, the water will rise in the longer branch by the atmospheric pressure without, and when the two ends of the tube are again closed, the liquid will flow from the upper reservoir as long as the end of the shorter branch of the siphon is below the level of the liquid in the reservoir. If the vent is free from air the height of the bend above the level of the liquid in the reservoir may be as great as 33 feet.

If A = area of cross-section of the tube in square feet, H = the difference in level between the two reservoirs in feet, D the density of the liquid in pounds per cubic foot, then ADH measures the intensity of the force which causes the movement of the fluid, and $V = \sqrt{2gH} = 8.02 \sqrt{H}$ is the theoretical velocity, in feet per second, which is reduced by the loss of head due to friction, and in other cases of flow of liquids through pipes. In the case of the difference of level being greater than 33 feet, however, the head of the water in the shorter leg is limited to that due to a height of 33 feet, that due to the difference between the atmospheric pressure at the surface and the vacuum at the bend.

Leicester Allen (*Am. Mach.*, Nov. 2, 1893) says: The supply of liquid in a siphon must be greater than the flow which would take place from the charge end of the pipe, provided the pipe were filled with the liquid, the supply end stopped, and the discharge end opened when the discharge is left free, unregulated, and unsubmerged.

To illustrate this principle, let us suppose the extreme case of a siphon having a calibre of 1 foot, in which the difference of level, or between the point of supply and discharge, is 4 inches. Let us further suppose the siphon to be at the sea-level, and its highest point above the level of the supply to be 27 feet. Also suppose the discharge end of this siphon to be unregulated, unsubmerged. It would be inoperative because the water in the longer leg would not be held solid by the pressure of the atmosphere at the top, and it would therefore break up and run out faster than it could be placed at the inflow end under an effective head of only 4 inches.

Long Siphons.—Prof. Joseph Torrey, in the *Amer. Mach.*, describes a long siphon which was a partial failure.

The length of the pipe was 1792 feet. The pipe was 3 inches diameter, and rose at one point 9 feet above the initial level. The final level was 10 feet below the initial level. No automatic air valve was provided. The highest point in the siphon was about one third the total distance from the point nearest the pond. At this point a pump was placed, whose mission was to fill the pipe when necessary. This siphon would flow for about two days, and then cease, owing to accumulation of air in the pipe. When in operation it discharged 431½ gallons per minute. The theoretical discharge from such a sized pipe with the specified head is 55½ gallons per minute.

Siphon on the Water-supply of Mount Vernon.—(*Eng'g News*, May 4, 1893).—A 12-inch siphon, 925 feet long, with a maximum lift of 22.13 feet and a 45° change in alignment, was put in use in 1886 by the New York City Suburban Water Co., which supplies Mount Vernon, N. Y.

At its summit the siphon crosses a supply main, which is tapped to supply the siphon.

The air-chamber at the siphon is 12 inches by 16 feet long. A 1½-inch valve and cock at the top of the chamber provide an outlet for the collected air.

It was found that the siphon with air-chamber as described would operate until 125 cubic feet of air had gathered, and that this took place only half as soon with a 14-foot lift as with the full lift of 22.13 feet. The siphon will operate about 12 hours without being recharged, but more water must be gotten over by charging every six hours. It can be kept running 24 hours out of 24 with only one man in attendance. With the siphon as described above it is necessary to close the valves at each end of the siphon to recharge it.

It has been found by weir measurements that the discharge of the siphon before air accumulates at the summit is practically the same as through a straight pipe.

MEASUREMENT OF FLOWING WATER.

Piezometer.—If a vertical or oblique tube be inserted into a pipe containing water under pressure, the water will rise in the former, and the vertical height to which it rises will be the head producing the pressure at the point where the tube is attached. Such a tube is called a piezometer, and is a pressure measure. If the water in the piezometer falls below its proper level it shows that the pressure in the main pipe has been reduced by obstruction between the piezometer and the reservoir. If the water rises above its proper level, it indicates that the pressure there has been increased by an obstruction beyond the piezometer.

If we imagine a pipe full of water to be provided with a number of piezometers, then a line joining the tops of the columns of water in the piezometers is the hydraulic grade-line.

Tube Gauge.—The Pitot tube is used for measuring the velocities in motion. It has been used with great success in measuring of natural gas. (S. W. Robinson, Report Ohio Geol. Survey, 1890.) *Van Nostrand's Mag.*, vol. xxxv.) It is simply a tube so bent that its entering orifice is opposed at right angles to the direction of the current.

The pressure caused by the impact of the current is transmitted through the tube to a pressure-gauge of any kind, such as a column of mercury, or a Bourdon spring-gauge. From the pressure thus obtained and the known density and temperature of the flowing gas is obtained the head corresponding to the pressure, and from this the velocity. The modification of the Pitot tube described by Prof. Robinson, there are two tubes inserted into the pipe conveying the gas, one of which has the orifice at right angles to the current, to receive the static pressure; the other has the plane of its orifice parallel to the current, so as to receive the static pressure only. These two tubes are connected to the legs of a U tube partly filled with mercury, which registers the difference in pressure in the two tubes, from which the velocity may be calculated. Comparative tests of Pitot tubes with gasometers for measurement of the flow of natural gas, have shown an agreement within 3%.

Venturi Meter, invented by Clemens Herschel, and described in a patent issued by the Builders' Iron Foundry of Providence, R. I., is named after Venturi, who first called attention, in 1796, to the relation between the velocities and pressures of fluids when flowing through converging tubes.

It consists of two parts—the tube, through which the water flows, and the recorder, which registers the quantity of water that passes through the

meter. The tube takes the shape of two truncated cones joined in their smallest diameters by a short throat-piece. At the up-stream end and at the throat are two air-chambers, at which points the pressures are taken.

The operation of the tube is based on that property which causes the small diameter of a gently expanding frustum of a cone to receive, without material loss of head, as much water at the smallest diameter as is discharged at the large end, and on that further property which causes the pressure of the water flowing through the throat to be less, by virtue of its velocity, than the pressure at the up-stream end of the tube, each being at the same time a function of the velocity at that point and of the hydrostatic pressure which would obtain were the water motionless in the pipe.

The recorder is connected with the tube by pressure-pipes which lead to the chambers surrounding the up-stream end and the throat of the tube. It may be placed in any convenient position within 1000 feet of the meter and is operated by a weight and clockwork.

The difference of pressure or head at the entrance and at the throat of the tube is balanced in the recorder by the difference of level in two columns of mercury in cylindrical receivers, one within the other. The inner carries the float, the position of which is indicative of the quantity of water flowing through the tube. By its rise and fall the float varies the time of contact with an integrating drum and the counters by which the successive readings are registered.

There is no limit to the sizes of the meters nor the quantity of water that may be measured. Meters with 24-inch, 36-inch, 48-inch, and even 20-foot diameters may be readily made.

Measurement by Venturi Tubes. (Trans. A. S. C. E., Nov., 1887, p. 188.)—Mr. Herschel recommends the use of a Venturi tube, in the force-main of the pumping engine, for determining the quantity of water discharged. Such a tube applied to a 24-inch main has a total length of about 20 feet. At a distance of 4 feet from the end nearest the pump the inside diameter of the tube is contracted to a throat having a diameter of about 8 inches. A pressure-gauge is attached to each of two chambers, the one surrounding and communicating with the entrance of the tube, the other with the throat. According to experiments made upon tubes of this kind, one 4 in. in diameter at the throat and 12 in. at the entrance, the other about 36 in. in diameter at the throat and 9 feet in diameter at the entrance, the quantity of water which passes through the tube is very nearly proportional to the square root of the difference in head between the two gauges, and a velocity which is that due to the difference in head.

by the two gauges. Mr. Herschel states that the coefficient for widely-varying sizes of tubes and for a wide range of velocity the pipe, was found to be within two per cent, either way, of 985; in other words, the quantity of water flowing through the tube per second, expressed within two per cent by the formula $W = 0.98 \times A \times \sqrt{2gh}$, A is the area of the throat of the tube, h the head, in feet, coming to the difference in the pressure of the water entering the tube found at the throat, and $g = 32.16$.

Measurement of Discharge of Pumping-engine Means of Nozzles. (Trans. A. S. M. E., xiii, 557).—The means of water by computation from its discharge through orifices, or the nozzles of fire-hose, furnishes a means of determining the quantity delivered by a pumping-engine which can be applied without much trouble. John R. Freeman, Trans. A. S. C. E., Nov., 1889, describes a series of experiments covering a wide range of pressures and sizes, and the results that the coefficient of discharge for a smooth nozzle of ordinary gauge was within one half of one per cent, either way, of 0.977; the diameter of the nozzle being accurately calipered, and the pressures being determined by means of an accurate gauge attached to a suitable piezometer on the play-pipe.

In order to use this method for determining the quantity of water discharged by a pumping-engine, it would be necessary to provide a box, to which the water would be conducted, and attach to the box nozzles as would be required to carry off the water. According to Freeman's estimate, four 1¼-inch nozzles, thus connected, with a pressure of 80 lbs. per square inch, would discharge the full capacity of a ten-horsepower engine. He also suggests the use of a portable apparatus consisting of a single opening for discharge, consisting essentially of a Siphon, so-called, the water being carried to it by three or more lines of fire-hose.

To insure reliability for these measurements, it is necessary that there be a shut-off valve in the force-main, or the several shut-off valves, should be so placed that all the water discharged by the engine may pass through the

Flow through Rectangular Orifices. (Approximate.)

CUBIC FEET OF WATER DISCHARGED PER MINUTE THROUGH AN ORIFICE ONE INCH SQUARE, UNDER ANY HEAD OF WATER FROM 3 TO 72 INCHES

For any other orifice multiply by its area in square inches

Formula, $Q' = .634 \sqrt{h'} \times a$. Q' = cu. ft. per min.; a = area in sq. in.

Heads in inches.	Cubic Feet Discharged per min.	Heads in inches.	Cubic Feet Discharged per min.	Heads in inches.	Cubic Feet Discharged per min.	Heads in inches.	Cubic Feet Discharged per min.	Heads in inches.	Cubic Feet Discharged per min.
3	1.12	13	2.20	23	2.90	33	3.47	43	3.95
4	1.27	14	2.28	24	2.97	34	3.52	44	4.00
5	1.40	15	2.36	25	3.03	35	3.57	45	4.05
6	1.52	16	2.43	26	3.08	36	3.62	46	4.09
7	1.64	17	2.51	27	3.14	37	3.67	47	4.12
8	1.75	18	2.58	28	3.20	38	3.72	48	4.18
9	1.81	19	2.64	29	3.25	39	3.77	49	4.21
10	1.94	20	2.71	30	3.31	40	3.81	50	4.27
11	2.03	21	2.78	31	3.36	41	3.85	51	4.30
12	2.12	22	2.84	32	3.41	42	3.91	52	4.34

Measurement of an Open Stream by Velocity and section.—Measure the depth of the water at from 6 to 12 feet from the stream at equal distances between. Add all the depths in feet and divide by the number of measurements made; this will be the depth of the stream, which multiplied by its width will give its area section. Multiply this by the velocity of the stream in feet per minute the result will be the discharge in cubic feet per minute of the stream.

The velocity of an open stream can be found by laying off 100 feet of stream, and throwing a float in the middle, noting the time taken to pass the 100 ft. Divide the number of times and take the average; then

by the time gives the velocity at the surface. As the top of the float is faster than the bottom or sides—the average velocity being only 80 per cent of the surface velocity at the middle—it is convenient to measure at 120 feet for the float and reckon it as 100.

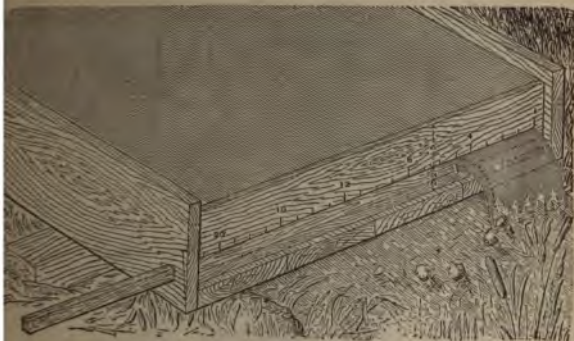


FIG. 130.

Miner's Inch Measurements. (Pelton Water Wheel Co.)

Fig. 130, shows the form of measuring-box ordinarily used, and the table gives the discharge in cubic feet per minute of a miner's inch as measured under the various heads and different lengths and apertures used in California.

Openings 2 Inches High.			Openings 4 Inches High.		
Head to Centre, 5 inches	Head to Centre, 6 inches.	Head to Centre, 7 inches.	Head to Centre, 5 inches.	Head to Centre, 6 inches.	Head to Centre, 7 inches.
Cu. ft.	Cu. ft.	Cu. ft.	Cu. ft.	Cu. ft.	Cu. ft.
1.318	1.473	1.589	1.820	1.450	1.570
1.355	1.480	1.596	1.836	1.470	1.595
1.359	1.484	1.600	1.844	1.481	1.608
1.361	1.485	1.602	1.849	1.487	1.615
1.363	1.487	1.604	1.852	1.491	1.620
1.364	1.488	1.604	1.854	1.494	1.623
1.365	1.489	1.605	1.856	1.496	1.626
1.365	1.489	1.606	1.857	1.498	1.628
1.365	1.490	1.606	1.859	1.499	1.630
1.366	1.490	1.607	1.859	1.500	1.631
1.366	1.490	1.607	1.860	1.501	1.632
1.366	1.490	1.607	1.861	1.502	1.633
1.367	1.491	1.607	1.861	1.503	1.634
1.367	1.491	1.608	1.862	1.503	1.635
1.367	1.492	1.608	1.863	1.505	1.637
1.368	1.493	1.609	1.864	1.507	1.639
1.368	1.493	1.609	1.865	1.508	1.640
1.368	1.493	1.609	1.865	1.508	1.641
1.368	1.493	1.609	1.866	1.509	1.641
1.369	1.493	1.610	1.866	1.509	1.641
1.369	1.494	1.610	1.866	1.509	1.641

The apertures from which the above measurements were

were through material $1\frac{1}{4}$ inches thick, and the lower edge 2 inches the bottom of the measuring-box, thus giving full contraction.

Flow of Water Over Weirs. Weir Dam Measure (Pelton Water Wheel Co.)—Place a board or plank in the stream, as

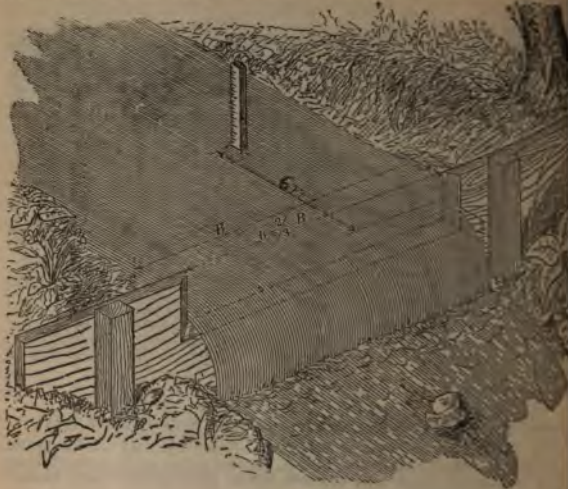


FIG. 131.

in the sketch, at some point where a pond will form above. The length of the notch in the dam should be from two to four times its depth for small quantities and longer for large quantities. The edges of the notch should be bevelled toward the intake side, as shown. The overfall below the notch should not be less than twice its depth. [Francis says a fall below the notch equal to one-half the head is sufficient, but there must be a free flow of water under the sheet.]

In the pond, about 6 ft. above the dam, drive a stake, and then observe the water until it rises precisely to the bottom of the notch and mark the top of the water at this level. Then complete the dam so as to cause all the water to flow through the notch, and, after time for the water to settle, mark the top of the water again for this new level. If preferred the stake can be driven with the top of the water precisely level with the bottom of the notch and the depth of the water measured with a rule after the water is flowing free, but the marks are preferable in most cases. The stake can then be withdrawn; and the difference between the marks is the theoretical depth of flow corresponding to the quantities in the table on the following page.

Francis's Formula for Weirs.

	As given by Francis,	As modified by Smith
Weirs with both end contractions suppressed	$Q = 3.33lH^{\frac{3}{2}}$	$2.29(l + 0.1H)H^{\frac{3}{2}}$
Weirs with one end contraction suppressed	$Q = 3.33(l - .1A)H^{\frac{3}{2}}$	$2.29lH^{\frac{3}{2}}$
Weirs with full contraction.....	$Q = 3.33(l - .2A)H^{\frac{3}{2}}$	$2.29(l - .1H)H^{\frac{3}{2}}$

The greatest variation of the Francis formulae from the values of experiment amounts to 3.4%. The modified Francis formulae, says Smith, are sufficient for all practical purposes when great accuracy is not required, with the error being not less than 2%.

Q = discharge in cubic feet per second, l = length of weir in feet, h = effective head measured from the level of the crest to the level of still water.

Q' = discharge in cubic feet per minute, and l' and h' are taken in feet. The above formulæ reduces to $Q' = 0.4l'h'^{\frac{3}{2}}$. From this table is calculated. The values are sufficiently accurate for computations of water-power for weirs without end contraction for a weir the full width of the channel of approach, and also for weirs with end contraction when $l =$ at least $10h$, the excess of the truth when $l = 4h$.

Weir Table.

TABLE SHOWING THE QUANTITY OF WATER PER MINUTE THAT WILL FLOW OVER A WEIR ONE INCH WIDE AND FROM $\frac{1}{8}$ TO $20\frac{7}{8}$ INCHES DEEP.

For other widths multiply by the width in inches.

$\frac{1}{8}$ in.	$\frac{1}{4}$ in.	$\frac{3}{8}$ in.	$\frac{1}{2}$ in.	$\frac{5}{8}$ in.	$\frac{3}{4}$ in.	$\frac{7}{8}$ in.
cu. ft. .01	cu. ft. .05	cu. ft. .09	cu. ft. .14	cu. ft. .19	cu. ft. .26	cu. ft. .32
.47	.55	.64	.73	.82	.92	1.02
1.23	1.35	1.46	1.58	1.70	1.82	1.95
2.21	2.34	2.48	2.61	2.76	2.90	3.05
3.85	3.50	3.66	3.81	3.97	4.14	4.30
4.64	4.81	4.98	5.15	5.33	5.51	5.69
6.06	6.25	6.44	6.63	6.82	7.01	7.21
7.60	7.80	8.01	8.21	8.42	8.63	8.83
9.25	9.47	9.69	9.91	10.13	10.35	10.57
11.02	11.25	11.48	11.71	11.94	12.17	12.41
12.88	13.12	13.36	13.60	13.85	14.09	14.34
14.84	15.09	15.34	15.59	15.85	16.11	16.36
16.88	17.15	17.41	17.67	17.94	18.21	18.47
19.01	19.29	19.56	19.84	20.11	20.39	20.67
21.23	21.51	21.80	22.08	22.37	22.65	22.94
23.52	23.82	24.11	24.40	24.70	25.00	25.30
25.90	26.20	26.50	26.80	27.11	27.42	27.72
28.34	28.65	28.97	29.28	29.59	29.91	30.22
30.86	31.18	31.50	31.82	32.15	32.47	32.80
33.45	33.78	34.11	34.44	34.77	35.10	35.44
36.11	36.45	36.78	37.12	37.46	37.80	38.15

For accurate computations, the coefficients of flow of Hamilton and Bazin should be used. In Smith's hydraulics will be found the results of experiments on orifices and weirs of various shapes by different authorities, together with a discussion of their results. (See also Trautwine's Pocket Book.)

Experiments.—M. Bazin (*Annales des Ponts et Chaussées*, translated by Marichal and Trautwine, Proc. Engrs. Club of Philadelphia) has made an extensive series of experiments with a sharp-crested weir with end contraction, the air being admitted freely behind the weir. He found values of m varying from 0.42 to 0.50, with variation of the height of the weir from $19\frac{3}{4}$ to $73\frac{3}{4}$ in., of the height of the crest of the channel from 0.79 to 2.46 ft., and of the head from 0.1 to 1.5 ft. From these experiments he deduces the following formula:

$$Q = \left[0.425 + 0.21 \left(\frac{H}{P + H} \right)^2 \right] LH \sqrt{2gH}$$

where H is the height in feet of the crest of the weir above the bottom of the approach, L the length of the weir, H the head, both in feet. The discharge in cu. ft. per sec. This formula, says M. Bazin, is

where errors of 2% to 3% are admitted. It follows from M. Bazin's paper:

VALUES OF THE COEFFICIENT m IN THE FORMULA $Q = mLH\sqrt{H}$ FOR SHARP-CRESTED WEIR WITHOUT LATERAL CONTRACTION; THE WEIR ADMITTED FREELY BEHIND THE FALLING SHEET.

Head, H .		Height of Crest of Weir Above Bed of Channel							
		Feet . . . 0.66 Inches 7.87	0.98 11.81	1.31 15.75	1.64 19.69	1.97 23.62	2.62 31.50	3.28 39.38	4.92 59.07
Ft.	In.	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m
.164	1.97	0.458	0.458	0.451	0.450	0.449	0.449	0.449	0.448
.230	2.76	0.455	0.448	0.445	0.443	0.442	0.441	0.440	0.440
.295	3.54	0.457	0.447	0.442	0.440	0.438	0.436	0.436	0.435
.394	4.73	0.462	0.448	0.442	0.438	0.436	0.435	0.432	0.430
.525	6.30	0.471	0.453	0.444	0.438	0.435	0.431	0.429	0.427
.656	7.87	0.480	0.459	0.447	0.440	0.436	0.431	0.428	0.425
.787	9.45	0.488	0.465	0.452	0.444	0.438	0.432	0.428	0.424
.919	11.02	0.496	0.472	0.457	0.448	0.441	0.433	0.429	0.424
1.050	12.60	0.478	0.462	0.452	0.444	0.436	0.430	0.424
1.181	14.17	0.483	0.467	0.456	0.448	0.438	0.432	0.424
1.312	15.75	0.489	0.472	0.459	0.451	0.440	0.433	0.424
1.444	17.32	0.494	0.476	0.463	0.454	0.442	0.435	0.425
1.575	18.90	0.480	0.467	0.457	0.444	0.436	0.425
1.706	20.47	0.488	0.470	0.460	0.446	0.438	0.425
1.837	22.05	0.487	0.473	0.463	0.448	0.439	0.427
1.969	23.62	0.490	0.476	0.466	0.451	0.441	0.427

A comparison of the results of this formula with those of e says M. Bazin, justifies us in believing that, except in the most very low weir (which should always be avoided), the preceding give the coefficient m in all cases within 1%; provided, however, arrangements of the standard weir are exactly reproduced. It is important that the admission of the air behind the falling sheet be assured. If this condition is not complied with, m may vary a wider limits. The type adopted gives the least possible m coefficient.

WATER-POWER.

Power of a Fall of Water—Efficiency.—The gross power of a fall of water is the product of the weight of water discharged thus into the total head, i.e., the difference of vertical elevations of the upper surface of the water at the points where the fall in question ends. The term "head" used in connection with water-power is the difference in height from the surface of the water in the pen-stock to the surface in the pen-stock when the wheel is running.

If Q = cubic feet of water discharged per second, D = weight of a cubic foot of water = 62.36 lbs. at 60° F., H = total head in feet; then

$$DQH = \text{gross power in foot-pounds per second,} \\ \text{and } DQH \div 550 = .1134QH = \text{gross horse-power.}$$

$$\text{If } Q' \text{ is taken in cubic feet per minute, } H, P. = \frac{Q'H \times 62.36}{33,000} = \dots$$

A water-wheel or motor of any kind cannot utilize the whole head, since there are losses of head at both the entrance to and the exit from the wheel. There are also losses of energy due to friction of the water as it passes through the wheel. The ratio of the power developed by the wheel to the gross power of the fall is the efficiency of the wheel.

$$\text{Efficiency} = \frac{\text{power of the wheel}}{\text{gross power}} = .00142Q'H = \frac{Q'H}{705}.$$

and of water can be made use of in one or other of the following ways

By its weight, as in the water-balance and overshot-wheel.

By its pressure, as in turbines and in the hydraulic engine, hydraulic crane, etc.

By its impulse, as in the undershot-wheel, and in the Pelton wheel.

By a combination of the above.

Gross-power of a Running Stream.—The gross horse-power $P = QH \times 62.36 + 550 = .1134QH$, in which Q is the discharge in cubic feet per second actually impinging on the float or bucket, and $H =$ theoretical head due to the velocity of the stream $= \frac{v^2}{2g} = \frac{v^2}{64.4}$, in which v is the velocity in feet per second. If Q' be taken in cubic feet per minute, $P = .00189Q'H$.

As, if the floats of an undershot-wheel driven by a current alone be 5 × 1 foot, and the velocity of stream = 210 ft. per minute, or $3\frac{1}{2}$ ft. per second, the theoretical head is 19 ft., $Q = 5$ sq. ft. × 210 = 1050 cu. ft. per minute; $H = .19$ ft.; H. P. = 1050 × .19 × .00189 = .377 H. P.

Such wheels would realize only about .4 of this power, on account of friction slip, or .151 H. P., or about .03 H. P. per square foot of float, which is equivalent to 23 sq. ft. of float per H. P.

Current Motors.—A current motor could only utilize the whole power of a running stream if it could take all the velocity out of the water, so that it could leave the floats or buckets with no velocity at all; or in other words, would require the backing up of the whole volume of the stream until the actual head was equivalent to the theoretical head due to the velocity of the stream. As but a small fraction of the velocity of the stream can be taken out by a current motor, its efficiency is very small. Current motors may be used to obtain small amounts of power from large streams, but for large streams they are not practicable.

Horse-power of Water Flowing in a Tube.—The head due to the velocity is $\frac{v^2}{2g}$; the head due to the pressure is $\frac{f}{w}$; the head due to actual height above the datum plane is h feet. The total head is the sum of these =

$h + \frac{f}{w}$, in feet, in which $v =$ velocity in feet per second, $f =$ pressure

in lbs. per sq. ft., $w =$ weight of 1 cu. ft. of water = 62.36 lbs. If $p =$ pressure in lbs. per sq. in., $\frac{f}{w} = 2.302p$. In hydraulic transmission the velocity

and the height above datum are usually small compared with the pressure-head. The work or energy of a given quantity of water under pressure = volume in cubic feet × its pressure in lbs. per sq. ft.; or if $Q =$ quantity in cubic feet per second, and $p =$ pressure in lbs. per square inch, $W =$

$2.302pQ$, and the H. P. = $\frac{144pQ}{550} = .2618pQ$.

Maximum Efficiency of a Long Conduit.—A. L. Adams and G. Gemmel (*Eng'g News*, May 4, 1893), show by mathematical analysis that the conditions for securing the maximum amount of power through a long conduit of fixed diameter, without regard to the economy of water, is that the draught from the pipe should be such that the frictional loss in the pipe shall be equal to one third of the entire static head.

Mill-Power.—A "mill-power" is a unit used to rate a water-power for the purpose of renting it. The value of the unit is different in different localities. The following are examples (from Emerson):

Holbrook, Mass.—Each mill-power at the respective falls is declared to be the right during 16 hours in a day to draw 38 cu. ft. of water per second at the upper fall when the head there is 20 feet, or a quantity proportionate to the height at the falls. This is equal to 86.2 horse-power as a maximum.

Lowell, Mass.—The right to draw during 15 hours in the day so much water shall give a power equal to 25 cu. ft. a second at the great fall, when the head there is 20 feet. Equal to 85 H. P. maximum.

Lawrence, Mass.—The right to draw during 16 hours in a day so much water shall give a horse-power equal to 30 cu. ft. per second when the head is 25 feet. Equal to 85 H. P. maximum.

Minneapolis, Minn.—30 cu. ft. of water per second with head of 25 feet equal to 74.8 H. P.

Manchester, N. H.—Divide 725 by the number of feet of fall into

a_1 = the arc subtending one bucket at entrance. (In practice, a_1 is less than a .)

$a_2 = gh$, the arc subtending one bucket at exit.

$K = bf$, normal section of passage, it being assumed that the passages and buckets are very narrow.

$k_1 = bd$, initial normal section of bucket,

$k_2 = gi$, terminal normal section,

ωv_1 = velocity of initial rim,

ωv_2 = velocity of terminal rim,

$\delta = HFI$, angle between the terminal rim and actual direction of water at exit.

Y = depth of K , y of a_1 , and y_2 of K_2 , then

$K = Y a \sin a$; $K_1 = y_1 a_1 \sin \gamma_1$; $K_2 = y_2 a_2 \sin \gamma_2$.

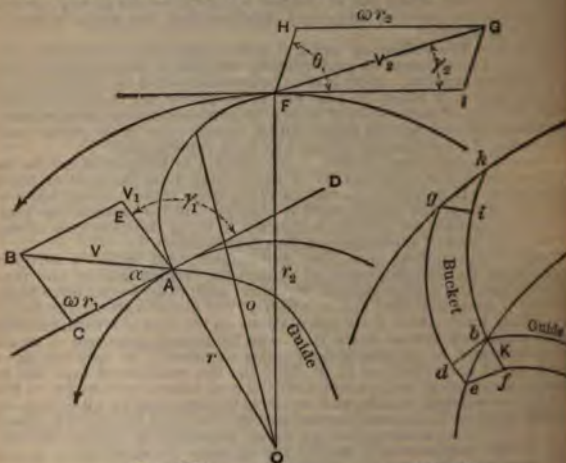


FIG. 182.

FIG. 183.

Three simple systems are recognized, $r_1 < r_2$, called outward flow; r_1 called inward flow; $r_1 = r_2$, called parallel flow. The first and second may be combined with the third, making a mixed system.

Value of γ_2 (the quitting angle).—The efficiency is increased as γ_2 increases, and is greatest for $\gamma_2 = 0$. Hence, theoretically, the terminal rim of the bucket should be tangent to the quitting rim for best effect. This, however, for the discharge of a finite quantity of water, requires an infinite depth of bucket. In practice, therefore, this angle must have a finite value. The larger the diameter of the terminal rim the smaller may be this angle for a given depth of wheel and given quantity of water discharged. In practice γ_2 is from 10° to 20° .

In a wheel in which all the elements except γ_2 are fixed, the velocity of the wheel for best effect must increase as the quitting angle of the rim decreases.

Values of $a + \gamma_1$ must be less than 180° , but the best relation cannot be determined by analysis. However, since the water should be deflected its course as much as possible from its entering to its leaving the wheel, an angle a for this reason should be as small as practicable.

In practice, a cannot be zero, and is made from 30° to 90° .

The value $r_1 = 1.4 r_2$ makes the width of the crown for internal flow the same as for $r_1 = r_2 \sqrt{1.4}$ for outward flow, being approximately 0.24 of external radius.

Values of μ_1 and μ_2 .—The frictional resistances depend upon the roughness of the surfaces, smoothness of the surfaces, sharpness of the

of the curved parts, and also upon the speed it is run. These ought to be definitely assigned beforehand, but Weisbach gives for fons $\mu_1 = \mu_2 = 0.05$ to 0.10 .

not necessarily equal, and μ_1 may be from 0.05 to 0.075 , and μ_2 0.10 or even larger.

γ_1 must be less than $180^\circ - \alpha$.

On the safe side, γ_1 may be 20 or 30 degrees less than $180^\circ - 2\alpha$, giving

$$\gamma_1 = 180^\circ - 2\alpha - 25 \text{ (say)} = 155 - 2\alpha.$$

$= 30^\circ$, $\gamma_1 = 95^\circ$. Some designers make γ_1 90° ; others more, and less, than that amount. Weisbach suggests that it be less, so that the bucket will be shorter and friction less. This reasoning appears to be for the inflow wheel, but not for the outflow wheel. In the Tremonts, described in the Lowell Hydraulic Experiments, this angle α 20° , and γ_2 10° , which proportions insured a positive flow from the wheel. Fourcroy made $\gamma_1 = 90^\circ$, and α from 30° to 33° , as made the initial pressure in the wheel near zero.

Bucket—The form of the bucket cannot be determined analytically. The initial and terminal directions and the volume of the water which passes through the wheel, the area of the normal sections may be found.

The normal section of the buckets will be:

$$K = \frac{Q}{V}; \quad k_1 = \frac{Q}{v_1}; \quad k_2 = \frac{Q}{v_2}.$$

The areas of those sections will be:

$$Y = \frac{K}{\alpha \sin \alpha}; \quad y_1 = \frac{k_1}{\alpha_1 \sin \gamma_1}; \quad y_2 = \frac{k_2}{\alpha_2 \sin \gamma_2}.$$

The radii of curvature and section must be gradual, and the general form of the wheel must be such that eddies and whirls shall not be formed. For the same wheel must be run with the correct velocity to secure the best practice the buckets are made of two or three arcs of circles, tangent to each other at the tip.

Velocity of ω .—So far as analysis indicates, the wheel may run at any speed in order that the stream shall flow smoothly from the supply into the bucket, the velocity V should be properly regulated.

For $\mu_2 = 0.10$, $r_2 + r_1 = 1.40$, $\alpha = 25^\circ$, $\gamma_1 = 90^\circ$, $\gamma_2 = 12^\circ$, the velocity of the initial rim for outward flow will be for maximum efficiency 0.614 of the velocity due to the head, or $\omega r_1 = 0.614 \sqrt{2gH}$.

For inward flow, or $\omega r_1 = 0.614 \sqrt{2gH}$.

For inflow wheel for the case in which $r_1^2 = 2r_2^2$, and the other dimensions as above, $\omega r_1 = 0.682 \sqrt{2gH}$.

The highest efficiency of the Tremont turbine, found experimentally, was 0.62545 of that due to the head, and the corresponding velocity, 0.62545 of that due to the head, and the velocities above and below this value the efficiency was less.

The Tremont wheel $\alpha = 30^\circ$ instead of 25° , and $\gamma_2 = 10^\circ$ instead of 12° , would make the theoretical efficiency and velocity of the wheel somewhat greater. Experiment showed that the velocity might be considerably smaller than this amount without much diminution of the efficiency.

It is found that if the velocity of the initial (or interior) rim was not less than 75% of that due to the fall, the efficiency was 75% of that due to the fall, and the velocity of the initial rim was observed to be 0.614 of that due to the head, which is not far from the velocity due to the head effect; that is to say, when the gate is fully raised the coefficient of efficiency is a maximum when the wheel is moving with about half its theoretical velocity.

Form of Buckets.—Successful wheels have been made in which the distance between the buckets was as small as 0.75 of an inch, and others as small as 2.75 inches. Turbines at the Centennial Exposition had buckets 1 inch to 9 inches from centre to centre. If too large they will not operate properly. Neither should they be too deep. Horizontal buckets are not so good as vertical ones. These secure more efficient work.

The buckets are only partly opened. The form and number of buckets are chiefly the result of experience.

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Ratio of Radii.—Theory does not limit the dimensions of the wheel. In practice,

for outward flow, $r_2 + r_1$ is from 1.25 to 1.50;
for inward flow, $r_2 + r_1$ is from 0.66 to 0.80.

It appears that the inflow-wheel has a higher efficiency than the outward-flow wheel. The inflow-wheel also runs somewhat slower for best effect. The centrifugal force in the outward-flow wheel tends to force the water outward faster than it would otherwise flow; while in the inward flow wheel it has the contrary effect, acting as it does in opposition to the velocity in the buckets.

It also appears that the efficiency of the outward-flow wheel increases slightly as the width of the crown is less and the velocity for maximum efficiency is slower; while for the inflow-wheel the efficiency slightly increases for increased width of crown, and the velocity of the outer rim at the same time also increases.

Efficiency.—The exact value of the efficiency for a particular wheel must be found by experiment.

It seems hardly possible for the effective efficiency to equal, much less exceed, 80%, and all claims of 90 or more per cent for these motors should be discarded as improbable. A turbine yielding from 75% to 80% is extremely good. Experiments with higher efficiencies have been reported.

The celebrated Tremont turbine gave 79.4% without the "diffuser," which might have added some 2%. A Jonval turbine (parallel flow) was reported as yielding 0.75 to 0.90, but Morin suggested corrections reducing it to 0.63 to 0.71. Weisbach gives the results of many experiments, in which the efficiency ranged from 5% to 84%. Numerous experiments give $E = 0.60$ to 0.65. The efficiency, considering only the energy imparted to the wheel, will exceed by several per cent the efficiency of the wheel, for the latter will include the friction of the support and leakage at the joint between the shaft and wheel, which are not included in the former; also as a plant the resistances and losses in the supply-chamber are to be still further deducted.

The Crowns.—The crowns may be plane annular disks, or conical, or curved. If the partitions forming the buckets be so thin that they may be discarded, the law of radial flow will be determined by the form of the crowns. If the crowns be plane, the radial flow (or radial component) will diminish, for the outward flow-wheel, as the distance from the axis increases—the buckets being full—for the angular space will be greater.

Prof. Wood deduces from the formulæ in his paper the tables on page 200. It appears from these tables: 1. That the terminal angle, α , has frequently been made too large in practice for the best efficiency.

2. That the terminal angle, α , of the guide should be for the inflow less than 10° for the wheels here considered, but when the initial angle of the bucket is 90° , and the terminal angle of the guide is $5^\circ 28'$, the gain of efficiency is not 2% greater than when the latter is 25° .

3. That the initial angle of the bucket should exceed 90° for best effect for outflow-wheels.

4. That with the initial angle between 60° and 120° for best effect on inflow wheels the efficiency varies scarcely 1%.

5. In the outflow-wheel, column (9) shows that for the outflow for best effect the direction of the quitting water in reference to the earth should be nearly radial (from 76° to 97°), but for the inflow wheel the water is thrown forward in quitting. This shows that the velocity of the rim should somewhat exceed the relative final velocity backward in the bucket, as shown in columns (4) and (5).

6. In these tables the velocities given are in terms of $\sqrt{2gh}$, and the coefficients of this expression will be the part of the head which would produce that velocity if the water issued freely. There is only one case, column (1), where the coefficient exceeds unity, and the excess is so small it may be discarded; and it may be said that in a properly proportioned turbine with the conditions here given none of the velocities will equal that due to the head in the supply-chamber when running at best effect.

7. The inflow turbine presents the best conditions for construction for producing a given effect, the only apparent disadvantage being an increased first cost due to an increased depth, or an increased diameter for producing a given amount of work. The larger efficiency should, however, more than neut:alize the increased first cost.

$k_3 v_1 = k_2 v_2 = KV = Q = 1.$

Parallel Crowns. $\gamma_2 = 12^\circ.$

Initial Angle, γ_1	Efficiency, E	Velocity Outer Rim, v_{2a}'	Velocity Inner Rim, $v_{1a}' = \frac{1}{2} v_{2a}'$	Relative Velocity of Exit, v_2	Relative Velocity of Entrance, v_1	Velocity of Exit from supply Chamber, V	Terminal Angle of Guide, α	Direction of quitting Water, θ	Head Equivalent of Energy in quitting Water, $\frac{u^2}{2g}$	$k_3 \sqrt{gH}$
1	0	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
60°	0.804	$0.973 \sqrt{2gH}$	$0.687 \sqrt{2gH}$	$1.048 \sqrt{2gH}$	$0.356 \sqrt{2gH}$	$0.505 \sqrt{2gH}$	31° 17'	76°	0.051H	0.07
90°	0.828	$0.874 \sqrt{2gH}$	$0.619 \sqrt{2gH}$	$0.931 \sqrt{2gH}$	$0.274 \sqrt{2gH}$	$0.676 \sqrt{2gH}$	23° 56'	70°	0.039H	0.78
120°	0.839	$0.738 \sqrt{2gH}$	$0.565 \sqrt{2gH}$	$0.843 \sqrt{2gH}$	$0.286 \sqrt{2gH}$	$0.749 \sqrt{2gH}$	19° 5'	83°	0.031H	0.84
150°	0.921	$0.709 \sqrt{2gH}$	$0.501 \sqrt{2gH}$	$0.707 \sqrt{2gH}$	$0.416 \sqrt{2gH}$	$0.886 \sqrt{2gH}$	13° 31'	97°	0.023H	1.00

Inward-flow Turbine.

$\mu_1 = \mu_2 = 0.10.$

Parallel Crowns. $\gamma_2 = 12^\circ.$

Initial Angle, γ_1	Efficiency, E	Velocity Outer Rim, v_{1a}'	Velocity Inner Rim, v_{2a}'	v_2	v_1	V	α	θ	$\frac{u^2}{2g}$	$k_3 \sqrt{gH}$
60°	0.920	$0.709 \sqrt{2gH}$	$0.501 \sqrt{2gH}$	$0.476 \sqrt{2gH}$	$0.089 \sqrt{2gH}$	$0.673 \sqrt{2gH}$	7° 0'	110°	0.010H	1.48
90°	0.930	$0.688 \sqrt{2gH}$	$0.487 \sqrt{2gH}$	$0.470 \sqrt{2gH}$	$0.069 \sqrt{2gH}$	$0.691 \sqrt{2gH}$	5° 28'	106°	0.010H	1.50
120°	0.919	$0.668 \sqrt{2gH}$	$0.473 \sqrt{2gH}$	$0.456 \sqrt{2gH}$	$0.077 \sqrt{2gH}$	$0.709 \sqrt{2gH}$	4° 46'	105°	0.010H	1.55
150°	0.918	$0.634 \sqrt{2gH}$	$0.448 \sqrt{2gH}$	$0.429 \sqrt{2gH}$	$0.136 \sqrt{2gH}$	$0.743 \sqrt{2gH}$	3° 08'	107°	0.0095H	1.65

$\mu_1 = \mu_2 = 0.10.$

Parallel Crowns. $\gamma_2 = 12^\circ.$

$k_3 v_1 = k_2 v_2 = KV = Q = 1.$

1876. (From a paper by R. H. Thurston on the System Turbine Wheels in the United States, Trans. A. S. M. E., v. the judges at the International Exhibition conducted a set of turbines. Many of the wheels offered for tests were found less defective in fitting and workmanship. The following is the results of all turbines entered which gave an efficient Seven other wheels were tested, giving results between 65% and

Maker's Name, or Name the Wheel is Known By.	Per Cent at Full Gate of Discharge.	Per Cent at about 9/10 of Full Discharge.	Per Cent at about 3/4 of Full Discharge.	Per Cent at about 1/2 of Full Discharge.	Per Cent at about 1/4 of Full Discharge.
Riston	87.68	86.30	82.41
National	83.79	70.79
Geyelin (single).....	83.30
Thos. Tait	82.13	70.40	66
Goldie & McCullough.....	81.31	71.01	65.00
Rodney Hunt Mach. Co.....	78.70	71.66	68.60	51
Tyler Wheel	79.59	81.24	79.92	67
Geyelin (duplex).....	77.57
Knowlton & Dolan.....	77.43	74.25	62
E. T. Cope & Sons.....	76.94	69.92
Barber & Harris.....	76.16	73.33	70
York Manufacturing Co.....	75.70	67.08	67.57	62
W. F. Mosser & Co.....	75.15	74.89	71.90	70.52

The limits of error of the tests, says Prof. Thurston, were they are undoubtedly considerable as compared with the last the permanent flume at Holyoke—possibly as much as 4% or 5%. Experiments with "draught-tubes," or "suction-tubes" actually "diffusers" in their effect, so far as Prof. Thurston them, indicate the loss by friction which should be anticipated, this loss decreasing as the tube increased in size, and

with maximum tightness and transmitting power. A "quarter about 10% as a maximum, and a "quarter twist" about 5%.

Designs of Turbines.—For dimensions, power, etc., of stand-turbines consult the catalogues of different manufacturers. Different makers vary greatly in their proportions for any

on Water-wheel.—Mr. Ross E. Browne (*Eng'g News*, Feb.) outlines the principles upon which this water-wheel is

of a water-wheel, operated by a jet of water escaping from convert the energy of the jet, due to its velocity, into useful or to utilize this energy fully the wheel-bucket, after catching bring it to rest before discharging it, without inducing turbu- tion of the particles.

be fully effected, and unavoidable difficulties necessitate the tion of the energy. The principal losses occur as follows: or angular diversion of the jet in entering, or in its course bucket, causing impact, or the conversion of a portion of the at instead of useful work. Second, in the so-called frictional erred to the motion of the water by the wetted surfaces of the ing also the conversion of a portion of the energy into heat ful work. Third, in the velocity of the water, as it leaves the senting energy which has not been converted into work.

eking a high efficiency: 1. The bucket-surface at the entrance proximately parallel to the relative course of the jet, and ould be curved in such to avoid sharp angular de- stream. If, for example, s surface at an angle and flected, a portion of the ed, the smoothness of the turbed, and there results loss by impact and other- entrance and deflection in ket are such as to avoid e the main. (See Fig. 136.)

er of the buckets should be small, and the path of the jet in the in other words, the total wetted surface should be small, as ction will be proportional to this.

arge end of the bucket should be as nearly tangential to the ery as compatible with the clearance of the bucket which e great differences of velocity in the parts of the escaping water ided. In order to bring the water to rest at the discharge end, it is shown, mathematically, that the velocity of the bucket half the velocity of the jet.

uch as shown in Fig. 135, will cause the heaping of more or less dead or turbulent water at the point indicated by dark shading. This dead water is subsequently thrown from the wheel with considerable velocity, and represents a large loss of energy. The introduction of the wedge in the Pelton bucket (see Fig. 134) is an efficient means of avoiding this loss.

A wheel of the form of the Pelton conforms closely in construction to each of these requirements.

In a test made by the proprietors of the Idaho mine, near Grass Valley, Cal., the dimensions and results were as follows: Main supply-pipe, 22 in. diameter, 6900 ft. head of 356½ feet above centre of nozzle. The loss by friction was 1.8 ft., reducing the effective head to 384.7 ft. The Pelton in the test was 6 ft. in diameter and the nozzle was 1.89 in. The work done was measured by a Prony brake, and the mean showed a useful effect of 87.3%.

Wheel is also used as a motor for small powers. A test by of a 12-inch wheel, with a ¾-inch nozzle, under 100 lbs. pressure, se-power. The theoretical discharge was .0935 cubic feet per the theoretical horse-power 2.45; the efficiency other styles of water-motor tested at the same 1 85 per cent.



FIG. 134.



FIG. 135.

Pelton Water-wheel Tables. (Abridged.)

The smaller figures under those denoting the various heads are the spouting velocity of the water in feet per minute. The cubic-foot measurement is also based on the flow per minute.

Head in ft.	Size of Wheels.	6	12	18	18	24	3	4	5
		in. No. 1	in. No. 2	in. No. 3	in. No. 4	in. No. 5	ft.	ft.	ft.
20 2151.97	Horse-power.	.05	.12	.20	.37	.66	1.50	2.64	4.18
	Cubic feet. . . .	1.67	3.91	6.62	11.72	20.83	46.93	83.32	130.32
	Revolutions..	684	342	228	228	171	114	85	59
2635.62	Horse-power.	.10	.23	.38	.69	1.22	2.76	4.88	7.58
	Cubic feet. . . .	2.05	4.79	8.11	14.36	25.51	57.44	102.04	159.89
	Revolutions..	837	418	279	279	209	139	104	83
3049.39	Horse-power.	.15	.35	.59	1.06	1.89	4.24	7.58	11.82
	Cubic feet. . . .	2.37	5.53	9.37	16.59	29.46	66.36	107.84	164.36
	Revolutions..	969	484	323	323	242	161	121	96
3402.61	Horse-power.	.21	.49	.84	1.49	2.65	5.98	10.60	16.63
	Cubic feet. . . .	2.64	6.18	10.47	18.54	32.93	74.17	131.72	206.12
	Revolutions..	1083	541	361	361	270	180	135	108
3727.37	Horse-power.	.28	.65	1.10	1.96	3.48	7.84	13.94	21.77
	Cubic feet. . . .	2.90	6.77	11.47	20.31	36.08	81.25	144.32	225.89
	Revolutions..	1185	592	395	395	296	197	148	118
4026.00	Horse-power.	.35	.82	1.39	2.47	4.39	9.88	17.58	27.31
	Cubic feet. . . .	3.13	7.31	12.39	21.94	38.97	87.76	155.88	243.89
	Revolutions..	1281	640	427	427	320	213	160	126
4303.90	Horse-power.	.43	1.00	1.70	3.01	5.36	12.04	21.44	33.54
	Cubic feet. . . .	3.35	7.82	13.25	23.46	41.66	93.84	166.64	259.73
	Revolutions..	1368	684	450	450	342	228	171	137
4565.04	Horse-power.	.51	1.20	2.03	3.60	6.39	14.40	25.59	40.04
	Cubic feet. . . .	3.55	8.29	14.05	24.88	44.19	99.52	176.75	278.55
	Revolutions..	1452	726	484	484	363	242	181	145
4812.00	Horse-power.	.60	1.40	2.32	4.21	7.40	16.84	29.93	46.85
	Cubic feet. . . .	3.74	8.74	14.81	26.32	46.58	104.88	186.32	291.31
	Revolutions..	1530	765	510	510	382	255	191	152
5271.30	Horse-power.	.79	1.84	3.12	5.54	9.85	22.18	39.41	61.66
	Cubic feet. . . .	4.10	9.37	16.21	28.72	51.02	114.91	204.10	319.23
	Revolutions..	1677	838	559	559	419	279	209	167
5693.65	Horse-power.	.99	2.33	3.94	6.99	12.41	27.96	49.64	77.71
	Cubic feet. . . .	4.43	10.34	17.53	31.03	55.11	124.12	220.44	344.92
	Revolutions..	1812	906	604	604	453	302	226	181
6098.74	Horse-power.	1.22	2.84	4.82	8.54	15.17	34.16	60.68	94.14
	Cubic feet. . . .	4.73	11.05	18.74	33.17	58.92	132.68	235.68	368.75
	Revolutions..	1988	969	646	646	484	323	242	198
6455.97	Horse-power.	1.45	3.39	5.75	10.19	18.10	40.77	72.41	113.30
	Cubic feet. . . .	5.02	11.72	19.87	35.18	62.49	140.74	249.37	391.19
	Revolutions..	2049	1024	683	683	513	342	256	204
6805.17	Horse-power.	1.70	3.97	6.74	11.93	21.20	47.75	84.81	132.79
	Cubic feet. . . .	5.29	12.36	20.94	37.08	65.87	148.33	263.49	412.25
	Revolutions..	2160	1080	720	720	540	360	270	216
7144.44	Horse-power.	2.38	5.50	9.42	16.08	29.63	66.74	118.54	185.47
	Cubic feet. . . .	5.92	13.82	23.42	41.46	73.84	165.56	291.29	450.20
	Revolutions..	2418	1209	806	806	605	403	293	241

Pelton Water-wheel Tables.—Continued.

	6 in. No. 1	12 in. No. 2	18 in. No. 3	18 in. No. 4	24 in. No. 5	3 ft.	4 ft.	5 ft.	6 ft.
Horse-pow'r	3.13	7.31	12.38	21.93	38.95	87.73	155.83	243.82	350.94
Cubic feet...	6.48	15.13	25.66	45.42	80.67	181.69	322.71	504.91	726.76
Revolutions	2652	1326	884	884	663	442	331	265	221
Horse-pow'r	3.94	9.21	15.61	27.64	49.09	110.56	196.38	307.65	442.27
Cubic feet...	7.00	16.35	27.71	49.06	87.14	196.25	348.57	545.36	785.00
Revolutions	2865	1432	955	955	716	477	358	285	238
Horse-pow'r	4.82	11.25	19.0	33.77	59.98	135.08	239.94	375.40	540.35
Cubic feet...	7.49	17.48	29.63	52.45	93.16	200.80	372.64	583.02	839.20
Revolutions	3063	1531	1021	1021	765	510	382	306	255
Horse-pow'r	5.75	13.43	22.76	40.29	71.57	161.19	286.31	447.95	644.78
Cubic feet...	7.94	18.54	31.42	55.63	98.81	222.52	395.24	618.38	890.11
Revolutions	3249	1624	1083	1083	812	541	406	324	270
Horse-pow'r	6.74	15.73	26.66	47.30	83.63	188.80	335.34	524.66	755.30
Cubic feet...	8.37	19.54	33.12	59.64	104.15	234.56	416.62	651.83	938.25
Revolutions	3426	1713	1142	1142	856	571	438	342	285
Horse-pow'r	62.04	110.19	248.16	440.77	689.63	992.65
Cubic feet...	64.24	114.09	256.95	456.38	714.05	1027.80
Revolutions	1251	938	625	469	375	311
Horse-pow'r	69.95	124.25	279.82	497.01	777.62	1119.29
Cubic feet...	66.86	118.75	267.44	475.02	743.21	1069.77
Revolutions	1302	976	651	488	390	325
Horse-pow'r	78.18	138.86	312.73	555.46	869.06	1250.92
Cubic feet...	69.38	123.23	277.54	492.95	771.26	1110.16
Revolutions	1351	1013	675	506	405	337
Horse-pow'r	86.70	154.00	346.83	616.03	963.82	1387.34
Cubic feet...	71.82	127.56	287.28	510.25	798.33	1149.13
Revolutions	1399	1049	699	524	419	349
Horse-pow'r	95.52	169.66	383.09	678.66	1061.81	1538.36
Cubic feet...	74.17	131.74	296.70	536.99	824.51	1186.81
Revolutions	1444	1083	732	542	433	361
Horse-pow'r	113.98	202.45	455.94	809.82	1267.02	1823.76
Cubic feet...	78.67	139.74	314.70	558.96	874.53	1258.81
Revolutions	1532	1149	766	574	459	383
Horse-pow'r	133.50	237.12	534.01	948.48	1489.97	2136.04
Cubic feet...	82.93	147.30	331.72	589.19	921.83	1326.91
Revolutions	1615	1210	807	605	484	403

THE POWER OF OCEAN WAVES.

bert W. Stahl, U. S. N. (Trans. A. S. M. E., xiii, 438), gives the following table and table, based upon a theoretical discussion of wave motion; the total energy of one whole wave-length of a wave H feet high, L feet long, and one foot in breadth, the length being the distance between successive crests, and the height the vertical distance between the crest and the trough, is $E = 8LEH^2 \left(1 - 4.935 \frac{H^2}{L^2}\right)$ foot-pounds,

and the time required for each wave to travel through a distance equal to its length is $P = \sqrt{\frac{L}{5.125}}$ seconds, and the number of waves passing a point in a given time is $N = \frac{t}{P}$.

given point in one minute is $N = \frac{60}{P} = 60 \sqrt{\frac{5.123}{L}}$. Hence the total energy of an indefinite series of such waves, expressed in horse-power per foot of breadth, is

$$\frac{E \times N}{33000} = .0339 H^2 L \left(1 - 4.935 \frac{H^2}{L^2}\right).$$

By substituting various values for $H + L$, within the limits of such values actually occurring in nature, we obtain the following table of

TOTAL ENERGY OF DEEP-SEA WAVES IN TERMS OF HORSE-POWER PER FOOT OF BREADTH.

Ratio of Length of Waves to Height of Waves.	Length of Waves in Feet.							
	25	50	75	100	150	200	300	400
50	.04	.23	.64	1.31	3.02	7.43	20.46	41.1
40	.06	.36	1.00	2.05	5.65	11.59	31.96	62.3
30	.12	.64	1.77	3.64	10.02	20.57	56.70	112.3
20	.25	1.44	3.96	8.13	21.79	45.98	123.70	246.3
15	.42	2.83	6.97	14.31	39.43	80.94	223.06	445.3
10	.98	5.53	15.24	31.29	86.32	177.00	487.70	973.3
5	3.30	18.68	51.48	105.68	291.30	597.78	1647.31	3293.3

The figures are correct for trochoidal deep-sea waves only, but they give a close approximation for any nearly regular series of waves in deep water and a fair approximation for waves in shallow water.

The question of the practical utilization of the energy which exists in ocean waves divides itself into several parts:

1. The various motions of the water which may be utilized for power purposes.

2. The wave motor proper. That is, the portion of the apparatus in direct contact with the water, and receiving and transmitting the energy thereof, together with the mechanism for transmitting this energy to the machinery for utilizing the same.

3. Regulating devices, for obtaining a uniform motion from the irregular and more or less spasmodic action of the waves, as well as for adjusting the apparatus to the state of the tide and condition of the sea.

4. Storage arrangements for insuring a continuous and uniform output of power during a calm, or when the waves are comparatively small.

The motions that may be utilized for power purposes are the following: 1. Vertical rise and fall of particles at and near the surface. 2. Horizontal to-and-fro motion of particles at and near the surface. 3. Varying slow or surface of wave. 4. Impetus of waves rolling up the beach in the form of breakers. 5. Motion of distorted verticals. All of these motions, except the last one mentioned, have at various times been proposed to be utilized for power purposes; and the last is proposed to be used in apparatus described by Mr. Stahl.

The motion of distorted verticals is thus defined: A set of particles, originally in the same vertical straight line when the water is at rest, does not remain in a vertical line during the passage of the wave; so that the line connecting them becomes a set of such particles, while vertical and straight in still water, becomes distorted, as well as displaced, during the passage of the wave to upper portion moving farther and more rapidly than its lower portion.

Mr. Stahl's paper contains illustrations of several wave-motors designed upon various principles. His conclusions as to their practicability is as follows: "Possibly none of the methods described in this paper may ever prove commercially successful; indeed the problem may not be susceptible of a financially successful solution. My own investigations, however, so far as I have yet been able to carry them, incline me to the belief that wave-power can and will be utilized on a paying basis."

Continuous Utilization of Tidal Power. (P. DECOUR, Proc. C. E., 1890.)—1. The utilization of tidal power with the training-walls to be constructed

ary of the Seine, it is proposed to construct large basins, by means of the power available from the rise and fall of the tide could be utilized. The method proposed is to have two basins separated by a bank rising high water, within which turbines would be placed. The upper basin is in communication with the sea during the higher one third of the range, rising, and the lower basin during the lower one third of the range, falling. If H be the range in feet, the level in the upper would never fall below $\frac{2}{3}H$ measured from low water, and the level in the lower basin would never rise above $\frac{1}{3}H$. The available head between $0.53H$ and $0.80H$, the mean value being $\frac{2}{3}H$. If S square feet be the area of the lower basin, and the above conditions are fulfilled, the quantity of water is delivered through the turbines in the space of 1.35 hours. The mean flow is, therefore, $8H \div 99,900$ cu. ft. per sec., and the fall being $\frac{2}{3}H$, the available gross horse-power is about $1,308'H^2$. S' is measured in acres. This might be increased by about one third if the variation of level in the basins amounting to $\frac{1}{3}H$ were permitted. But at this end the number of turbines would have to be doubled, the head being reduced to $\frac{2}{3}H$, and it would be more difficult to transmit so much power from the turbines. The turbine proposed is of an improved design to utilize a large flow with a moderate diameter. One has been designed to produce 300 horse-power, with a minimum head of 5 ft. 3 in. at a speed of 15 revolutions per minute, the vanes having 13 ft. internal diameter. The speed would be maintained constant by regulating sluices.

PUMPS AND PUMPING ENGINES.

Theoretical Capacity of a Pump.—Let Q' = cu. ft. per min.; A = Amer. gals. per min. = $7.4805Q'$; d = diam. of pump in inches; L = length in inches; N = number of single strokes per min.

$$\text{Capacity in cu. ft. per min.} = Q' = \frac{\pi}{4} \cdot \frac{d^2}{144} \cdot \frac{LN}{12} = .0004545Nd^2l;$$

$$\text{Capacity in gals. per min. } G' = \frac{\pi}{4} \cdot \frac{Nd^2l}{231} \dots\dots\dots = .0084Nd^2l;$$

$$\text{Capacity in gals. per hour} \dots\dots\dots = .204Nd^2l.$$

$$\text{Diameter required for a } \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{given capacity per min.} \\ \text{piston speed in feet per min., } d = 13.54 \sqrt{\frac{Q'}{v}} = 4.95 \sqrt{\frac{G'}{v}}. \end{array} \right\} d = 46.9 \sqrt{\frac{Q'}{Nl}} = 17.15 \sqrt{\frac{G'}{Nl}}.$$

$$\text{If the piston speed is 100 feet per min., } d = 13.54 \sqrt{\frac{Q'}{v}} = 4.95 \sqrt{\frac{G'}{v}}.$$

If the piston speed is 100 feet per min.:

$$Nl = 1200, \text{ and } d = 1.354 \sqrt{Q'} = .495 \sqrt{G'}; \quad G' = 4.08d^2 \text{ per min.}$$

The actual capacity will be from 60% to 95% of the theoretical, according to the tightness of the piston, valves, suction-pipe, etc.

Theoretical Horse-power required to raise Water to a certain Height.—Horse-power =

$$\frac{\text{Volume in cu. ft. per min.} \times \text{pressure per sq. ft.}}{33,000} = \frac{\text{Weight} \times \text{height of lift}}{33,000}.$$

Let Q' = cu. ft. per min.; G' = gals. per min.; W = wt. in lbs.; P = pressure in lbs. per sq. ft.; p = pressure in lbs. per sq. in.; H = height of lift in ft.; $W = 62.36Q'$, $P = 144p$, $p = .433H$, $H = 2.309p$, $G' = 7.4805Q'$.

$$\text{HP} = \frac{Q'P}{33,000} = \frac{Q'H \times 144 \times .433}{33,000} = \frac{Q'H}{529.2} = \frac{G'H}{3958.7};$$

$$\text{HP} = \frac{WH}{33,000} = \frac{Q' \times 62.36 \times 2.309p}{33,000} = \frac{Q'p}{229.2} = \frac{G'p}{1714.5}.$$

In the actual horse-power required an allowance must be made for the friction of the piston, slips, etc., of engine, pump, valves, and passages.

Depth of Suction.—Theoretically a perfect pump will draw from a height of nearly 34 feet, or the height corresponding to a vacuum (14.7 lbs. \times 2.309 = 33.95 feet); but since a perfect vacuum is obtained, on account of valve-leakage, air contained in the water, or of the water itself, the actual height is generally less than 34. When the water is warm the height to which it can be lifted by suction increases, on account of the increased pressure of the vapor. In pump water, therefore, the water must flow into the pump by gravity. The following table shows the theoretical maximum depth of suction for different temperatures, leakage not considered:

Temp. F.	Absolute Pressure of Vapor, lbs. per sq. in.	Vacuum in Inches of Mercury.	Max. Depth of Suction, feet.	Temp. F.	Absolute Pressure of Vapor, lbs. per sq. in.	Vacuum in Inches of Mercury.
101.4	1	27.88	31.8	183.0	8	13.63
126.2	2	25.85	29.3	188.4	9	11.59
144.7	3	23.81	27.0	193.2	10	9.55
153.3	4	21.77	24.7	197.6	11	7.51
162.5	5	19.74	22.4	201.9	12	5.48
170.3	6	17.70	20.1	205.8	13	3.44
177.0	7	15.66	17.8	209.6	14	1.40

Amount of Water raised by a Single-acting Lift-

—It is common to estimate that the quantity of water raised by a single-acting bucket-valve pump per minute is equal to the area of the piston in one direction per minute, multiplied by the volume raised by the piston in a single stroke, on the theory that the water rises in the cylinder only when the piston or bucket ascends; but the fact is that the water does not cease flowing when the bucket descends, but flows continuously through the valve in the bucket, so that the discharge of the pump, if it is operated at a high speed, may amount to nearly double that calculated from the displacement multiplied by the number of single strokes in one direction.

Proportioning the Steam-cylinder of a Direct-

Pump.—Let

A = area of steam-cylinder; a = area of pump-cylinder;
 D = diameter of steam-cylinder; d = diameter of pump-cylinder
 P = steam-pressure, lbs. per sq. in.; p = resistance per sq. in. on piston
 H = head = 2.309 p ; $p = .433H$;

E = efficiency of the pump = $\frac{\text{work done in pump-cylinder}}{\text{work done by the steam-cylinder}}$

$$A = \frac{ap}{EP}; \quad a = \frac{EAP}{p}; \quad D = d\sqrt{\frac{p}{EP}}; \quad d = D\sqrt{\frac{EP}{p}}; \quad P = \frac{ap}{EA}; \quad P = \frac{EAP}{a}$$

$$\frac{A}{a} = \frac{p}{EP} = \frac{.433H}{EP}; \quad H = 2.309EP \frac{A}{a}; \quad \text{If } E = 75\%, H = 1.782EP$$

E is commonly taken at 0.7 to 0.8 for ordinary direct-acting pumps. The highest class of pumping-engines it may amount to 0.9. The pressure P is the mean effective pressure, according to the indicator diagram; the water-pressure p is the mean total pressure acting on the plunger or piston, including the suction, as could be shown by an indicator diagram of the water-cylinder. The pressure on the pump-piston is frequently much greater than that due to the height of the lift, on account of the friction of the valves and passages, which increases rapidly with the velocity of flow.

Speed of Water through Pipes and Pump-passages

The speed of the water is commonly from 100 to 300 feet per minute; if a greater velocity is exceeded, the loss from friction may be considerable.

The diameter of pipe required is $4.95\sqrt{\frac{\text{gallons per minute}}{\text{velocity in feet per minute}}}$

per minute, diameter = $33 \times \sqrt{\frac{\text{gallons}}{\text{velocity}}}$

es of Direct-acting Pumps.—The two following tables are selected from catalogues of manufacturers, as representing the two common types of direct-acting pump, viz., the single-cylinder and the duplex. The types are now made by most of the leading manufacturers.

The Deane Direct-acting Pump.

STANDARD SIZES FOR ORDINARY SERVICE.

Diameter of Water-cylinder in In.	Length of Stroke, in In.	Gallons per Stroke.	Strokes per Minute.	Capacity per Minute at Given Speed.		Extreme Length in Inches.	Extreme Width in Inches.	Size of Steam Supply-pipe.	Size of Steam Exhaust-pipe.	Size of Suction.	Size of Discharge.
				Stks.	Gals.						
3½	5	.14	1 to 300	130	18	33	91	1½	2	2	2
4	5	.27	1 to 300	130	35	33	91	1½	2	2	2
4	7	.39	1 to 300	125	49	45½	15	1½	1	1	1
5	5	.51	1 to 275	125	64	45½	15	1½	1	1	1
5	7	.72	1 to 275	125	90	45½	15	1½	1	1	1
6	5	1.64	1 to 250	110	180	58	17	1	1	1	1
7	5	1.91	1 to 250	110	210	58	17	1	1	1	1
7	7	2.17	1 to 250	110	239	58	17	1	1	1	1
8	5	1.47	1 to 250	100	147	67	20½	1	1	1	1
8	7	2.00	1 to 250	100	200	67	20½	1	1	1	1
8	8	2.61	1 to 250	100	261	68	30	1	1	1	1
10	8	4.08	1 to 250	100	408	68	20½	1	1	1	1
10	8	2.61	1 to 250	100	261	68½	30	1	1	1	1
10	12	4.08	1 to 250	100	408	68½	30	1	1	1	1
10	12	5.87	1 to 250	100	587	68½	30	1	1	1	1
10	12	4.08	1 to 250	100	408	64	24	1	1	1	1
10	18	6.12	1 to 200	70	428	68½	30	1	1	1	1
12	12	5.87	1 to 250	100	587	64	24	1	1	1	1
12	18	8.80	1 to 175	70	616	88	28½	1	1	1	1
14	18	12.00	1 to 175	70	840	88	28½	1	1	1	1
20	12	4.08	1 to 250	100	408	69	30	1	1	1	1
20	18	6.12	1 to 175	70	428	93	25	1	1	1	1
20	24	8.16	1 to 150	50	408	112	26	1	1	1	1
22	12	5.87	1 to 250	100	587	69	30	1	1	1	1
22	18	8.80	1 to 175	70	616	88	28½	1	1	1	1
22	24	11.75	1 to 150	50	587	112	26	1	1	10	8
24	24	15.99	1 to 150	50	800	112	34	1	1	12	10
26	16	13.92	1 to 175	80	1114	84	34	1	1	12	10
26	24	20.88	1 to 150	50	1044	112	38	1	1	12	10
24	18	12.00	1 to 175	70	840	89	27	1	1	8	8
24	24	15.99	1 to 150	50	800	109	34	1	1	12	10
26	16	13.92	1 to 175	80	1114	85	34	1	1	12	10
26	24	20.88	1 to 150	50	1044	115	34	1	1	12	10
28	24	26.43	1 to 125	50	1322	115	40	2	2	14	12
26	24	20.88	1 to 125	50	1044	118	38	3	3	12	10
28	24	26.43	1 to 125	50	1322	118	40	3	3	14	12
20	24	32.64	1 to 125	50	1632	118	40	3	3	16	14
18	24	26.43	1 to 125	50	1322	118	40	3	3	14	12
20	24	32.64	1 to 125	50	1632	118	40	3	3	16	14
22	24	29.50	1 to 125	50	1975	130	40	3	3	18	14

Efficiency of Small Direct-acting Pumps.—Chas. E. Emery, in reports of Judges of Philadelphia Exhibition, 1876, Group xx., says: "Experiments made with steam-pumps at the American Institute Exhibition showed that average sized steam-pumps do not, on the average, utilize more than 50 per cent of the indicated power in the steam-cylinders, the remainder being absorbed in the friction of the engine, but more particularly in the passage of the water through the pump. Again, all ordinary pumps for miscellaneous uses require that the steam-cylinder be four times the area of the water-cylinder to give sufficient..."

when the steam is accidentally low; hence as such pumps usually against the atmospheric pressure, the net or effective pressure has small percentage of the total pressure, which, with the large radiating surface exposed and the total absence of expansion, makes expenditure of steam very large. One pump tested required 130 lbs weight of steam per indicated horse-power per hour, and it is believed the cost will rarely fall below 60 pounds; and as only 50 per cent of the indicated power is utilized, it may be safely stated that ordinary steam pumps rarely require less than 120 pounds of steam per hour for each horse-power utilized in raising water, equivalent to a duty of only 15,000,000 foot-pounds per 100 pounds of coal. With larger steam-pumps, particularly where they are proportioned for the work to be done, the duty will be materially increased."

The Worthington Duplex Pump.

STANDARD SIZES FOR ORDINARY SERVICE.

Diameter of Steam-cylinders.	Diameter of Water-plungers.	Length of Stroke.	Displacement in Gallons per Stroke of One Plunger.	Proper Strokes per Minute of One Plunger, varying with kind of work and pressure.	Gallons delivered per Minute by both Plungers at stated Number of Strokes.	Diameter of Plunger required in any single-cylinder pump to do the same work at same speed.	Sizes of Pipes to be increased length in case of increase		
							Steam-pipe.	Exhaust-pipe.	Suction-pipe.
3	2	3	.04	100 to 250	8 to 80	2 1/2	1 1/2	1 1/2	
4	4	4	.10	100 to 200	20 to 40	3 1/2	2 1/2	2 1/2	
5 1/2	3 1/2	5	.20	100 to 200	40 to 80	4 1/2	3 1/2	3 1/2	
6 3/4	4 1/2	6	.33	100 to 150	70 to 100	5 1/2	4 1/2	4 1/2	
7 1/2	4 1/2	6	.42	100 to 150	85 to 125	6 1/2	5 1/2	5 1/2	
7 3/4	5 1/2	6	.51	100 to 150	100 to 150	7 1/2	6 1/2	6 1/2	
8 1/2	5 1/2	10	.69	75 to 125	100 to 170	8 1/2	7 1/2	7 1/2	
9 1/2	5 1/2	10	.93	75 to 125	135 to 230	9 1/2	8 1/2	8 1/2	
10	6	10	1.22	75 to 125	180 to 300	10 1/2	9 1/2	9 1/2	
10	7	10	1.60	75 to 125	245 to 410	11 1/2	10 1/2	10 1/2	
12	7	10	1.60	75 to 125	245 to 410	12 1/2	11 1/2	11 1/2	
14	7	10	1.60	75 to 125	245 to 410	13 1/2	12 1/2	12 1/2	
12	8 1/2	10	2.45	75 to 125	365 to 610	14 1/2	13 1/2	13 1/2	
14	8 1/2	10	2.45	75 to 125	365 to 610	15 1/2	14 1/2	14 1/2	
16	8 1/2	10	2.45	75 to 125	365 to 610	16 1/2	15 1/2	15 1/2	
18 1/2	8 1/2	10	2.45	75 to 125	365 to 610	17 1/2	16 1/2	16 1/2	
20	8 1/2	10	2.45	75 to 125	365 to 610	18 1/2	17 1/2	17 1/2	
12	10 1/4	10	3.57	75 to 125	530 to 890	19 1/2	18 1/2	18 1/2	
14	10 1/4	10	3.57	75 to 125	530 to 890	20 1/2	19 1/2	19 1/2	
16	10 1/4	10	3.57	75 to 125	530 to 890	21 1/2	20 1/2	20 1/2	
18 1/2	10 1/4	10	3.57	75 to 125	530 to 890	22 1/2	21 1/2	21 1/2	
20	10 1/4	10	3.57	75 to 125	530 to 890	23 1/2	22 1/2	22 1/2	
14	12	10	4.89	75 to 125	730 to 1220	24 1/2	23 1/2	23 1/2	
16	12	10	4.89	75 to 125	730 to 1220	25 1/2	24 1/2	24 1/2	
18 1/2	12	10	4.89	75 to 125	730 to 1220	26 1/2	25 1/2	25 1/2	
20	12	10	4.89	75 to 125	730 to 1220	27 1/2	26 1/2	26 1/2	
18 1/2	14	10	6.60	75 to 125	990 to 1660	28 1/2	27 1/2	27 1/2	
20	14	10	6.60	75 to 125	990 to 1660	29 1/2	28 1/2	28 1/2	
17	10	15	5.10	50 to 100	510 to 1020	14	14	14	
20	12	15	7.34	50 to 100	730 to 1460	17	17	17	
20	15	15	11.47	50 to 100	1145 to 2290	21	21	21	
25	15	15	11.47	50 to 100	1145 to 2290	21	21	21	

Speed of Piston.—A piston speed of 100 feet per minute is commonly used as correct in practice, but for short-stroke pumps this gives too a speed of rotation, requiring too frequent a reversal of the valves. Long stroke pumps, 2 feet and upward, this speed may be considerably exceeded, if valves and passages are of ample area.

Number of Strokes required to Attain a Piston Speed from 50 to 125 Feet per Minute for Pumps having Strokes from 3 to 18 Inches in Length.

Piston Speed feet per min.	Length of Stroke in Inches.									
	3	4	5	6	7	8	10	12	15	18
	Number of Strokes per Minute.									
50	200	150	120	100	86	75	60	50	40	33
55	220	165	132	110	94	82.5	66	55	44	37
60	240	180	144	120	103	90	72	60	48	40
65	260	195	156	130	111	97.5	78	65	52	43
70	280	210	168	140	120	105	84	70	56	47
75	300	225	180	150	128	112.5	90	75	60	50
80	320	240	192	160	137	120	96	80	64	53
85	340	255	204	170	146	127.5	102	85	68	57
90	360	270	216	180	154	135	108	90	72	60
95	380	285	228	190	163	142.5	114	95	76	63
100	400	300	240	200	171	150	120	100	80	67
105	420	315	252	210	180	157.5	126	105	84	70
110	440	330	264	220	188	165	132	110	88	73
115	460	345	276	230	197	172.5	138	115	92	77
120	480	360	288	240	206	180	144	120	96	80
125	500	375	300	250	214	187.5	150	125	100	83

Piston Speed of Pumping-engines. (John Birkinbine, Trans. C. M. E., v. 459.)—In dealing with such a ponderous and unyielding substance as water there are many difficulties to overcome in making a pump work with a high piston speed. The attainment of moderately high speed is, however, easily accomplished. Well-proportioned pumping-engines of large capacity, provided with ample water-ways and properly constructed valves, are operated successfully against heavy pressures at a speed of 250 ft. per minute, without "thug," concussion, or injury to the apparatus, and there is no doubt that the speed can be still further increased.

Speed of Water through Valves.—If areas through valves and water passages are sufficient to give a velocity of 250 ft. per min. or less, they are ample. The water should be carefully guided and not too abruptly deflected. (F. W. Dean, *Eng. News*, Aug. 10, 1893.)

Boiler-fed Pumps.—Practice has shown that 100 ft. of piston speed per minute is the limit, if excessive wear and tear is to be avoided.

The velocity of water through the suction-pipe must not exceed 200 ft. per minute, else the resistance of the suction is too great.

The approximate size of suction-pipe, where the length does not exceed 10 ft. and there are not more than two elbows, may be found as follows:

$\frac{1}{10}$ of the diameter of the cylinder multiplied by 1/100 of the piston speed in feet. For duplex pumps of small size, a pipe one size larger is usually employed.

The velocity of flow in the discharge-pipe should not exceed 200 ft. per minute. The volume of discharge and length of pipe vary so greatly in different installations that where the water is to be forced more than 50 ft. the size of discharge-pipe should be calculated for the particular conditions, allowing no greater velocity than 500 ft. per minute. The size of discharge-pipe is calculated in single-cylinder pumps from 250 to 400 ft. per minute. Greater velocity is permitted in the larger pipes.

In determining the proper size of pump for a steam-boiler, allowances must be made for a supply of water sufficient to cover all the demands of engines, steam-heating, etc., up to the capacity of generator, and should not be calculated simply according to the requirements of the engine. In practice, engines use all the way from 12 up to 50, or more, pounds of steam per H.P. per hour when being worked up to capacity. When an engine is overloaded or underloaded more water per H.P. will be required than when operating at its rated capacity. The average run of horizontal

boilers will evaporate from 2 to 3 lbs. of water per sq. ft. of heating-surface per hour, but may be driven up to 6 lbs. if the grate-surface is too large and the draught too great for economical working.

Pump-Valves.—A. F. Nagle (Trans. A. S. M. E., x. 521) gives a number of designs with dimensions of double-beat or Cornish valves used in steam pumping-engines, with a discussion of the theory of their proportions. The following is a summary of the proportions of the valves described.

SUMMARY OF VALVE PROPORTIONS.

Location of Engine,	Diam. of Valve in inches,	Weight in Water per square inch of Inside Unbalanced Area, in lbs.,	Ratio of Seat-area to Inside Unbalanced Area.	Pressure upon Seat per sq. in., in lbs.,	Action.
Providence high-service engine	12	1 lb. reduced to .66 lb.	16%	377 lbs.	Good
Providence Cornish-engine.....	16	1.28	12	680	Good
St. Louis Water Wks.	16	1.86	67	250	Some noise
Milwaukee " "	7	.40	88	120	Some noise high speed
Chicago " "	25	1.41	75	151	Noisy
" " "	15	1.31	85	140	"
wood seats.....	15	1.16	94	132	"
Chicago Water Wks.	8	.96	75	151	"

Mr. Nagle says: There is one feature in which the Cornish valves necessarily defective, namely, the lift must always be quite large, unless power is sacrificed to reduce it. It is undeniable that a small lift is preferable to a great one, and hence it naturally leads to the substitution of numerous small valves for one or several large ones. To what extent reduction of size this view might safely lead must be left to the judgment of the engineer for the particular case in hand, but certainly, theoretically must adopt small valves. Mr. Corliss at one time carried the theory far as to make them only $1\frac{3}{4}$ inches in diameter, but from 3 to 4 inches the more common practice now. A small valve presents proportionately larger surface of discharge with the same lift than a larger valve, so whatever the total area of valve-seat opening, its full contents can be charged with less lift through numerous small valves than with one large one.

Henry R. Worthington was the first to use numerous small rubber valves in preference to the larger metal valves. These valves work well under the conditions of a city pumping-engine. A volute spring is generally used to limit the rise of the valve.

In the Leavitt high-duty sewerage-engine at Boston (*Am. Machinist*, 31, 1884), the valves are of rubber, $\frac{3}{4}$ -inch thick, the opening in valve being $1\frac{3}{4} \times 4\frac{1}{2}$ inches. The valves have iron face and back-plates, and form their own hinges.

CENTRIFUGAL PUMPS.

Relation of Height of Lift to Velocity.—The height of lift depends only on the tangential velocity of the circumference, every tangential velocity giving a constant height of lift—sometimes termed "head" whether the pump is small or large. The quantity of water discharged is proportion to the area of the discharging orifices at the circumference, and proportion to the square of the diameter, when the breadth is kept the same. R. H. Buel (*App. Cyc. Mech.*, ii, 606) gives the following:

Let Q represent the quantity of water, in cubic feet, to be pumped in one minute, h the height of suction in feet, h' the height of discharge in feet, d the diameter of suction-pipe, equal to the diameter of discharge-pipe

According to Fink, $d = 0.36 \sqrt{\frac{Q}{\sqrt{2g(h+h')}}}$, g being the acceleration to gravity.

tion takes place on one side of the wheel, the inside diameter of the wheel is equal to $1.3d$, and the outside to $2.4d$. If the suction takes place on the other side of the wheel, the inside diameter of the wheel is equal to $0.85d$, and the outside to $1.7d$. Then the suction-pipe will have two branches, the inside diameter of each equal to half the area of d . The suction-pipe should be as short as possible to prevent air from entering the pump. The tangential velocity at the outer edge of wheel for the delivery Q is equal to $1.25 \sqrt{2g(h+h')}$ per second.

There are six in number, constructed as follows: Divide the central shaft into six parts, which incloses the outer edges of the two arms, into any number of equal parts by dividing the radii, and divide the breadth of the wheel into the same number of equal parts in the same manner by drawing concentric circles. The intersections of the lines drawn with the corresponding circles give points of the arms.

Experiments with Appold's pump, a velocity of circumference of 500 ft. per min. raised the water 1 ft. high, and maintained it at that level without discharging any; and double the velocity raised the water to four feet high, as the centrifugal force was proportionate to the square of the velocity; consequently,

500 ft. per min. raised the water 1 ft. without discharge.

1000 " " " " " 4 " " "

1500 " " " " " 16 " " "

2250 " " " " " 64 " " "

Experiments with the 1-ft. pump, had been raised without discharge, to a height of 67.7 ft., with a velocity of 4153 ft. per min., being rather less than the calculated height, owing probably to the greater pressure. A velocity of 1128 ft. per min. raised the water 1 ft. without any discharge, and the maximum effect from the pump was obtained in raising to the same height $5\frac{1}{2}$ ft., was obtained at the velocity of 1678 ft. per min., giving a discharge of 1400 gals. per min. from the pump. The additional velocity required to effect a discharge of 1000 gals. per min., through a 1-ft. pump working at a dead level without any discharge, is 550 ft. per min. Consequently, adding this number in each case to the velocity given above, at which no discharge takes place, the velocities are obtained for the maximum effect to be produced in

1050 ft. per min., velocity for 1 ft. height of lift.

1550 " " " " " 4 " " "

2550 " " " " " 16 " " "

4550 " " " " " 64 " " "

In general terms, the velocity in feet per minute for the circumference of the wheel, to raise the water to a certain height, is equal to $1.25 \sqrt{2g(h+h')}$ per second.

Table of Centrifugal Pumps, Class B—For Lifts from 15 to 35 ft.

Size of Pipes.		Economical Capacity, in gallons per min.	Total Capacity, in gallons per min.	Horse-power per Ft. Lift, for smaller quantity.
Suction.	Discharge.			
2 in.	1½ in.	20 to 50	150	.024
2½ in.	2	60 to 80	300	.035
3 in.	3	80 to 160	650	.055
4 in.	4	160 to 350	1,250	.075
6	5	350 to 600	1,850	.175
6	6	500 to 900	2,600	.22
8	8	1,100 to 2,000	4,750	.45
10	10	1,600 to 3,000	7,500	.62
12	12	2,000 to 3,000	10,000	1.00
14	14	3,000 to 5,000	14,000	1.35
15	15	3,500 to 7,000	16,000	1.40
18	18	6,000 to 11,000	22,000	2.40

Table of Diameters and Width of Pulleys, Width of and Number of Revolutions per Minute Necessary to Raise Minimum Quantity of Water to Different Heights with Different Sizes of Pumps of Class B.

Size.	Diameter of Pulley.	Width of Pump.	Width of Belt.	Minimum Quantity of Water.	Height in Feet and Revolutions per Minute.									
					6	8	10	12	16	20	25	30		
Ins.	Ins.	Ins.	Ins.											
1½	5	5	3	40	465	515	560	605	680	745	820	880		
2	5	5	4	60	425	475	515	560	625	680	750	810		
3	7½	7	6	80	390	435	475	510	575	630	695	750		
4	11	7	7	160	365	405	445	475	535	590	645	700		
5	12	11	8	330	320	355	390	415	470	520	570	610		
6	14	11	9	500	285	315	345	370	415	460	500	540		
8	16	12	10	1100	215	240	260	280	310	340	375	410		
10	18	12	10	1600	170	190	210	225	250	275	300	325		
12	22	14	12	2000	150	165	185	195	220	240	265	285		
14	24	14	12	3000	135	150	165	175	195	215	240	260		
15	28	15	14	3500	135	145	155	165	190	210	230	245		
18	28	16	14	6000	110	120	130	135	160	175	190	205		

Efficiencies of Centrifugal and Reciprocating Pumps. W. O. Webber (Trans. A. S. M. E., vii, 598) gives diagrams showing relative efficiencies of centrifugal and reciprocating pumps, from the following figures are taken for the different lifts stated:

Lift, feet:	2	5	10	15	20	25	30	35	40	50	60	80	100	120	160	200
Efficiency reciprocating pump:	.30	.45	.55	.61	.66	.68	.71	.75	.77	.82	.85	.87	.90	.90	.90	.90
Efficiency centrifugal pump:	.50	.56	.64	.68	.69	.68	.66	.62	.58	.50	.40

The term efficiency here used indicates the value of W. H. P. of or horse-power of the water raised divided by the indicated horse-power of the steam-engine, and does not therefore show the full efficiency of the pump but that of the combined pump and engine. It is, however, a very good way of showing the relative values of different kinds of pumping having their motive power forming a part of the plant.

The highest value of this term, given by Mr. Webber, is .9164 for 170 ft., and 3615 gals. per min. This was obtained in a test of the pumping-engine at Lawrence, Mass., July 24, 1879.

With reciprocating pumps, for higher lifts than 170 ft., the curve efficiency falls, and from 200 to 300 ft. lift the average value seen is .84. Below 170 ft. the curve also falls reversely and slowly, until at 40 ft. its descent becomes more rapid, and at 35 ft. .727 appears, a record performance. There are not any very satisfactory records for this lift, but some figures are given for the yearly coal consumption of the pumps, and the total number of gallons pumped by engines in Holland under a lift of 44 has been deduced.

With centrifugal pumps, the lift at which the maximum efficiency is attained is approximately 17 ft. At lifts from 12 to 18 ft. some of the large experience claim now to obtain from 65% to 70% of useful effect. At 613 appears to be the best done at a public test under 14.7 ft. head.

The drainage-pumps constructed some years ago for the Haarlem were designed to lift 70 tons per min. 15 ft., and they weighed 100 tons. Centrifugal pumps for the same work weigh only 5 tons. The efficiency of a centrifugal pump and engine to lift 10,000 gals. per min. 35 ft. lift is .6 tons.

The pumps placed by Gwynne at the Ferrara Marshes, Northern Italy, 1865, are, it is believed, capable of handling more water than any other pumps of their class in existence. The work performed by these pumps is to lift 3,000 tons per min.—over 600,000,000 gals. per 24 hours—on a lift of about 10 ft. (the head is 12.5 ft.). (See Engineering, 1865, p. 100.) The efficiency of these pumps seems to increase as the lift

es, approximately as follows: A 2" pump (this designation meaning the size of discharge-outlet in inches of diameter), giving an efficiency of 35%, a 3" pump 45%, and a 4" pump 52%, a 5" pump 60%, and a 6" pump 65% efficiency.

Tests of Centrifugal Pumps.

W. O. Webber, Trans. A. S. M. E., ix, 237.

Maker.	Andrews.	Andrews.	Andrews.	Heald & Sisco.	Heald & Sisco.	Heald & Sisco.	Berlin Schwartzkopf.
	No. 9.	No. 9.	No. 9.	No. 10.	No. 10.	No. 10.	No. 9.
Discharge.	9 1/2"	9 1/2"	9 1/2"	10"	10"	10"	9 1/4"
Suction ..	9 5/8"	9 5/8"	9 5/8"	12"	12"	12"	10 3/8"
Disk	26 1/2"	26 7/8"	26 7/8"	30.5"	30.5"	30.5"	20.5"
per minute.	191.9	195.5	200.5	188.3	203.7	213.7	500
per minute	1513.12	2023.82	2499.33	1673.37	2044.9	2371.67	1944.8
in feet....	12.25	12.62	13.08	12.33	12.58	13.0	16.46
H.P.	4.69	6.47	8.28	5.22	6.51	7.81
meter H.P.	10.09	12.2	14.38	8.11	10.74	14.02	11
Efficiency.....	46.52	53.0	57.57	64.5	60.74	55.72	73.1

Tests of Centrifugal Pumps.—For forms of pump vanes, see by W. O. Webber, Trans. A. S. M. E., ix, 238, and discussion thereon by J. Thurston, Wood, and others.

Centrifugal Pump used as a Suction Dredge.—The centrifugal pump was used by Gen. Gillmore, U. S. A., in 1871, in dredging the channel over the bar at the mouth of the St. John's River, N. H. The pump was a No. 9, with suction and discharge pipes each 9 inches diam. It was driven at 300 revolutions per minute by belt from an engine developing 26 useful horse-power.

At 200 revolutions of the pump disk per minute will easily raise 2500 gallons of clear water 12 ft. high, through a straight vertical 9-inch pipe. At 300 revolutions were required to raise 2500 gallons of sand and water 12 ft. high, through two inclined suction-pipes having two turns each, discharging through a pipe having one turn.

The proportion of sand that can be pumped depends greatly upon its specific gravity and fineness. The calcareous and argillaceous sands flow more freely than the silicious, and fine sands are less liable to choke the pump than those that are coarse. When working at high speed, 50% to 55% of the sand can be raised through a straight vertical pipe, giving for every 10 cubic feet of material discharged 5 to 5 1/2 cubic yards of compact sand. With appliances used on the St. John's bar, the proportion of sand seldom exceeded 45%, generally ranging from 30% to 35% when working under the most favorable conditions.

At 300 revolutions, pumping 2500 gallons, or 12.6 cubic yards of sand and water per minute, would therefore be obtained from 3.7 to 4.3 cubic yards of sand. During the early stages of the work, before the teeth under the drag had been properly arranged to aid the flow of sand into the pipes, the yield was considerably below this average. (From catalogue of Jos. Edwards & Co., New York, of the Andrews Pump, New York.)

DUTY TRIALS OF PUMPING-ENGINES.

A committee of the A. S. M. E. (Trans., xii, 530) reported in 1891 on a new method of conducting duty trials. Instead of the old unit of 1000 foot-pounds of work per 100 lbs. of coal used, the committee recommended a new unit, foot-pounds of work per million heat-units furnished by the boiler. The variations in quality of coal make the old standard unit as unreliable as duty ratings. The new unit is the precise equivalent of 100 lbs. of coal in cases where each pound of coal imparts 10,000 heat-units to the water in the boiler, or where the evaporation is 10,000 ÷ 965.7 = 10.355 lbs. of steam from and at 212° per pound of fuel. This evaporative result is readily obtained from all grades of Cumberland bituminous coal, used in the best tubular boilers, and, in many cases, from the best grades of anthracite coal.

FEED-WATER.

16. Weight of water supplied to boiler by main feed-pump..... lbs
 17. Weight of water supplied to boiler from various other sources..... lbs
 18. Total weight of feed-water supplied from all sources..... lbs

PRESSURES.

19. Boiler pressure indicated by gauge..... lbs
 20. Pressure indicated by gauge on force main..... lbs
 21. Vacuum indicated by gauge on suction main..... ins
 22. Pressure corresponding to vacuum given in preceding line..... lbs
 23. Vertical distance between the centres of the two gauges..... ins
 24. Pressure equivalent to distance between the two gauges..... lbs

MISCELLANEOUS DATA.

25. Duration of trial..... hrs
 26. Total number of single strokes during trial.....
 27. Percentage of moisture in steam supplied to engine, or number of degrees of superheating..... % or
 28. Total leakage of pump during trial, determined from results of leakage test..... lbs
 29. Mean effective pressure, measured from diagrams taken from steam-cylinders..... M.E.

PRINCIPAL RESULTS.

30. Duty..... ft.
 31. Percentage of leakage..... %
 32. Capacity..... gals
 33. Percentage of total friction..... %

ADDITIONAL RESULTS.

34. Number of double strokes of steam-piston per minute.....
 35. Indicated horse-power developed by the various steam-cylinders..... I.H.P.
 36. Feed-water consumed by the plant per hour..... lbs.
 37. Feed-water consumed by the plant per indicated horse-power per hour, corrected for moisture in steam..... lbs.
 38. Number of heat units consumed per indicated horse-power per hour..... B.T.U.
 39. Number of heat units consumed per indicated horse-power per minute..... B.T.U.
 40. Steam accounted for by indicator at cut-off and release in the various steam-cylinders..... lbs
 41. Proportion which steam accounted for by indicator bears to the feed-water consumption.....
 42. Number of double strokes of pump per minute.....
 43. Mean effective pressure, measured from pump diagrams..... M.E.P.
 44. Indicated horse-power exerted in pump-cylinders..... I.H.P.
 45. Work done (or duty) per 100 lbs. of coal..... ft. lb

SAMPLE DIAGRAM TAKEN FROM STEAM-CYLINDERS.

(Also, if possible, full measurement of the diagrams, embracing pressure at the initial point, cut-off, release, and compression; also back pressure and the proportions of the stroke completed at the various points noted.)

SAMPLE DIAGRAM TAKEN FROM PUMP-CYLINDERS.

These are not necessary to the main object, but it is desirable to have them.

DATA AND RESULTS OF BOILER TEST.

(In accordance with the scheme recommended by the Boiler-test Committee of the Society.)

VACUUM PUMPS—AIR-LIFT PUMP.

The Pulsometer.—In the pulsometer the water is raised by suction into the pump-chamber by the condensation of steam within it, and is forced into the delivery-pipe by the pressure of a new quantity of steam on the surface of the water. Two chambers are used which work alternately one raising while the other is discharging.

Test of a Pulsometer.—A test of a pulsometer is described by Dr. W. Wood in Trans. A. S. M. E., vol. 1. It had a 3½-inch suction-pipe, stood 4 feet high, and weighed 100 lbs. The steam-pipe was 1½ inches in diameter. A throttle was placed about

and pressure gauges placed on both sides of the throttle, well and thermometer placed beyond the throttle. The wire throttling caused superheating. The weight of steam used were computed from the increase of the temperature of water in passing through the pump.

$m \times$ loss of heat = lbs. of water sucked in \times increase of temperature in a pound of steam is the total heat in a pound of saturated steam found from "steam tables" for the given pressure, plus the superheating, minus the temperature of the discharged water; or

$$\text{pounds of steam} = \frac{\text{lbs. water} \times \text{increase of temp.}}{H - 0.48t - T}$$

For the four tests are given in the following table:

and Results.	Number of Test.			
	1	2	3	4
Time	71	60	57	64
Delivery pipe before throttling	114	110	127	104.3
Delivery pipe after throttling	19	30	43.8	26.1
Temperature after throttling, deg. F.	270.4	277	309.0	270.1
Temperature of superheat, g. deg. F.	3.1	3.4	17.4	1.4
Temperature deducted from temp., lbs.	1617	931	1518	1019.9
Weight of steam, d. lbs.	404.786	186.362	228.425	248.053
Weight of water before entering pump, lbs.	75.15	80.6	76.3	70.25
Weight of water rise of	4.47	5.5	7.49	4.55
Height of suction gauge on lift, ft.	29.90	54.05	54.05	29.90
Height of suction gauge on suction, ft.	12.26	12.26	19.67	19.67
Height of suction gauge, total (H), ft.	42.16	66.31	73.72	49.57
Weight of water measure, total (h)	32.8	57.80	66.6	41.60
Efficiency of plant (h) + (H)	0.777	0.877	0.911	0.839
Efficiency of pulsometer	0.012	0.0155	0.0126	0.0138
Efficiency exclusive of boiler	0.0093	0.0136	0.0115	0.0116
Efficiency if that of boiler be 0.7	0.0065	0.0095	0.0080	0.0081
Weight of water evaporates 10 lbs. water	10,511,400	13,391,000	11,059,000	12,036,300

Tests having the highest lift (54.05 ft.), that was more efficient than the smaller suction (12.26 ft.), and this was also the most efficient test. But, on the other hand, the other two tests having the highest lift (73.72 ft.), that was the more efficient which had the greater suction. No law in this regard was established. The pressures used, 1, 2, 3, follow the order of magnitude of the total heads, but are not proportional thereto. No attempt was made to determine what pressure would give the best efficiency for any particular head. The pressure used in the first test was a practical runner, and he judged that when the pump was running well, the pressure then existing was the proper one. In the first test, a pressure of 19 lbs. of steam should produce the same number of strokes and pump over 50% more water than 26.1 lbs. of steam, as in the fourth experiment.

In a very interesting discussion Prof. Wood's paper says, referring to the work of himself and others at the Centennial Exhibition in 1876 (see the report of the Judges, Group xx.), that a vacuum-pump tested by him in 1876, gave a maximum duty of 4.7 millions; one tested by J. F. Flagg, at the Cincinnati Exhibition in 1875, gave a maximum duty of 3.25 millions. Several vacuum-pumps, compared later on the same basis, were reported to have a duty of 10 to 11 millions, the steam-pumps doing no better than the vacuum-pumps. Injectors, when used for lifting water not reheated, have an efficiency of 2 to 5 millions; vacuum-pumps between 3 and 10; small steam-pumps between 8 and 15; large steam-pumps, between 15 and 30, and pumping-engines between 30 and 100 millions.

The best record of test of a pulsometer is given in *Eng'g*, Nov. 24, 1877. Height of suction 11.27 ft.; total height of lift, 102.6 ft.; height of delivery-pipe, 118 ft.; quantity delivered per hour, 1,000,000 lbs. Weight of steam used per H. P. per hour, 92.76 lbs.

done per pound of steam 21,345 foot-pounds, equal to a duty of 100 lbs. of coal, if 10 lbs. of steam were generated per pound of coal.

The Jet-pump.—This machine works by means of the tendency of a stream or jet of fluid to drive or carry contiguous particles of fluid with it. The water-jet pump, in its present form, was invented by James Thomson, and first described in 1852. In some experiments it was found to be of a small scale as to the efficiency of the jet-pump, the greatest efficiency found to take place when the depth from which the water was drawn by the suction-pipe was about nine tenths of the height from which the water was to form the jet; the flow up the suction-pipe being in that case about one-fifth of that of the jet, and the efficiency, consequently, $9/10 \times 1/5$. This is but a low efficiency; but it is probable that it may be improved by improvements in proportions of the machine. (Rankine, S. E.)

The Injector when used as a pump has a very low efficiency. (Rankine, under Steam-boilers.)

Air-lift Pump.—The air-lift pump consists of a vertical well with its lower end submerged in a well, and a smaller pipe delivered into it at the bottom. The rising column in the pipe consists of air and water, the air being in bubbles of various sizes, and is therefore lighter than a column of water of the same height; consequently the water in the pipe is raised above the level of the surrounding water. This method of raising water was proposed as early as 1797, by Loescher, of Frelshausen; it was mentioned by Collin in lectures in Paris in 1876, but its first practical application probably was by Werner Siemens in Berlin in 1885. Pöhle experimented on the principle in California in 1886, and U. S. Patents on apparatus involving it were granted to Pöhle and Hill in 1887. A paper describing tests of the air-lift pump made by Randall, Beckwith, and Behr was read before the Technical Society of the Pacific Coast in 1891.

The diameter of the pump-column was 3 in., of the air-pipe 0.9 in., of the air-discharge nozzle $5/8$ in. The air-pipe had four sharp bends, and a total length of 35 ft. plus the depth of submerison.

The water was pumped from a closed pipe-well (55 ft. deep and 12 in. diameter). The efficiency of the pump was based on the least work theoretically required to compress the air and deliver it to the receiver. The efficiency of the compressor was taken at 70%, the efficiency of the pump and compressor together would be 70% of the efficiency found for the pump alone.

For a given submerison (h) and lift (H), the ratio of the two be within reasonable limits, (H) being not much greater than (h), the efficiency was greatest when the pressure in the receiver did not greatly exceed head due to the submerison. The smaller the ratio $H \div h$, the higher the efficiency.

The pump, as erected, showed the following efficiencies:

For $H + h =$	0.5	1.0	1.5	2.0
Efficiency =	50%	40%	30%	25%

The fact that there are absolutely no moving parts makes it especially fitted for handling dirty or gritty water, sewage, milk, and acid or alkali solutions in chemical or metallurgical works.

In Newark, N. J., pumps of this type are at work having a total capacity of 1,000,000 gallons daily, lifting water from three 8-in. artesian wells. The Newark Chemical Works use an air-lift pump to raise sulphuric acid from a well. The Colorado Central Consolidated Mining Co., in one of its mines at Georgetown, Colo., lifts water in one case 250 ft., using a series of air-lift pumps.

For a full account of the theory of the pump, and details of its construction, see *Eng'g News*, June 8, 1893.

THE HYDRAULIC RAM.

Efficiency.—The hydraulic ram is used where a considerable fall of water with a moderate fall is available, to raise a small portion of it to a height exceeding that of the fall. The following are rules given by Eytelwein as the results of his experiments (from Rankine):

Let Q be the whole supply of water in cubic feet per second, of which q is lifted to the height h above the pond, and $Q - q$ runs to waste at the height H below the pond; L , the length of the supply-pipe, from the pond to the waste-clack; D , its diameter in feet; then

$$D = \sqrt{1.63Q}; \quad L = H + h + \frac{h}{H} \times 2 \text{ feet};$$

Volume of air vessel = volume of feed pipe;

$$\frac{qh}{(Q-q)H} = 1.12 - 0.2 \sqrt{\frac{h}{H}} \text{ when } \frac{h}{H} \text{ does not exceed } 20.$$

$$\left(1 + \frac{h}{10H}\right) \text{ nearly, when } \frac{h}{H} \text{ does not exceed } 12.$$

$$\text{gives } \frac{q(H+h)}{QH} = 1.42 - .28 \sqrt{\frac{h}{H}}$$

five sixths of the values given by D'Auluisson's formula
ft to fall. 4 6 8 10 12 14 16 18 20 22 24 26
per cent. 72 61 52 44 37 31 25 19 14 9 4 0

carpenter (*Eng'g Mechanics*, 1894) reports the results of four
constructed by Ramsey & Co., Seneca Falls. The ram was
connection for 1 1/4-inch supply and 1/2-inch discharge. The
ed was 1 1/4 inches in diameter, about 50 feet long, with 3-elbows,
equivalent to about 65 feet of straight pipe, so far as resist-
ned. Each run was made with a different stroke for the waste
the supply and delivery head being constant; the object of
t was to find that stroke of check-valve which would give the
icy.

Stroke, per cent.	100	80	60	46
Strokes per minute.	52	56	61	66
Feet of water.	5.67	5.77	5.88	5.65
Feet of water.	19.75	19.75	19.75	19.75
Imped, pounds.	297	296	301	297.5
Applied, pounds.	1615	1567	1518	1455.5
Per cent.	64.9	66	74.9	70

74.9, the highest realized, was obtained when the check-valve
stroke equal to 60% of its full stroke, the full travel being 15/16

of Water Delivered by the Hydraulic Ram.
ad Works.)—From 80 to 100 feet conveyance, one seventh of
spring can be discharged at an elevation five times as high as
ply the ram; or, one fourteenth can be raised and discharged
as high as the fall applied.
is conveyed by a ram 3000 feet, and elevated 300 feet. The
ram 25 to 50 feet long.
table gives the capacity of several sizes of rams, the dimen-
sions to be used, and the size of the spring or brook to which
it is adapted.

Capacity of Water Discharged per Minute by the Spring Brook to which the Ram is Adapted.	Caliber of Pipes.		Weight of Pipe (Lead), if Wrought Iron, then of Ordinary Weight.		
	Drive.	Discharge.	Drive-pipe for head or fall not over 10 ft.	Discharge- pipe for not over 50 ft. rise.	Discharge- pipe for over 50 ft. and not ex- ceeding 100 ft. in height.
1/2 to 2	3/4	3/8	per foot.	per foot.	per foot.
3/4 " 2	1	1/2	2 lbs.	10 ozs.	1 lb.
1 " 4	1 1/4	3/4	3 "	12 "	1 " 4 ozs.
1 1/2 " 7	2	1	5 "	12 "	1 " 4 ozs.
2 " 14	2 1/2	1 1/4	8 "	1 lb. 4 "	2 "
3 " 25	3 1/2	1 3/4	13 "	2 "	3 "
4 " 40	4 1/2	2	13 "	3 "	4 "
5 " 75	5 1/2	2 1/2	21 "	7 "	8 "

HYDRAULIC-PRESSURE TRANSMISSION.

Water under high pressure (700 to 3000 lbs. per square inch and up) affords a very satisfactory method of transmitting power to a distance, especially for the movement of heavy loads at small velocities, as in mines and elevators. The system consists usually of one or more pumps for developing the required pressure; accumulators, which are vertical cylinders with heavily-weighted plungers passing through stuffing-boxes at the upper end, by which a quantity of water may be accumulated at the pressure to which the plunger is weighted; the distributing-pipes; and the cranes, or other machinery to be operated.

The earliest important use of hydraulic pressure probably was Bramah hydraulic press, patented in 1796. Sir W. G. Armstrong is one of the pioneers in the adaptation of the hydraulic system to cranes. The use of the accumulator by Armstrong led to the extended use of hydraulic machinery. Recent developments and applications of the system are due to Ralph Tweddell, of London, and Sir Joseph Whitworth. Sir Joseph Bessemer, in his patent of May 13, 1856, No. 1292, first suggested the use of hydraulic pressure for compressing steel ingots while in the fluid state.

The Gross Amount of Energy of the water under pressure in the accumulator, measured in foot-pounds, is its volume in cubic feet multiplied by its pressure in pounds per square foot. The horse-power of a given quantity of water steadily flowing is $H.P. = \frac{144pQ}{550} = .2618pQ$, in which Q is the quantity in cubic feet per second and p the pressure in pounds per square foot.

The loss of energy due to velocity of flow in the pipe is calculated as follows (R. G. Blaine, *Eng'g*, May 22 and June 5, 1891):

According to D'Arcy, every pound of water loses $\frac{\lambda LV}{D}$ times its energy, or energy due to its velocity, in passing along a straight pipe in length L and D feet diameter, where λ is a variable coefficient. For cast-iron pipes it may be taken as $\lambda = .005 \left(1 + \frac{1}{12D}\right)$, or for diameters in inches = d .

$d = \frac{1}{4}$	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
$\lambda = .015$.01	.0075	.00667	.00625	.006	.00583	.00571	.00563	.00556	.0055

The loss of energy per minute is $60 \times 62.36Q \times \frac{\lambda LV}{D}$, and the power wasted in the pipe is $W = \frac{.6363\lambda L(H.P.)^2}{p^2 D^5}$, in which λ varies as diameter as above. p = pressure at entrance in pounds per square inch. Values of $.6363\lambda$ for different diameters of pipe in inches are:

$d = \frac{1}{4}$	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
	.0054	.0036	.00477	.00421	.00398	.00382	.00371	.00363	.00358	.00353

Efficiency of Hydraulic Apparatus.—The useful effect of a direct hydraulic plunger or ram is usually taken at 93%. The value given as the efficiency of a ram with chain-and-pulley multiplying gear, properly proportioned and well lubricated:

Multiplying....	2 to 1	4 to 1	6 to 1	8 to 1	10 to 1	12 to 1	14 to 1
Efficiency %....	80	76	72	67	63	59	54

With large sheaves, small steel pins, and wire rope for multiplying gear, the efficiency has been found as high as 66% for a multiplication of 20.

Henry Adams gives the following formula for effective pressure in hydraulic cranes and hoists:

F = accumulator pressure in pounds per square inch;

m = ratio of multiplying power;

E = effective pressure in pounds per square inch, including all losses due to friction;

$$E = F(.84 - .02m).$$

J. E. Tuit (*Eng'g*, June 15, 1888) describes some experiments on the friction of hydraulic jacks from $3\frac{1}{4}$ to 13 $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch diameter, fitted with leather packings. The friction loss varied from 5% to 18.8% according to the condition of the leather, the distribution of the load on the ram. The friction increased considerably with eccentric loads. With heavy loads a plunger, 14 inch diameter, showed a friction loss of from 12.4% to 15.0% with concentric loads, and from 15.0% to 7.5% with eccentric loads. In both cases with increase of load, the percentage of loss decreased.

Thickness of Hydraulic Cylinders.—From a table used by Sir Armstrong we take the following, for cast-iron cylinders, for an in-

pressure of 1000 lbs. per square inch:

of cylinder, inches..	2	4	6	8	10	12	16	20	24
ess, inches.....	0.832	1.146	1.552	1.875	2.222	2.578	3.19	3.89	4.11

Any other pressure multiply by the ratio of that pressure to 1000. Figures correspond nearly to the formula $t = 0.175d + 0.48$, in which t = thickness and d = diameter in inches, up to 16 inches diameter, but for 8 inches diameter the addition 0.48 is reduced to 0.19 and at 24 inches it is 0.

For formulae for thick cylinders see page 287, *note*. Iron should not be used for pressures exceeding 2000 lbs. per square foot. For higher pressures steel castings or forged steel should be used. Working pressures of 750 lbs. per square inch the test pressure should be 1000 lbs. per square inch, and for 1500 lbs. the test pressure should not be less than 2000 lbs.

Speed of Hoisting by Hydraulic Pressure.—The maximum hoisting speed for warehouse cranes is 6 feet per second; for platform cranes 4 feet per second; for passenger and wagon hoists, heavy loads, 2 feet per second. The maximum speed under any circumstances should not exceed 10 feet per second.

Speed of Water Through Valves should never be greater than 10 feet per second.

Speed of Water Through Pipes.—Experiments on water at 1600 lbs. pressure per square inch flowing into a flanging-machine ram, 20-inch diameter, through a $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch pipe contracted at one point to $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch, gave a velocity of 114 feet per second in the pipe, and 456 feet at the reduced section. Through a $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch pipe reduced to $\frac{3}{16}$ -inch at one point the velocity was 3 feet per second in the pipe and 381 feet at the reduced section. In a pipe without contraction the velocity was 355 feet per second.

For many of the above notes the author is indebted to Mr. John Platt, Consulting Engineer, of New York.

High-pressure Hydraulic Presses in Iron-works are described by R. M. Daelen, of Germany, in *Trans. A. I. M. E.* 1892. The following distinct arrangements used in different systems of high-pressure hydraulic work are discussed and illustrated:

- 1. Steam-pump, with fly-wheel and accumulator.
- 2. Steam-pump, without fly-wheel and with accumulator.
- 3. Steam-pump, without fly-wheel and without accumulator.
- 4. These three systems the valve-motion of the working press is operated by a high-pressure column. This is avoided in the following:
- 5. Single-acting steam-intensifier without accumulator.
- 6. Steam-pump with fly-wheel, without accumulator and with pipe-circuit.
- 7. Steam-pump with fly-wheel, without accumulator and without pipe-circuit.

The disadvantages of accumulators are thus stated: The weighted plungers formerly served in most cases as accumulators, cause violent shocks in the pipe-line when changes take place in the movement of the water, and in many places, in order to avoid bursting from this cause, the pipes are made exclusively of forged and bored steel. The seats and cones of the valve are cut by the water (at high speed), and in such cases only the most careful maintenance can prevent great losses of power.

Hydraulic Power in London.—The general principle involved in pumping water into mains laid in the streets, from which service-pipes are carried into the houses to work lifts or three-cylinder motors when very high power is required. In some cases a small Pelton wheel has been working under a pressure of over 700 lbs. on the square inch. Over 55 miles of hydraulic mains are at present laid (1892).

The reservoir of power consists of capacious accumulators, loaded to a pressure of 800 lbs. per square inch, thus producing the same effect as if supply-tanks were placed at 1700 feet above the street-level. The water is taken from the Thames or from wells, and all sediment is removed from it by filtration before it reaches the main engine-pumps.

There are over 1750 machines at work, and the supply is about 6,500,000 gallons per week.

It is essential that the water used should be clean. The storage-tank covers over the whole boiler-house and coal-store. The tank is divided into two, and an amount of mud is deposited here. It then passes through a sand-trap, a condenser of the engines, and it is turned into a set of filters. The body of the filter is a cast-iron cylinder, containing

granular filtering material resting upon a false bottom; under the distributing arrangement, affording passage for the air, and under the bottom of the tank. The dirty water is supplied to the filters in the head tank. After passing through the filters the clean effluent into the clean-water tank, from which the pumping-engines supply. The cleaning of the filters, which is done at intervals, is effected so thoroughly *in situ* that the filtering material never is removed.

The engine-house contains six sets of triple-expansion cylinders are 15-inch, 22-inch, 36 inch \times 24-inch. Each cylinder single plunger-pump with a 5-inch ram, secured directly to the connecting-rod being double to clear the pump. The boiler 150 lbs. on the square inch. Each pump will deliver 300 gallons minute under a pressure of 800 lbs. to the square inch, the engine about 61 revolutions per minute. This is a high velocity, and heavy pressure; but the valves work silently and without perceptible consumption of steam is 14.1 pounds per horse per hour.

The water delivered from the main pumps passes into the accumulators. The rams are 20 inches in diameter, and have a stroke of 23 feet each loaded with 110 tons of slag, contained in a wrought-iron box suspended from a cross-head on the top of the ram.

One of the accumulators is loaded a little more heavily than the other, so that they rise and fall successively; the more heavily loaded accumulator valve on the main steam-pipe. If the engines supply more water than wanted, the lighter of the two rams first rises as far as it can go, then ascends, and when it has nearly reached the top, shuts off the supply of water automatically.

The mains in the public streets are so constructed and laid out as to be perfectly trustworthy and free from leakage.

Every pipe and valve used throughout the system is tested to a pressure of one square inch before being placed on the ground and again tested to a pressure in the trenches to insure the perfect tightness of the jointing material used is gutta-percha.

The average rate obtained by the company is about 3 shillings and sixpence per gallon. The principal use of the power is for intermittent work where direct pressure can be employed, as, for instance, passenger cranes, presses, warehouse hoists, etc.

An important use of the hydraulic power is its application to the quenching of fire by means of Greathead's injector hydrant. By means of these hydrants a continuous fire-engine is available.

Hydraulic Riveting-machines.—Hydraulic riveting machines were first introduced in England by Mr. R. H. Tweddell. Fixed riveters were first introduced in 1868. Portable riveting-machines were introduced in 1872.

The riveting of the large steel plates in the Forth Bridge was done by portable machines working with a pressure of 1000 lbs. per square inch. In exceptional cases 3 tons per inch was used. (Proc. Inst. M. E., 1890.)

An application of hydraulic pressure invented by Andrew H. Green of Liverpool, dispenses with the necessity of accumulators. It consists of a three-throw pump driven by shafting or worked by steam, and discharges water partially upon the work accumulated in a heavy fly-wheel. The passage from the pumps and back to them is in constant circulation, and at a very feeble pressure, requiring a minimum of power to preserve the water ready for action at the desired moment, when by the use of a valve the current is stopped from going back to the pumps, and is thrown upon the work, the passage of the tool to be set in motion. The water is now confined by a driving-belt or steam-engine, supplemented by the momentum of the fly-wheel, is employed in closing up the rivet, or bending or forcing it into position, subjecting it to its operation.

Hydraulic Forging.—In the production of heavy forged cast ingots of mild steel it is essential that the mass of metal operated on as equally as possible throughout its entire thickness. This is accomplished by employing a steam-hammer for this purpose it has been found that the external surface of the ingot absorbs a large proportion of the force of the blow, and that a comparatively small effect only is produced in the central portions of the ingot, owing to the resistance offered by the mass to the rapid motion of the falling hammer—a disadvantage which is entirely overcome by the slow, though powerful, compression of the hydraulic forging-press, which appears destined to supersede the steam-hammer for the production of massive steel forgings.

forging-press the force-pump and the large or main cylinder are in direct and constant communication. There are no interests of any kind, nor has the pump any check-valves, but its cylinder full of water direct into the cylinder of the press, the same water, as it were, back again on the return stroke. The other cylinders and the pipe connecting them are full, the large press rises and falls simultaneously with each stroke of the ram, and the ram goes up a continuous oscillating motion, the ram, of course, over a shorter distance, owing to the larger capacity of the press. See also illustrated article in *Engineering*, page 668.)

For a complete illustrated account of the development of the hydraulic-press, see a paper by R. H. Tweddell in *Proc. Inst. C. E.*, vol.

Hydraulic Forging-press.—A 2000-ton forging-press erected at Liege in Belgium is described in *Eng. and M. Jour.*, Nov. 25, 1893. It is composed essentially of two parts—the press itself and the compressor.

The compressor is formed of a vertical steam-cylinder and a hydraulic cylinder. The piston-rod of the former forms the piston of the hydraulic cylinder, and discharges the water into the press proper. The motion is made by a cylindrical balanced valve; as soon as the released steam-piston falls automatically under the action of its own weight the steam passes to the other face of the piston of the hydraulic cylinder, and finally escapes from the upper end.

Water enters under the piston of the compressor-cylinder the piston-rod forces the water into the press proper. The pressure on the piston of the latter is transmitted through a cross-head which is upon the anvil. To raise the cross-head two small steam-cylinders are used, their piston-rods being connected to the hydraulic cylinder; steam acts only on the pistons of these cylinders from below. The motion of steam to the cylinders, which stand on top of the press, is regulated by the same lever which directs the motions of the connecting-rod movement given to the dies is sufficient for all the ordinary forging.

20 blows per minute has been attained. A double press on the same principle, having two compressors and giving a maximum pressure of 2000 lbs. per square inch, has been erected in the Krupp works, at Essen.

Hydraulic Intensifier. (*Iron Age*, Aug. 1890.)—The object of the intensifier is to increase the pressure obtained by the ordinary accumulator and to operate powerful hydraulic machines requiring very high pressures, without increasing the pressure carried in the accumulator or the hydraulic system.

The intensifier consists of one outer stationary cylinder and one inner cylinder which moves in the outer cylinder and on a fixed or stationary piston. When operated in connection with the hydraulic accumulator the method of working is as follows: The inner cylinder having been filled with water and connected through the hollow plunger with the hydraulic accumulator, water at the ordinary accumulator-pressure is admitted to the outer cylinder, which being four times the sectional area of the inner cylinder, gives a pressure in the inner cylinder and shear cylinder four times that of the outer cylinder—that is, if the accumulator pressure is 500 lbs. per square inch the pressure in the intensifier is 2000 lbs. per square inch.

Hydraulic Engine driving an Air-compressor and a Hammer. (*Iron Age*, May 12, 1892.)—The great hammer in Rome, is one of the largest in existence. Its falling weight is 100 tons, and the foundation belonging to it consists of a block of 1000 tons.

The stroke is 16 feet $4\frac{3}{4}$ inches; the diameter of the cylinder is 6 feet $3\frac{3}{4}$ inches; diameter of piston-rod 13 $\frac{3}{4}$ inches; total height of the hammer, 62 feet 4 inches. The power to work the hammer, as well as the power to operate the air-compressor, is furnished by four air-compressors respectively, and other auxiliary appliances to it, is furnished by four air-compressors coupled together and driven by two water-pressure engines, by means of which the air is compressed to 73.5 pounds per square inch. The cylinders of the water-pressure engines, which are provided with a bronze lining, have a 13 $\frac{3}{4}$ -inch stroke is 47 $\frac{3}{4}$ inches, with a pressure of water on the piston of 204.6 pounds per square inch. The compressors are of 10-inch diameter, and have 47 $\frac{3}{4}$ -inch stroke. Each of the compressors has a power equal to 280 horse-power. The compressor

Heat of Combustion of Fuels. (Rankine.)—The following table shows the total heat of combustion with oxygen of one pound of substances named in it, in British thermal units, and also in evaporated from 212°. It also shows the weight of oxygen recombine with each pound of the combustible and the weight of hydrogen in order to supply that oxygen. The quantities of heat are authority of MM. Favre and Silbermann.

Combustible.	Lbs. Oxygen per lb. Combustible.	Lb. Air (about).	Total British Heat-units.	Evaporative Power from 212° F., lbs.
As.....	8	36	62,032	64.2
Perfectly burned so as carbonic oxide.....	1½	6	4,400	4.55
Perfectly burned so as to form acetic acid.....	2½	12	14,500	15.0
1 lb.....	3 3/7	15 3/7	21,344	22.1
Fixed hydrocarbons, 1 lb.....	from 21,700 to 19,000	from 22½ to 20
Carbon, as much as is made perfect combustion of carbon, viz. 3¼ lbs.....	1½	6	10,000	10.45

Perfect combustion of carbon, making carbonic oxide, produces one-third of the heat which is yielded by the complete combustion. The heat of combustion of any compound of hydrogen and carbon is the sum of the quantities of heat which the constituents would produce by their combustion. (Marsh-gas is an exception.)

When the total heat of combustion of compounds containing oxygen as well as hydrogen and carbon, the following principle is to be observed: When hydrogen and oxygen exist in a compound in the proper proportion to form water (that is, by weight one part of hydrogen to eight parts of oxygen), these constituents have no effect on the total heat of combustion. If hydrogen exists in a greater proportion, only the surplus of hydrogen that which is required by the oxygen is to be taken into account. The following is a general formula (Dulong's) for the total heat of combustion of a compound of carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen:

Let C be the fractions of one pound of the compound, which respectively of carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen, the remainder being ash, and other impurities. Let h be the total heat of combustion of one pound of the compound in British thermal units. Then

$$h = 14,500 \left\{ C + 4.28 \left(H - \frac{O}{8} \right) \right\}.$$

The following table shows the composition of those compounds which are used, either as furnishing oxygen for combustion, as entering into it, or as being produced by the combustion of fuel:

Names.	Symbol of Chemical Composition.	Proportions of Element by Weight.	Chemical Equivalent by Weight.	Proportions of Elements by Volume.
.....	H_2O	N 77 + O 23	100	N 79 + O 21
.....	NH_3	H 2 + N 16	18	$H_2 + O$
.....	CO	H 3 + N 14	17	$H_3 + N$
Carbonic oxide.....	CO_2	C 12 + O 16	28	$C + O$
.....	CH_4	C 12 + O 32	44	$C + O_2$
.....	CH_2	C 12 + H 2	14	H_2
.....	CH_4	C 12 + H 4	16	H_4
.....	SO_2	S 32 + O 32	64	
.....	SH_2	S 32 + H 2	34	
.....	S_2C	S 64 + C 12	76	

Since each lb. of C requires $2\frac{3}{4}$ lbs. of O to burn it to CO_2 , and air contains 23% of O, by weight, $2\frac{3}{4} \div 0.23$ or 11.6 lbs. of air are required to burn 1 lb. of C.

Analyses of Gases of Combustion.—The following are selected from a large number of analyses of gases from locomotive boilers, to show the range of composition under different circumstances (P. H. Dudley, Trans. A. I. M. E., iv. 250):

Test.	CO ₂	CO	O	N	
1	18.8	2.5	2.5	81.6	No smoke visible.
2	11.5	...	6	82.5	Old fire, escaping gas white, engine working hard.
3	8.5	...	8	83	Fresh fire, much black gas, " " "
4	2.3	...	17.2	80.5	Old fire, damper closed, engine standing still.
5	5.7	...	14.7	79.6	" " smoke white, engine working hard.
6	8.4	1.2	8.4	82	New fire, engine not working hard.
7	12	1	4.4	82.6	Smoke black, engine not working hard.
8	3.4	...	16.8	76.8	" " dark, blower on, engine standing still.
9	6	...	13.5	81.5	" " white, engine working hard.

In analyses on the Cleveland and Pittsburgh road, in every instance when the smoke was the blackest, there was found the greatest percentage of unconsumed oxygen in the product, showing that something besides the mere presence for oxygen is required to effect the combustion of the volatile carbon of fuels.

J. C. Hoadley (Trans. A. S. M. E., vi. 749) found as the mean of a great number of analyses of flue gases from a boiler using anthracite coal:

CO₂, 13.10; CO, 0.30; O, 11.94; N, 74.66.

The loss of heat due to burning C to CO instead of to CO₂ was 2.1%. The surplus oxygen averaged 113.3% of the O required for the C of the fuel, the average for different weeks ranging from 88.6% to 137%.

Analyses made to determine the CO produced by excessively rapid firing gave results from 2.51% to 4.81% CO and 5.12 to 8.01% CO₂; the ratio of O in the CO to total carbon burned being from 43.80% to 48.55%, and the number of pounds of air supplied to the furnace per pound of coal being from 33.2 to 19.3 lbs. The loss due to burning C to CO was from 27.84% to 30.86% of the full power of the coal.

Temperature of the Fire. (Rankine, S. E., p. 283.)—By temperature of the fire is meant the temperature of the products of combustion at the instant that the combustion is complete. The elevation of that temperature above the temperature at which the air and the fuel are supplied to the furnace may be computed by dividing the total heat of combustion of one lb. of fuel by the weight and by the mean specific heat of the whole products of combustion, and of the air employed for their dilution under constant pressure. The specific heat under constant pressure of these products is about as follows:

Carbonic-acid gas, 0.217; steam, 0.475; nitrogen (probably), 0.245; air, 0.238; ashes, probably about 0.200. Using these data, the following results are obtained for pure carbon and for olefant gas burned, respectively, first, in just sufficient air, theoretically, for their combustion, and, second, when an equal amount of air is supplied in addition for dilution.

Fuel.	Products undiluted.		Products diluted.	
	Carbon.	Olefant Gas.	Carbon.	Olefant Gas.
Total heat of combustion, per lb.	14,500	21,300	14,500	21,300
Wt. of products of combustion, lbs.	13	16.43	25	21.36
Their mean specific heat.	0.237	0.257	0.238	0.245
Specific heat \times weight.	3.08	4.23	5.94	7.9
Elevation of temperature, F.	4580°	5050°	2440°	2710°

[The above calculations are made on the assumption that the specific heats of the gases are constant, but they probably increase with the increase of temperature (see Specific Heat), in which case the temperature would be less than those above given. The temperature would be further

the heat rendered latent by the conversion into steam of any part in the fuel.]

Temperature in Combustion of Gases. (*Eng'g*, April 2, 1886.)—It is found that the temperatures obtained are all short of those obtained by calculation. Three reasons are given to account for this: 1. The cooling effect of the containing vessel; 2. The retardation of the evolution of heat by association; 3. The increase of the specific heat of the gases at high temperatures. The calculated temperatures are obtainable only if the gases shall combine instantaneously and simultaneously their whole mass. This condition is practically impossible. The gases formed at the beginning of an explosion maintain combustible gases and tend to retard or check the progress of the remainder.

CLASSIFICATION OF SOLID FUELS.

Classification of solid fuels as follows (*Eng'g and M'g Jour.*, July, 1874):

Name of Fuel.	Ratio		Proportion of Coke or Charcoal yielded by the Dry Pure Fuel.
	$\frac{O}{H}$	or $O + N^*$.	
Peat	8		0.28 @ 0.30
Loose and encasing matter	7		.30 @ .35
Willow fuel	6 @ 5		.35 @ .40
Brown coal	5		.40 @ .50
Sub-bituminous coals	4 @ 1		.50 @ .90
Bituminous coals	1 @ 0.75		.90 @ .92

Bituminous coals he divides into five classes as below:

Type.	Elementary Composition.			Ratio $\frac{O}{H}$ or $O + N^*$.	Proportion of Coke yielded by Distillation.	Nature and Appearance of Coke.
	C.	H.	O.			
Sub-bituminous dry	75 @ 80	5.5 @ 4.5	19.5 @ 15	4 @ 3	0.50 @ .60	Pulverulent.
Sub-bituminous fat coals, lignites, peats,	80 @ 85	5.8 @ 5	14.2 @ 10	3 @ 2	.60 @ .68	Melted, but friable.
Sub-bituminous fat coals, blacksmiths'	84 @ 85	5 @ 4.5	11 @ 5.5	2 @ 1	.68 @ .74	Melted; somewhat compact.
Sub-bituminous fat coals, lignites, peats,	88 @ 91	5.5 @ 4.5	6.5 @ 5.5	1	.74 @ .82	Melted; very compact.
Sub-bituminous fat coals, lignites, peats, anthracite,	90 @ 93	4.5 @ 4	5.5 @ 3	1	.82 @ .90	Pulverulent.

Nitrogen rarely exceeds 1 per cent of the weight of the fuel, including bituminous lignites, which resemble petroleum. The differences in the chemical composition and properties of different kinds of coal are very great. The proportion of free carbon ranges from 80 to 93 per cent; that of hydrocarbons from 5 to 58 per cent; that of water, or oxygen and hydrogen, from 1 to 27 per cent; that of ash, from 1 1/4 to 26 per cent. The principal varieties of coal may be divided into principal classes: 1, anthracite coal; 2, semi-bituminous coal; 3, bituminous coal; 4, lignite or brown coal.

Diminution of H and O in Series from Wood to Anthracite

(Groves and Thorp's Chemical Technology, vol. 1, Paris, p. 1)

Substance.	Carbon.	Hydrogen.
Woody fibre.....	52.83	7.32
Peat from Vulcaire.....	39.57	5.56
Lignite from Cologne.....	65.94	5.27
Earthy brown coal.....	73.15	3.98
Coal from Bellestat, secondary.....	73.66	3.54
Coal from Rive de Geer.....	89.29	3.05
Anthracite, Mayenne, transition formation	81.58	2.96

Progressive Change from Wood to Graphite

(J. S. Newberry in Johnson's Cyclopaedia.)

	Wood.	Loss.	Lignite.	Loss.	Bituminous coal.	Loss.	Anthracite.	Loss.
Carbon.....	49.1	18.65	30.45	12.35	18.10	3.57	14.53	1.41
Hydrogen.....	6.3	3.25	3.05	1.85	1.39	0.93	0.27	0.14
Oxygen.....	44.6	34.40	30.30	18.13	2.07	1.92	0.65	0.65
	100.0	46.30	53.70	32.33	21.37	5.82	15.43	2.21

Classification of Coals, as Anthracite, Bituminous

Prof. Persifer Frazer (Trans. A. I. M. E., vi, 450) proposes a division of coals according to their "fuel ratio," that is, the ratio the carbon bears to the volatile hydrocarbon.

In arranging coals under this classification, the accidental impurities as sulphur, earthy matter, and moisture, are disregarded, and the constituents alone are considered.

	Carbon Ratio.	Fixed Carbon.	Volatile Hydrocarbon.
I. Hard dry anthracite.....	100 to 12	100 to 92.315	6.685
II. Semi-anthracite.....	12 to 8	92.31 to 88.89	7.69
III. Semi-bituminous.....	8 to 5	88.89 to 83.33	11.11
IV. Bituminous.....	5 to 0	83.33 to 0	16.67

It appears to the author that the above classification does not define the proper point between the semi-bituminous and the bituminous coals, viz., at a ratio of C + V.H.C. = 5, or fixed carbon 83.33%, volatile carbon 16.67%, since it would throw many of the steam coals of C and Somerset counties, Penn., and the Cumberland, Md., and Pocahontas, Va., coals, which are practically of one class, and properly semi-bituminous coals, into the bituminous class. The dividing line between the semi-anthracite and semi-bituminous coals, C + V.H. would place several coals known as semi-anthracite in the semi-bituminous class. The following is proposed by the author as a better classification.

	Carbon Ratio.	Fixed Carbon.	Volatile Hydrocarbon.
I. Hard dry anthracite.....	100 to 12	100 to 92.315	6.685
II. Semi-anthracite.....	12 to 7	92.31 to 87.5	7.69
III. Semi-bituminous.....	7 to 3	87.5 to 75	12.5
IV. Bituminous.....	3 to 0	75 to 0	25

Rhode Island Graphitic Anthracite.—A peculiar variety found at Cranston, near Providence, R. I. It resembles both graphitic anthracite coal, and has about the following composition (A. I. M. E., A. I. M. E., xvii, 678): Graphitic carbon, 78%; volatile matter, 2.5%; phosphorus, .045%. It burns with extreme difficulty.

ANALYSES OF COALS.**Composition of Pennsylvania Anthracites.** (Trans.

M. E., xiv, 706.)—Samples weighing 100 to 300 lbs. were collected from 100 to 200 tons as shipped to market, and reduced by proper methods in laboratory. Thirty-three samples were analyzed by McCrossin and others. They show the mean character of the coal of the Northern field in the vicinity of Woodbury, Pa., and the Lehigh field in the vicinity of Hazleton, Pa.

field in the vicinity of Shenandoah, and in the Southern field between Chunk and Tamaqua.

Loc.	Name of Field.	Water.	Volatile Matter.	Fixed Carbon.	Ash.	Sulphur.	Vol. Matter. Per cent of total combustible.	Ratio, C + V. H. C.
on...	E. Middle	3.71	3.08	86.40	6.92	.58	3.44	28.07
toth..	E. Middle	4.12	3.08	86.38	5.92	.49	3.45	27.99
ose...	W. Middle	3.54	3.72	81.59	10.65	.50	4.36	21.93
toth..	W. Middle	3.16	3.72	81.14	11.08	.90	4.38	21.53
ose F	Southern	3.01	4.13	87.98	4.38	.50	4.48	21.32
Mtn..	W. Middle	3.04	3.95	82.66	9.88	.46	4.56	20.93
Foot	W. Middle	3.41	3.98	80.87	11.23	.51	4.69	20.32
toth..	Southern	3.09	4.28	83.81	8.18	.64	4.85	19.62
toth..	Northern	3.42	4.38	83.27	8.20	.73	5.00	19.00
d Bed	Loyalsock	1.30	8.10	83.34	6.23	1.03	8.86	10.29

above analyses were made of coals of all sizes (mixed). When coal is sized into sizes for shipment the purity of the different sizes as regards varies greatly. Samples from one mine gave results as follows:

Name of Coal.	Screened Analyses.			
	Through inches.	Over inches.	Fixed Carbon.	Ash.
g.....	2.5	1.75	88.49	5.66
ore.....	1.75	1.25	83.67	10.17
chestnut.....	1.25	.75	80.72	12.67
a.....	.75	.50	79.05	14.66
blackwheat...	.50	.25	76.92	16.62

Bernice Basin, Pa., Coals.

	Water.	Vol. H. C.	Fixed C.	Ash.	Sulphur.
Basin, Fullivan and	0.96	3.55	82.52	3.27	0.34
oming Cos.; range of 8..	to 1.97	to 8.56	to 89.39	to 9.34	to 1.04

coal is on the dividing-line between the anthracites and semi-anthracite and is similar to the coal of the Lykens Valley district.

Recent analyses (Trans. A. I. M. E., xiv, 721) give:

	Water.	Vol. H. C.	Fixed Carb.	Ash.	Sulphur.
ing seam.....	0.65	9.40	83.69	5.34	0.91
below seam....	3.67	15.42	71.34	8.97	0.59

Coal is a semi-anthracite, the second a semi-bituminous.

Basin Occupied by Anthracite Coal. (J. C. I. W., vol. iii.)—The contents of 2240 lbs. of hard Lehigh coal is a little over 36 feet; an age Schuylkill W. A., 37 to 38 feet; Shamokin, 38 to 39 feet; Lorberrry, 41.

ording to measurements made with Wilkesbarre anthracite coal from Wyoming Valley, it requires 32.2 cu. ft. of lump, 33.9 cu. ft. broken, 34.8 cu. ft. of stove, 35.7 cu. ft. of chestnut, and 36.7 cu. ft. of pea, to make one ton of coal of 2240 lbs.; while it requires 28.8 cu. ft. of broken, 30.3 cu. ft. of egg, 31.1 cu. ft. of stove, 31.9 cu. ft. of chestnut, and 32.8 cu. ft. of pea, to make one ton of 2000 lbs.

Composition of Anthracite and Semi-bituminous Coals. (S. A. I. M. E., vi, 430.)—Hard dry anthracites, 16 analyses by Rogers, show a range from 94.10 to 82.47 fixed carbon, 1.40 to 9.53 volatile matter, 10.50 to 8.00 ash, water, and impurities. Of the fuel constituents alone, fixed carbon ranges from 98.53 to 89.63, and the volatile matter from 1.47 to 8.7, the corresponding carbon ratios, or C ÷ Vol. H. C. being from 67.02 to 81.

Semi-anthracites.—12 analyses by Rogers show a range of from 90.23 to 80.23 fixed carbon, 7.07 to 13.75 volatile matter, and 2.30 to 8.51 ash and impurities. Excluding the ash, etc., the range of fixed carbon is 98.53 to 89.63, and the volatile combustible 7.27 to 15.58, the corresponding carbon ratios being from 12.75 to 5.41.

Semi-bituminous Coals.—10 analyses of Penna. and Maryland coals fixed carbon 68.41 to 84.80, volatile matter 11.2 to 17.28, and ash, water impurities 4 to 13.99. The percentage of the fuel constituents is fixed as 79.84 to 88.80, volatile combustible 11.20 to 20.16, and the carbon ratio 11.3.96.

American Semi-bituminous and Bituminous Coals

(Selected chiefly from various papers in Trans. A. I. M. E.)

	Moisture.	Vol. Hydro-carbon.	Fixed Carbon	Ash.	Sulphur.
<i>Penna. Semi-bituminous :</i>					
Broad Top, extremes of 5.....	{ .79 .78	13.84 17.38	78.46 76.14	6.00 4.81	
Somerset Co., extremes of 5.....	{ 1.27 1.89	14.33 18.51	77.77 65.90	6.63 10.62	
Blair Co., average of 5.....	1.07	26.72	60.77	9.45	
Cambria Co., average of 7, } lower bed, B. }	0.74	21.21	68.94	7.51	
Cambria Co., 1, } upper bed, C. }	1.14	17.18	73.42	6.58	
Cambria Co., South Fork, 1.....		15.51	78.60	5.84	
Centre Co., 1.....	0.60	22.60	68.71	5.40	
Clearfield Co., average of 9, } upper bed, C. }	0.70	23.94	69.28	4.62	
Clearfield Co., average of 8, } lower bed, D. }	0.81	21.10	74.08	3.26	
Clearfield Co., range of 17 anal..	{ 0.41 to 1.94	20.09 to 35.19	66.69 to 74.02	2.65 to 7.65	
<i>Bituminous :</i>					
Jefferson Co., average of 26....	1.21	32.53	60.99	3.76	
Clarion Co., average of 7.....	1.97	38.60	54.15	4.10	
Armstrong Co., 1.....	1.18	42.55	49.69	4.58	
Connellsville Coal.....	1.26	39.10	59.61	8.23	
Coke from Conn'ville (Standard)	.49	0.01	87.46	11.22	
Youghiogheny Coal.....	1.03	36.49	69.05	3.61	
Pittsburgh, Ocean Mine.....	.28	39.09	57.33	3.30	

The percentage of volatile matter in the Kittanning lower bed B and Freeport lower bed D increases with great uniformity from east to west;

	Volatile Matter.		Fixed Carbon.
Clearfield Co, bed D.....	30.09 to 25.19		68.73 to 74.71
" " " B.....	22.56 to 26.13		64.37 to 69.83
Clarion Co., " B.....	35.70 to 42.55		47.51 to 55.44
" " " D.....	37.15 to 40.80		51.39 to 56.36

Connellsville Coal and Coke. (Trans. A. I. M. E., xiii, 214)

The Connellsville coal-field, in the southwestern part of Pennsylvania, is a strip about 3 miles wide and 60 miles in length. The mine workings are confined to the Pittsburgh seam, which here has its best development in size, and its quality best adapted to coke-making. It generally affords from 7 to 8 feet of coal.

The following analyses by T. T. Morrell show about its range of composition :

	Moisture.	Vol. Mat.	Fixed C.	Ash.	Sulphur.	Phosph.
Herold Mine ...	1.26	28.83	60.79	8.44	.67	.013
Kintz Mine.....	0.79	31.91	56.46	9.52	1.22	.02

In comparing the composition of coals across the Appalachian field in the western section of Pennsylvania, it will be noted that the Connellsville variety occupies a peculiar position between the rather dry semi-bituminous coals eastward of it and the fat bituminous coals flanking it on the west. It is the only coal of the Connellsville or Pittsburgh coal-bed occurs in the 200 to 600 feet of "barren measures" separating it from the coal measures of Western Pennsylvania. The following

similarity in composition in the coals of these upper and lower measures in the same geographical belt or basin.

on the Upper Coal-measures (Penna.) in a Westward Order.

	Moisture.	Vol. Mat.	Fixed Carb.	Ash.	Sulphur.
.....	1.35	3.45	89.06	5.81	0.30
.....	0.89	15.52	74.28	9.29	0.71
.....	1.66	22.35	68.77	5.96	1.24
.....	31.38	60.30	7.24	1.09
.....	1.02	33.50	61.34	3.28	0.86
.....	1.41	37.66	54.44	5.86	0.64

in the Lower Coal-measures in a Westward Order.

	Moisture.	Vol. Mat.	Fixed Carb.	Ash.	Sulphur.
.....	1.35	3.45	89.06	5.81	0.30
.....	0.77	13.18	73.34	6.69	1.02
.....	1.40	27.23	61.84	6.33	2.60
.....	1.15	16.54	74.46	5.96	1.86
.....	0.92	24.36	62.32	7.69	4.92
.....	0.96	38.30	52.03	5.14	3.66

of the same Beds in different Districts of Pennsylvania. Analyses in the reports of the Pennsylvania Geological Survey are selected. They are divided into different groups, and an analysis in each group is given, ash and other impurities and the percentage in 100 of combustible matter being

	No. of Analyses	Fixed Carbon	Vol. H. C.	Carbon Ratio.
Bed, upper bench.....	5	59.72	40.28	1.48
Ship, Greene Co.....		53.22	46.78	1.13
Ship, Washington Co.....				
Bed, lower bench.....	9	60.69	39.31	1.54
Ship, Greene Co.....		54.31	45.69	1.19
Ship, Washington Co.....				
Bed.....	3	64.39	35.61	1.80
Greene Co.....		60.35	39.65	1.52
Creek, Greene Co.....				
Bed:				
Washington Co.....		60.87	39.13	1.65
" " ".....		59.11	40.89	1.29
" " ".....		63.54	36.46	1.74
" " ".....	5	50.97	49.03	1.04
" " ".....		61.80	38.20	1.61
Greene Co.....	3	54.33	45.67	1.19
Washington Co., average		66.44	33.56	1.98
Greene Co.....	1	57.83	42.17	1.37
Sub-bituminous (showing		79.73	20.27	3.93
l. mat. to the eastward)	8	75.47	24.53	3.07
Georgetown.....	7	40.68	59.32	0.68
Georgetown.....		62.57	37.43	1.66
OHIO.				
Bed in Ohio:				
Ohio.....		61.45	38.55	1.50
" " ".....		63.46	36.54	1.73
" " ".....		66.14	33.86	1.95
" " ".....		63.46	36.54	1.73
" " ".....		64.93	35.07	1.85
" " ".....		60.92	39.08	
" " ".....		62.33	37.67	

Analyses of Southern and Western Coal

	Moisture.	Vol. Mat.	Fixed C.
OHIO.			
Hocking Valley.....	5.00	32.80	53.15
	7.40	39.20	60.45
MARYLAND.			
Cumberland.....	95	19.13	72.70
	1.23	15.47	73.51
VIRGINIA.			
South of James River, 23 analyses, range	from 0.67 to 2.46	27.28 38.60	46.70 67.83
Average of 23.....	1.48	32.24	58.80
North of James River, eastern outcrop,	0.40	18.60	71.00
	1.79	23.96	59.98
Carbonite or Natural Coke....	1.57	9.64	79.93
	1.56	14.26	81.61
Western outcrop, 11 analyses, range	from to ..	21.33 30.50	54.97 70.80
Average of 11.....		26.06	63.75
Pocahontas Flat-top* (Castner & Curran's Circular)	0.52	23.90	74.20
WEST VIRGINIA (New River.)	0.62	18.48	75.22
Quinnimont, † 3 analyses....	from 0.76 to 0.94	17.57 18.19	75.89 79.40
	0.84	29.59	69.00
Nuttalburgh †.....	1.35	25.35	70.67
VIRGINIA and KENTUCKY.			
Big Stone Gap Field, ‡ 9 analyses, range	from 0.80 to 2.01	31.44 36.27	54.90 63.50
KENTUCKY.			
Pulaski Co., 3 analyses, range	from 1.26 to 1.32	35.15 39.44	60.85 52.48
Muhlenberg Co., 4 analyses, range	from 3.60 to 7.06	30.60 38.70	58.80 53.70
Kentucky Cannel Coals, § 5 analyses, range	from to	40.30 65.30	59.80 coke 33.70 coke
TENNESSEE.			
Scott Co., Range of several T..	from 70 to 1.83	32.33 41.29	46.61 61.65
Roane Co., Rockwood.....	1.75	26.62	60.11
Hamilton Co., Melville.....	2.74	26.50	67.06
Marion Co., Etna.....	94	23.72	63.94
Sewanee Co., Tracy City.....	1.60	29.30	61.00
Kelly Co., Whiteside.....	1.30	21.80	74.30
GEORGIA.			
Dade Co.....	1.20	23.05	60.50
ALABAMA.			
Warren Field:			
Jefferson Co., Birmingham..	3.01	42.76	48.20
" " Black Creek ..	.12	26.11	71.64
Tuscaloosa Co.....	1.59	35.33	54.64
Cahaba Field, (Helena Vein.)	2.00	32.90	53.98
Bibb Co..... (Coke Vein....)	1.78	30.60	64.56

* Analyses of Pocahontas Coal by John Pattinson, F.C.S., 1889.

	C.	H.	O.	N.	S.	Ash.	Water.	Co
Lumps...	86.51	4.44	4.95	0.66	0.61	1.54	1.29	77
Small ..	83.13	4.29	5.33	0.66	0.56	4.63	1.40	70

Calorific value, by Thomson's Calorimeter: Lumps = 15.4 Btu evaporated from and at 212°; small = 14.7 lbs.

† These coals are coked in beehive ovens, and yield from 65% to 70% coke.
‡ This field covers about 130 square miles in Virginia, and also 100 miles in Kentucky.§ The principal use of the cannel coals is for enriching the soil.
¶ Volatile matter including moisture.

* Samples from Morgan, Rhea, Anderson, and New

ALABAMA COALS. (W. B. Phillips, *Eng. & M. J.*, June 3, 1893.)

No.	Location.	Proximate.			Ultimate.					
		Vol. and Combust. Matter.	Fixed Carbon.	Carbon.	Hydrogen.	Oxygen.	Nitrogen.	Sulphur.	Ash.	Moisture.
1	Helena	34.30	60.50	73.23	7.98	11.92	1.07	0.60	3.50	1.70
2	Pratt mines..	33.45	63.20	75.82	10.52	7.51	1.73	1.07	2.00	1.35
3	Brookwood..	27.80	58.70	72.47	10.38	1.60	0.40	1.65	11.90	1.60
4	Brookwood..	34.80	60.60	72.75	8.61	11.12	1.48	1.44	2.65	1.95
5	"	35.65	57.30	70.82	10.19	9.95	1.31	0.68	5.25	1.95
6	Pratt mines..	31.55	64.95	75.05	9.91	8.95	1.62	0.97	2.35	1.80
7	Brookwood..	30.50	66.30	73.96	10.50	9.57	1.62	1.15	2.20	1.00
8	Blue Creek ..	25.80	69.90	72.68	10.77	9.83	1.39	1.03	2.80	1.50
9	Coalburg	32.55	65.57	74.59	10.58	9.48	1.31	1.32	1.90	0.82
10	30.15	52.90	60.37	10.70	9.00	1.26	1.72	16.30	0.65

	Moisture.	Vol. Mat.	Fixed C.	Ash.	Sulphur.
TEXAS.					
1	3.54	30.84	50.69	14.93
2	1.91	20.04	62.71	15.35
3	1.37	16.42	68.18	13.02
4	0.84	29.35	50.18	19.63
5	0.45	21.6	45.75	29.1	3.15
INDIANA.					
1	2.10	37.35	57.95	2.60
2	13.05	32.34	48.78	5.81
3	4.50	91.00		4.50
ILLINOIS.†					
1	8.22	39.40	43.95	8.43
2	7.20	38.88	45.30	8.60
3	11.00	32.55	53.00	3.65
4	5.78	43.70	45.37	6.15
5	8.45	34.99	44.50	12.06
6	10.80	27.32	44.78	17.10
7	6.36	26.40	59.84	7.40
8	8.86	23.54	60.60	7.00
9	6.12	24.68	66.50	2.70
10	6.27	57.11	26.30	10.32

Indiana Block Coal (J. S. Alexander, *Trans. A. I. M. E.*, iv. 100).—The block coal of the Brazil (Indiana) district differs in chemical composition but little from the coking coals of Western Pennsylvania. The principal difference, however, is quite marked; the latter has a cuboid structure of bituminous particles lying against each other, so that under the action of heat fusion throughout the mass readily takes place, while coal is formed of alternate layers of rich bituminous matter and a charcoal-like substance, which is not only very slow of combustion, but so that the transmission of heat that agglutination is prevented, and the mass wears away layer by layer, retaining its form until consumed. Analysis by E. T. Cox: C, 73.94; H, 4.50; O, 11.77; N, 1.73; ash, 4.50; moisture, 4.50.

Illinois coals are extremely variable in character. The above analyses are given in D. L. Barnes's paper on "American Locomotive Practice," *Trans. A. S. M. E.*, 1893, except the last, the Staunton coal, which is by Hunt (*Trans. A. S. M. E.*, v. 266). The Staunton coal is remarkable for its percentage of volatile matter, but it is excelled in this

Nixon's Navigation Welsh Coal is remarkably pure, and tains not more than 3 to 4 per cent of ashes, giving 88 per cent of lustrous coke. The quantity of fixed carbon it contains would class among the dry coals, but on account of its coke and its intensity of bustion it belongs to the class of fat, or long flaming coals.

Chemical analysis gave the following results: Carbon, 90.37; hydr 4.39; sulphur, .69; nitrogen, .49; oxygen (difference), 4.16.

The analysis showed the following composition of the volatile parts bon, 22.53; hydrogen, 34.96; O + N + S, 42.51.

The heat of combustion was found to be, as a result of several at ements, 8864 calories for the unit of weight. Calculated according composition, the heat of combustion would be 8805 calories = 15,849 thermal units per pound.

This coal is generally used in trial-trips of steam-vessels in Great B **Sampling Coal for Analysis.**—J. P. Kimball, Trans. A. I. I xii. 317, says: The unsuitable sampling of a coal-seam, or the imp preparation of the sample in the laboratory, often gives rise to erro terminations of the ash so wide in range as to vitiate the analysis f practical purposes; every other single determination, excepting mos showing its relative part of the error. The determination of sulphu ash are especially liable to error, as they are intimately associated i slates.

Wm. Forsyth, in his paper on The Heating Value of Western Coals (I Nees, Jan. 17, 1895), says: This trouble in getting a fairly average sam anthracite coal has compelled the Reading R. R. Co., in getting their sam to take as much as 300 lbs. for one sample, drawn direct from the chuff it stands ready for shipment.

The directions for collecting samples of coal for analysis at the C. R. laboratory are as follows:

Two samples should be taken, one marked "average," the other "wet. Each sample should contain about 10 lbs., made up of lumps about the of an orange taken from different parts of the dump or car, and so sel that they shall represent as nearly as possible, first, the average lot; se the best coal.

An example of the difference between an "average" and a "wet sample, taken from Mr. Forsyth's paper, is the following of an Illinois

	Moisture.	Vol. Mat.	Fixed Carbon.	Ash.
Average	1.36	27.69	85.41	33.34
Select	1.90	34.70	48.23	45.17

The theoretical evaporative power of the former was 2.13 lbs. of steam from and at 212° per lb. of coal, and that of the latter 11.44 lbs.

Relative Value of Fine Sizes of Anthracite.—For lumps on a grate coal-dust is commercially valueless, the finest commercial thracites being sold at the following rates per ton at the mines, accord to a recent address by Mr. Eckley B. Coxe (1893):

Size.	Range of Size.	Price at Mine.
Chestnut.....	1½ to ¾ inch	\$2.75
Pea.....	¾ to 9/16	1.25
Buckwheat.....	9/16 to 3/8	0.75
Rice.....	¾ to 3/16	0.25
Barley.....	3/16 to 2/32	0.10

But when coal is reduced to an impalpable dust, a method of burnin becomes possible to which even the finest of these sizes is wholly a dapted; the coal may be blown in as dust, mixed with its proper port of air, and no grate at all is then required.

Pressed Fuel. (E. F. Loiseau, Trans. A. I. M. E., viii. 314.)—Fuel has been made from anthracite dust by mixing the dust with ten cent of its bulk of dry pitch, which is prepared by separating from lar a temperature of 572° F. the volatile matter it contains. The mixture is heated by steam to 212°, at which temperature the pitch acquires its menting properties, and is passed between two rollers, on the peripher which are milled out a series of semi-oval cavities. The lumps of the ture, about the size of an egg, drop out under the rollers on an endless which carries them to a screen in eight minutes, which time is sufficien cool the lumps, and they are then ready for delivery.

The enterprise of making the pressed fuel above described was not mercially successful, on account of the low price of other coal. In Fran however, "Bouquettes" are regularly made of coal-dust (quantities

HEATING VALUE OF STEAM COALS.

a coal may be determined, with more or less approx-
 imation, by three different methods.

1. by combustion in a coal calorimeter; 2d, in a boiler. The first two methods give what may be called heating value, the third gives the practical value.

The first two methods depend upon the precision of the calorimetry adopted, and upon the care and skill of the operator. The results of the third method are subject to numerous sources of error, and may be taken as approximately true only under the conditions under which the test is made. Analysis with considerable accuracy the heating value which would be obtained under the conditions of perfect combustion and complete steam produced. A boiler test gives the actual result under conditions of imperfect combustion, and of numerous and variable sources of error, and gives the highest practical heating value, if the condition of the boiler, extent of heating surface, method of firing, etc., are favorable for the particular coal tested, and it may give results which are very low if these conditions are adverse or unsuitable to the coal.

As the results of these tests being so extremely variable, their use for determining the relative steaming values of different coals has led to many erroneous conclusions. A notable instance is found in the results of the late Mr. Sturges's tests, made in 1844, the only extensive series of tests of the kind ever made. He reported the steaming value of the anthracite of the Union Co.'s coal to be far the lowest of all the anthracites tested, easily explained by an examination of the conditions under which the test, which were entirely unsuited to that coal. It is now known that for Pittsburgh coal which is far beneath that now used in practice, his low result being chiefly due to the use of a boiler.

Proposed Apparatus for Determining the Heating Value of Fuels (Trans. A. I. M. E., xiv, 727) the author described an apparatus designed to test fuel on a large scale, avoiding the errors of the boiler test. It consists of a fire-brick furnace enclosed in two cylindrical shells containing a great number of tubes, the tubes being cooled by cooling water and through which the gases from the furnace being cooled. No steam is generated in the apparatus, the steam being passed through it and allowed to escape at a temperature of 212° F. The product of the weight of the water passed through the apparatus and the increase in temperature is the measure of the heating value.

The difference of opinion concerning the value of chemical analysis of approximating the heating power of coal. It is shown by Kestner and Jeunier-Dollfus, in their extensive series of tests, published in 1868, that the heating power as determined by chemical analysis is greater than that given to chemical analysis according to the law of Dulong.

The results of the tests made in Paris by M. Mahler, however, show a much closer agreement between the calorimetric tests. A brief description of these tests, made by the French, may be found in an article by the author in the *Annals of the American Society of Mechanical Engineers*, vol. I, page 97.

The heating value is expressed by the formula,
 British Thermal Units = 14,500C + 62,500 (H - $\frac{O}{8}$),*

where C is the percentage of carbon, H the percentage of hydrogen, and O the percentage of oxygen, all being multiplied by 100. A study of M. Mahler's calorimetric tests shows a difference between the results of these tests and those of Dulong's law in any single case is only a few per cent. The results of 31 tests show that Dulong's formula gives an heating value less than the calorimetric tests, the difference being over 14,000 thermal units, a difference of

about 10 per cent. The author's formula with Berthelot's figure for the heating value of hydrogen is given in British thermal units,

$$r = 14,650C + 62,025 \left(H - \frac{(O + N) - 1}{8} \right).$$

Mahler's calorimetric apparatus consists of a strong steel vessel "bomb" immersed in water, proper precaution being taken to prevent it from exploding. One gram of the coal to be tested is placed in a platinum boat, oxygen gas is introduced under a pressure of 20 to 25 atmospheres, and the coal ignited explosively by an electric spark. Combustion is complete and instantaneous, the heat is radiated into the surrounding water, weighing 2300 grams, and its quantity is determined by the rise in temperature of this water, due corrections being made for the heat capacity of the apparatus itself. The accuracy of the apparatus is remarkable, the tests giving results varying only about 2 parts in 1000.

The close agreement of the results of calorimetric tests when properly conducted, and of the heating power calculated from chemical analysis indicates that either the chemical or the calorimetric method may be accepted as correct enough for all practical purposes for determining the heating power of coal. The results obtained by either method may be taken as a standard by which the results of a boiler test are to be compared, and the difference between the total heating power, and the results of the boiler test is a measure of the inefficiency of the boiler under the conditions of any particular test.

In practice with good anthracite coal, in a steam-boiler properly proportioned, and with all conditions favorable, it is possible to obtain and utilize about 80% of the total heat of combustion of the coal. This result was obtained in the tests at the Centennial Exhibition in 1876, in five different boilers. An efficiency of 70% to 75% may easily be obtained in regular practice. With bituminous coals it is difficult to obtain as close an approach to the theoretical maximum of economy, for the reason that some of the most combustible portion of the coal escapes unburned, the difficulty increasing rapidly as the content of volatile matter increases beyond 20%. In most coals of the Western States it is with difficulty that as much as 55% of the theoretical efficiency can be obtained without the use of gas producers.

The chemical analysis heretofore referred to is the ultimate analysis, giving the percentage of carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen of the dry coal. It is, however, from a study of Mahler's tests that the proximate analysis, giving fixed carbon, volatile matter, moisture, and ash, may be deduced, giving a measure of the heating value with a limit of error of only about 1%. After deducting the moisture and ash, and calculating the fixed carbon percentage of the coal dry and free from ash, the author has constructed the following table:

APPROXIMATE HEATING VALUE OF COALS.

Percentage F. C. in Coal Dry and Free from Ash.	Heating Value B.T.U. per lb. Comb'le.	Equiv. Water Evap. from and at 212° per lb. Combustible.	Percentage F. C. in Coal Dry and Free from Ash.	Heating Value B.T.U. per lb. Comb'le.	Equiv. Water Evap. from and at 212° per lb. Combustible.
100	14500	15.00	68	15480	16.8
97	14760	15.38	63	15120	15.8
94	15120	15.65	60	14580	15.0
90	15480	16.03	57	14040	14.2
87	15660	16.21	54	13320	13.7
80	15840	16.40	51	12600	13.0
72	15660	16.21	50	12240	12.8

Below 50% the law of decrease of heating-power shown in the table entirely does not hold, as some cannel coals and lignites show much less heating-power than would be predicted from their chemical constitution.

The use of this table may be shown as follows:

Given a coal containing moisture 2%, ash 8%, fixed carbon 61%, and volatile matter 29%, what is its probable heating value? Deducting moisture and ash we find the fixed carbon is 61/90 or 68% of the total of fixed carbon and volatile matter. One pound of the coal dry and free from ash would, by the table, have a heating value of 15,480 thermal units, but as the ash and moisture, having no heating value, are 10% of the total weight of the coal, the coal would have 90% of the table value, or 13,932 thermal units. This, by 86%, the latent heat of steam at 212° gives an equivalent evaporation of 16.8 lbs. of coal per lb. of coal.

that can be obtained in practice from this coal would be the efficiency of the boiler, and this largely upon the difficulty of separating its volatile combustible matter in the boiler furnace. If an efficiency of 65% could be obtained, then the evaporation per lb. of coal at 212° would be $14.42 \times .65 = 9.37$ lbs.

In the case of anthracite coal, in which the combustible portion is, say, 97% volatile matter, the highest result that can be expected in all conditions favorable is 12.2 lbs. of water evaporated per lb. of combustible, which is 80% of 15.28 lbs. the theoretical. With the best semi-bituminous coals, such as Cumontas, in which the fixed carbon is 80% of the total calorific value or 76% of the theoretical 16.4 lbs., may be obtained. For a coal with a fixed carbon ratio of 68%, 11 lbs., or 69% of the theoretical, about the best practically obtainable with the best boilers. With Ohio coals, with a fixed carbon ratio of 60%, 10 lbs., or 66% of 15.09 lbs., has been obtained, under favorable conditions, to reach over the furnace. With coals mined west of Ohio, with fixed carbon ratios, the boiler efficiency is not apt to be as high as 60%. A table of probable maximum boiler-test results from coals with fixed carbon ratios may be constructed as follows:

Fixed Carbon Ratio (%)	97	80	68	60	54	50
Evaporation at 212° per lb. combustible, maximum in boiler-tests:						
per cent.	12.2	12.5	11	10	8.3	7.0
Loss by radiation, imperfect combustion, etc.:						
	30	24	31	34	40	45

The difference between the loss of 30% with anthracite and the greater loss with the other coals is chiefly due to imperfect combustion of the more highly volatile coals sending up the chimney the smoke and unburned hydrocarbon gases. It is a measure of the boiler furnace and of the inefficiency of heating, due to the deposition of soot, the latter being primarily caused by the deposition of the ordinary furnace and its unsuitability to the combustion of bituminous coal. If in a boiler-test with an ordinary furnace are obtained than those in the above table, it is an indication of unfavorable conditions, such as bad firing, wrong proportions of fuel, and the like, which are remediable. Higher results are generally obtained only with gas-producers, or other styles of furnace especially adapted for smokeless combustion.

Furnace Adapted for Different Coals. (From the *Transactions of the American Society of Mechanical Engineers*, Vol. 57.)—Almost any kind of a furnace will be found well adapted for burning anthracite coals and semi-bituminous coals containing less than 20% volatile matter. Probably the best furnace for burning bituminous coals containing between 20% and 40% volatile matter, including the Welsh, Nova Scotia, and the Pittsburgh and Monongahela coals, is a plain grate-bar furnace with a fire-brick arch thrown over the furnace, and the care of keeping the combustion-chamber thoroughly hot. The coals containing over 40% volatile matter will be a furnace with a fire-brick with a large combustion-chamber, and some special care in introducing very hot air to the gases distilled from the furnace, a separate gas-producer and combustion-chamber, with care in bringing both air and gas before they unite in the combustion-chamber. The character of furnace to be especially avoided in burning all coals containing over 20% of volatile matter is the ordinary furnace in which the boiler is set directly above the grate bars, and in which the top of the boiler are directly exposed to radiation from the furnace.

The question of admitting air above the grate is still under discussion. The *Engineer* recently said: "All our experience, extending over many years, goes to show that when the production of smoke is prevented by devices for admitting air, either there is an increase in the amount of fuel or a diminution in the production of steam. * * * The latter yet devised is a good fireman."

Up-draught Furnaces.—Recent experiments show that a considerable saving may be made by causing the air to flow upwards from the freshly-fired coal through the hot coal. The best results are also obtained by the upward draught of air through the coal under the bed of hot coal instead of on top. (See *Transactions of the American Society of Mechanical Engineers*, Vol. 57.)

Calorimetric Tests of American Coals.—From a series of tests of American and foreign coals, made with an oxygen calorimeter, by Geo. H. Barrus (Trans. A. S. M. E., vol. xiv, 816), the following are shown, showing the range of variation:

	Percentage of Ash.	Total Heat of Combustion, B. T. U.
<i>Semi-bituminous.</i>		
George's Cr'k, Cumberl'd, Md., 10 tests	6.1	14,517
	8.6	12,274
Pocahontas, Va., 5 tests	3.2	14,603
	6.2	13,608
	3.5	13,522
New River, Va., 6 tests	5.7	13,555
Elk Garden, Va., 1 test	7.8	13,180
Welsh, 1 test	7.7	13,387
<i>Bituminous.</i>		
Youghiogheny, Pa., lump	5.9	12,941
" " slack	10.2	11,664
Frontenac, Kansas	17.7	10,506
Cape Breton, (Caledonia)	8.7	12,429
Lancashire, Eng	6.8	12,122
	10.5	11,527
<i>Anthracite</i> , 11 tests	9.1	13,189

Evaporative Power of Bituminous Coals

(Tests with Babcock & Wilcox Boilers, Trans. A. S. M. E.)

Name of Coal.	Duration of Test.	Grate Surface, sq. ft.	Heating Surface, sq. ft.	Percentage of Refuse.	Coal burned per sq. ft. of Grate, pounds.	Water evaporated per sq. ft. of Heating Surface per hour, pounds.	Water per pound Coal from and at 212°, lbs.
1. Welsh	13½ hrs	40	1979	7.5	6.3	2.07	11.53
2. Anthracite scr's 1/3 Powelton, Pa. Semi-bit. 4/5.	10¼ h	60	3130	8.8	17.6	4.32	11.22
3. Pittsburg fine slack " 3d Pool lump	4 hrs 10 "	33.7 43.5	1679 2760	13.3	21.9 27.5	4.47 4.76	8.12 10.47
4. Castle Shannon, nr Pittsburg, ¾ nut, ¾ lump.	42¾ h	69.1	4784	10.5	27.9	4.13	10.00
5. Ill. "run of mine" " Ind. block, "very good"	6 days 3 d'ys	1196	1.41 2.95	9.49 9.47
6. Jackson, O., nut .. " Staunton, Ill., nut..	8 hrs 8 "	48 60	3358 3358	9.6	32.1 25.1	4.11 2.27	8.93 5.09
7. Renton screenings, " Wellington scr's'gs., " Black Diam. ser'gs., " Seattle screenings, " Wellington lump., " Cardiff lump. " " "	5 h 50 m 6 h 30 m 5 h 58 m 6 h 24 m 6 h 19 m 6 h 47 m 23 m 21 m 21 m	21.2 21.2 21.2 21.2 21.2 21.2 21.2 21.2 21.2	1564 1564 1564 1564 1564 1564 1564 1564 1564	13.8 18.3 13.8 13.4 13.8 11.7 19.1 13.9 13.9	31.5 337 336.4 31.3 28.2 26.7 23.6 28.9 28.9	2.95 2.93 3.11 2.91 3.52 3.69 3.33 3.33 3.53	6.88 7.89 6.29 6.86 9.02 10.07 9.62 8.95 7.38
8. South P. leattie	21 m	21.2	1564	9.5	34.11	3.57	7.38

1. London, England; 2. Peacedale, R. I.; 3. Cincinnati, O.; 4. Pa.; 5. Chicago, Ill.; 6. Springfield, O.; 7. San Francisco,

above tests the furnace was supplied with a fire-brick arch for the radiation of heat from the coal directly to the boiler.

Wear of Coal. (I. P. Kimball, Trans. A. I. M. E., viii, 204.)—The effect of the weathering of coal, while sometimes increasing its weight, is to diminish the quantity of carbon and displaceable hydrogen to increase the quantity of oxygen and of indisposible hydrogen, and thus to produce a reduction in the calorific value.

The presence of pyrites in coal tends to produce rapid oxidation and mechanical disintegration of the mass, with development of heat, loss of coking power, and spontaneous ignition.

The results of the weathering of anthracite within the furnace, and the effects of exposure of stocked coal are confined to the oxidation of the pyrites. In coking coals, however, weathering reduces and weakens the coking power, while the pyrites are converted from the free state into comparatively innocuous sulphates.

It is found that at a temperature of 158° to 180° Fahr., three coals lost on an average of 3.6% of calorific power. (See also paper by I. P. Kimball, Trans. A. I. M. E., iv, 55.)

COKE.

The solid material left after evaporating the volatile ingredients of coal by the means of partial combustion in furnaces called coke ovens, or retorts, in the retorts of gas-works.

Gas coke is preferred to gas coke as fuel. It is of a dark-gray color, with a metallic lustre, porous, brittle, and hard.

The amount of coke yielded by a given weight of coal is very different in different kinds of coal, ranging from 0.9 to 0.35.

Gas coke, on account of its porous texture, it readily attracts and retains water from the atmosphere, and sometimes, if it is kept without proper shelter, from 0.15 to 0.25 of its weight consists of moisture.

Analyses of Coke.

(Report of John R. Procter, Kentucky Geological Survey.)

Where Made.	Fixed Carbon	Ash.	Sulphur.
Pa. (Average of 3 samples).....	88.96	9.74	0.810
Tenn. " " 4 "	80.51	16.34	1.595
Ala. " " 4 "	87.29	10.54	1.195
W. Va. " " 3 "	92.53	5.74	0.597
Ky. " " 8 "	92.38	7.21	0.562
" " " 7 "	93.33	5.69	0.749

Experiments in Coking. CONNELLSVILLE REGION.

(John Fulton, *Amer. Mfr.*, Feb. 10, 1893.)

Coal Charged.	Ash made.	Fine Coke made.	Market Coke made	Total Coke made.	Per cent of Yield.				Per Cent Lost.
					Ash.	Fine Coke.	Market Coke	Total Coke.	
lb.	lb.	lb.	lb.	lb.					
2,420	99	385	7,518	7,903	00.80	3.10	60.53	63.63	35.57
1,090	90	359	6,580	6,939	00.81	3.24	59.33	62.57	36.02
9,120	77	372	5,418	5,690	00.84	2.98	59.41	62.39	36.77
9,020	74	349	5,394	5,683	00.82	3.07	59.13	63.00	36.18
1,650	340	1365	24,850	26,215	00.82	3.28	59.60	62.94	36.24

These results show, in a general average, that Connellsville coal when coked in a modern beehive oven will yield 66.17% of marketable coke, 0.82% of ash,

Recovery of By-products in Coke Manufacture

many considerable progress has been made in the recovery of by-products. The Hoffman-Otto oven has been most largely used, its principal advantage being that it is connected with regenerators. In 1884 400 Hoffman-Otto systems were running, and in 1892 the number had increased to 1,000.

A Hoffman-Otto oven in Westphalia takes a charge of 6½ tons of coal and converts it into coke in 48 hours. The product of an oven is 1025 tons in the Ruhr district, 1170 tons in Silesia, and 960 tons in the Saar. The yield from dry coal is 75% to 77% of coke, 2.5% to 3% of sulphate of ammonia in the Ruhr district; 65% to 70% of tar, and 1% to 1.25% of sulphate of ammonia in the Upper Silesia, and 68% to 72% of coke, 4% to 4.3% of tar and 1.8% to 1.9% of sulphate of ammonia in the Saar district. A group of 60 Hoffman ovens, therefore, the following:

District.	Coke, tons.	Tar, tons.
Ruhr	51,200	186
Upper Silesia.....	48,000	300
Saar.....	40,500	240

An oven which has been introduced lately into Germany with the recovery of by-products is the Semet-Solvay, which is more efficient than the Hoffman-Otto, and for this reason 73% to 75% of coke is produced from a mixture of 23% to 27% of coal low in volatile matter, and 73% to 75% of coke. Mixtures of this kind yield a larger percentage of gas than the Hoffman-Otto. On the other hand, the amount of gas is lessened, and therefore the ammonia is not so great.

In the manufacture of coke from soft coal in retort ovens those constructed so as to save the by-products formed in the retort, the coke has the disadvantage of being more porous and more easily crushed cell-walls than when the same coal is treated in an ordinary beehive-oven.

References: F. W. Luerman, *Verein Deutscher Eisenhüttenwerke*, *Iron Age*, March 31, 1892; *Amer. Mfr.*, April 28, 1893. An excellent series of articles on the manufacture of coke, by John Fulton, of the Pennsylvania Iron Works, is published in the *Colliery Engineer*, beginning in January, 1893.

Making Hard Coke.—J. J. Fronheiser and C. S. Pritchard, of the Pottsville Iron Co., Johnstown, Pa., have made an improvement in the manufacture by which coke of any degree of hardness may be produced. It is accomplished by first grinding the coal to a coarse powder, and then mixing it with a hydrate of lime (air or water slacked caustic lime).

the coke is very light, 38, 36, and 33 lbs. are regarded as a bushel, from 42 to 50 lbs. are given as the weight of a bushel; in this case could be quite heavy.

Products of the Distillation of Coal.—S. P. Sadler's Handbook of Organic Chemistry gives a diagram showing over 50 chemical products that are derived from distillation of coal. The first derivatives are gas-liquor, coal-tar, and coke. From the gas-liquor are derived sulphate, chloride and carbonate of ammonia. The coal-tar is distilled into oils lighter than water or crude naphtha, oils heavier than water, otherwise dead oil or tar, commonly called creosote,—and pitch. Two former are derived a variety of chemical products.

From coal-tar there comes an almost endless chain of known combinations. The greatest industry based upon their use is the manufacture of dyes. To the enormous extent to which this has grown can be judged from the fact that there are over 600 different coal-tar colors in use, and many more colors are too expensive for this purpose. Many medicinal preparations are derived from the series, pitch for paving purposes, and chemicals for paper-making, the rubber manufacturers and tanners, as well as for the manufacture of timber and cloths.

The composition of the hydrocarbons in a soft coal is uncertain and quite variable, but the ultimate analysis of the average coal shows that it approximates nearly to the composition of CH_4 (marsh-gas). (W. H. Perkin, Trans. A. I. M. E., xx, 625.)

WOOD AS FUEL.

When newly felled, contains a proportion of moisture which varies in different kinds and in different specimens, ranging between 20% and 40%, and being on an average about 40%. After 8 or 12 months' seasoning in the air the proportion of moisture is from 20 to 25%. This dryness, or almost perfect dryness if required, can be produced by laying the wood in an oven supplied with air at about 240° F. When the wood is used as the fuel for that oven, 1 lb. of fuel suffices to expel 1 lb. of moisture from the wood. This is the result of experiments made by Mr. J. R. Napier. If air-dried wood were used as fuel in an oven, from 2 to 2½ lbs. of wood would probably be required to produce the same effect.

The specific gravity of different kinds of wood ranges from 0.3 to 1.2. The fuel value of dry wood contains about 50% of carbon, the remainder consisting of oxygen and hydrogen in the proportions which form the volatile matter. The coniferous family contain a small quantity of turpentine, which is a source of carbon. The proportion of ash in wood is from 1% to 5%. The heat of combustion of all kinds of wood, when dry, is almost everywhere the same, and is that due to the 50% of carbon.

The fuel value is from Rankine; but according to the table by S. P. Sharpless (Trans. A. I. M. E., iv, 36), the ash varies from 0.03% to 1.20% in American woods. The fuel value, instead of being the same for all woods, ranges from 6600 (white oak) to 5546 calories (for long-leaf pine) = 6600 to 9883 British units for dry wood, the fuel value of 0.50 lbs. carbon being 7272.

Fuel Value of Wood.—The following table is given in several references, authority and quality of coal referred to not stated. The weight of one cord of different woods (thoroughly air-dried) is about 4000 lbs.:

Hard maple.....	4500 lbs. equal to 1800 lbs. coal. (Others give 3000.)
.....	3850 " " 1540 " " (" 1715.)
Land black oak..	3250 " " 1300 " " (" 1450.)
Walnut, and elm..	3250 " " 940 " " (" 1050.)
White pine.....	2000 " " 800 " " (" 925.)

As regards the figures in the last column, it is said by Rankine that above it is safe to assume that 2½ lbs. of dry wood are equal to 1 lb. of soft coal and that the full value of the same weight of hickory is very nearly the same—that is, a pound of hickory is more for fuel than a pound of pine, assuming both to be dry. It is not that the wood be dry, as each 10% of water or moisture in wood reduces its value about 12% from its value as fuel.

The average wood of the analysis C 51%, H 6.5%, O 42.0%, ash 0.5%, dry, its fuel value per pound, according to Dulong's formula, $V =$

$[14,500 C + 02,000 (H - \frac{O}{8})]$, is 8170 British thermal units. If the wood ordinarily dried in air, contains 25% of moisture, then the heating value of a pound of such wood is three quarters of 8170 = 6127 heat-units. The heat required to heat and evaporate the $\frac{1}{4}$ lb. of water from the atmosphere, and to heat the steam made from this water to the temperature of the chimney gases, say 150 heat-units per pound to heat the water to 212°, 966 units to evaporate it at that temperature, and 100 heat-units to raise the temperature of the steam to 420° F., or 1216 in all = 3011 heat-units which subtracted from the 6127, leaves 5824 heat units as the net heat value of the wood per pound, or about 0.4 that of a pound of carbon.

Composition of Wood.

(Analysis of Woods, by M. Eugene Chevandier.)

Woods.	Composition.			
	Carbon.	Hydrogen.	Oxygen.	Nitrogen.
Beech	49.36%	6.01%	42.60%	0.91%
Oak	49.64	5.92	41.16	1.29
Birch	50.20	6.20	41.62	1.15
Poplar	49.37	6.21	41.60	0.96
Willow	49.96	5.96	39.56	0.96
Average	49.70%	6.06%	41.30%	1.05%

The following table, prepared by M. Violette, shows the proportion of water expelled from wood at gradually increasing temperatures:

Temperature.	Water Expelled from 100 Parts of Wood.			
	Oak.	Ash.	Elm.	Willow.
257° Fahr	15.26	14.78	15.31	15.31
302° Fahr	17.93	16.19	17.02	17.02
317° Fahr	32.13	21.22	36.91	36.91
391° Fahr	35.80	27.51	33.38	33.38
437° Fahr	44.31	33.38	40.56	40.56

The wood operated upon had been kept in store during two years. Wood which has been strongly dried by means of artificial heat is exposed to the atmosphere, it reabsorbs about as much water as it contains in its air-dried state.

A cord of wood = $4 \times 4 \times 8 = 128$ cu. ft. About 50% solid wood and 50% interstitial spaces. (Marcus Bull, Phila., 1829. J. C. I. W., vol. I. p. 10.)

B. E. Fernow gives the per cent of solid wood in a cord as determined by analysis (J. C. I. W., vol. iii. p. 20):

- Timber cords, 74.0% = 80 cu. ft. per cord;
- Firewood cords (over 6" diam.), 69.44% = 75 cu. ft. per cord;
- " Billet " cords (over 3" diam.), 55.55% = 60 cu. ft. per cord;
- " Brush " woods less than 3" diam., 18.52%; Roots, 37.0%.

CHARCOAL.

Charcoal is made by evaporating the volatile constituents of wood, either by a partial combustion of a conical heap of the material charred, covered with a layer of earth, or by the combustion of a portion of fuel in a furnace, in which are placed retorts containing the material to be charred. *

According to Feclot, 100 parts by weight of wood when charred in a retort yield from 17 to 22 parts by weight of charcoal, and when charred in a furnace from 28 to 30 parts.

As a rule, the ordinary condition of the wood used in the manufacture of charcoal consists of 100 consist of moisture. Of this moisture one half, or 50% of the gross weight, is expelled in an average nearly half of the

uring the partial combustion in a heap, and about one quarter stillation in a retort.

parts by weight of wood in a retort, 12½ parts of wood must the furnace. Hence in this process the whole expenditure of ce from 28 to 30 parts of charcoal is 112½ parts; so that if the arcoal obtained is compared with the whole weight of wood amount is from 25% to 27%; and the proportion lost is on an = 37½ = 0.3, nearly.

to Pecelet, good wood charcoal contains about 0.07 of its weight proportion of ash in peat charcoal is very variable, and is es- n average at about 0.18. (Rankine.)

n Workers' Assn., vols. i. to vi. From this source the following een taken:

Charcoal from a Cord of Wood.—From 45 to 50 e cord in the kiln, and from 30 to 35 in the meller. Prof. Egles- s. A. I. M. E., viii. 395, says the yield from kilns in the Lake region is often from 50 to 60 bushels for hard wood and 50 for he average is about 50 bushels.

ent yield per cord depends largely upon whether the cord is a 128 cu. ft. or not.

months' test of a kiln at Goodrich, Tenn., Dr. H. M. Pierce found ollows: Dimensions of kiln—inside diameter of base, 28 ft. 8 in.; ing of arch, 26 ft. 8 in.; height of walls, 8 ft.; rise of arch, 5 ft.; rds. Highest yield of charcoal per cord of wood (measured) s, lowest 50.14 bushels, average 53.65 bushels.

arges 12, length of each turn or period from one charging to days. (J. C. I. W., vol. vi. p. 26.)

Yield from Different Methods of Charcoal-making.

Different Methods.	Character of Wood used.	Yield.			
		In Volume per cent.	In Weight per cent.	Bushels of Charcoal per Cord of Wood.	Weight in Lbs. per Bushel of Charcoal.
Experiments in retorts, fuel excluded	Birch dried at 220 F.	35.9
Retorts, fuel included	Air dry, av. good yellow pine weighing abt. 28 lbs. per cu. ft.	77.0	28.3	63.4	15.7
Experiments, av. results	Good dry fir and pine, mixed.	81.0	27.7	66.7	13.3
Experiments, av. results	Poor wood, mixed fir and pine	70.0	25.8	62.0	13.3
Experiments in mellers except	Fir and white-pine wood, mixed. Av. 25 lbs. per cu. ft.	72.2	24.7	59.5	13.3
Experiments in mellers, av. results	Av. good yellow pine weighing abt. 25 lbs. per cu. ft.	52.5	18.3	43.9	13.3
Experiments in kilns, av. results		54.7	22.0	45.0	17.5
Experiments in mellers, av. results		42.9	17.1	35.0	17.5

Consumption of Charcoal in Blast-furnaces per Ton of Pig.—Average consumption according to census of 1880, 1.14 tons per ton of pig. The consumption at the best furnaces is much lower average. As low as 0.853 ton, is recorded of the Morgan furnace; also, 0.858; Elk Rapids, 0.884. (1892.)

Properties of Water and of Gases by Charcoal.—Svedlius, a book for charcoal-burners, prepared for the Swedish Government: Fresh charcoal, also reheated charcoal, contains scarcely any water, but when cooled it absorbs it very rapidly. After 24 hours, it may contain 4% to 8% of water. The moisture of charcoal may not increase at 10% to 15%, or an average of 12%. If cooled eight, then, it may contain about 84 parts of ash, and 1 part hydrogen.

M. Saussure, operating with blocks of fine boxwood charcoal burnt, found that by simply placing such blocks in contact with gases they absorbed them in the following proportion:

Volumes.			
Ammonia	90.00	Carbonic oxide.....
Hydrochloric acid gas.....	85.00	Oxygen.....
Sulphurous acid.....	65.00	Nitrogen.....
Sulphuretted hydrogen.....	55.00	Carburetted hydrogen.....
Nitrous oxide (laughing-gas).....	40.00	Hydrogen.....
Carbonic acid.....	35.00		

It is this enormous absorptive power that renders of so much comparatively slight sprinkling of charcoal over dead animal matter preventive of the escape of odors arising from decomposition.

In a box or case containing one cubic foot of charcoal may be placed without mechanical compression a little over nine cubic feet of gas representing a mechanical pressure of one hundred and twenty-lb to the square inch. From the store thus preserved the oxygen may be drawn by a small hand-pump.

Composition of Charcoal Produced at Various Temperatures. (By M. Violette.)

Temperature of Carbonization.		Composition of the Solid Product			
		Carbon.	Hydrogen.	Oxygen.	Nitrogen and Loss.
Cent.	Fahr.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
1 150°	302°	47.51	6.12	46.29	0.08
2 200	392	51.82	3.99	43.98	0.23
3 250	482	65.59	4.81	28.97	0.63
4 300	592	73.24	4.25	21.96	0.57
5 350	682	76.64	4.14	18.44	0.61
6 432	810	81.64	4.96	15.34	1.61
7 1023	1873	81.97	2.30	14.15	1.60

The wood experimented on was that of black alder, or alder which furnishes a charcoal suitable for gunpowder. It was dried at 150 deg. C. = 302 deg. F.

MISCELLANEOUS SOLID FUELS.

Dust Fuel—Dust Explosions.—Dust when mixed in air in such extreme rapidity as in some cases to cause explosions. Explosions in flour-mills have been attributed to ignition of the dust in confined spaces. Experiments in England in 1876 on the effect of coal-dust in carrying mines showed that in a dusty passage the flame from a blown-out candle travel 50 yards. Prof. F. A. Abel (Trans. A. I. M. E., xiii, 260) says that dust in mines much promotes and extends explosions, and that it may be brought into operation as a fiercely burning agent which will flame rapidly as far as its mixture with air extends, and will open explosive agent though the medium of a very small proportion of dust in the air of the mine. The explosive violence of the combustion is largely due to the instantaneous heating and consequent expansion of air. (See also paper on "Coal Dust as an Explosive Agent," by J. Raymond, Trans. A. I. M. E. 1894.) Experiments made in Germany show that pulverized fuel may be burned without smoke, and with economy. The fuel, instead of being introduced into the fire-box of an ordinary boiler, is first reduced to a powder by pulverizers of a special construction. In place of the ordinary boiler fire-box there is a cylindrical chamber in the form of a closed furnace lined with fire-brick, and with a similar construction to those used in stock-piles. It throws a constant stream of the fuel into the fire-box. It is stated that it scatters the powder through

fire-box. When this powder is once ignited, and it is very first raising the lining to a high temperature by an open combustion continues in an intense and regular manner under the current of air which carries it in. (*Mfrs. Record*, April, 1893.) This fuel was used in the Crompton rotary puddling-furnace at Arsenal, England, in 1873. (*Jour. I. & S. L.*, i. 1873, p. 91.)

Turf, as usually dried in the air, contains from 25% to 30% of water, but must be allowed for in estimating its heat of combustion. This fuel has been evaporated, the analysis of M. Regnault gives, in 100 parts of dry peat of the best quality: C 58%, H 6%, O 31%, Ash 5%. In samples of peat the quantity of ash is greater, amounting to 7% and 11%.

The gravity of peat in its ordinary state is about 0.4 or 0.5. It can be dried by machinery to a much greater density. (Rankine.) A steam-engine, i. 61) gives as the average composition of dried Irish peat: C 58%, H 6%, O 30%, N 1.25%, Ash 4%.

Applying Dulong's formula to this analysis, we obtain for the heating value of dry peat 10,260 heat-units per pound, and for air-dried peat containing 10% moisture, after making allowance for evaporating the water, 8,144 heat-units per pound.

Tan as Fuel.—The heating power of sawdust is naturally the same as that of the wood from which it is derived, but if allowed to rot it is more like spent tan (which see below). The conditions necessary for burning sawdust are that plenty of room should be given it in the furnace, and sufficient air supplied on the surface of the mass. The same may be said of hayings, refuse lumber, etc. Sawdust is frequently burned in the furnace, by being blown into the furnace by a fan-blast.

Tan as Fuel.—It has been successfully used as fuel by the Cable Railway, Chicago. It was mixed with soft coal and burned in an ordinary furnace, lined with a fire-brick arch.

Tan as Fuel.—Tan, or oak bark, after having been used for the purposes of tanning, is burned as fuel. The spent tan consists of the residue of the bark. According to M. Pelet, five parts of oak bark contain 1 part of dry tan; and the heating power of perfectly dry tan, containing 30% of water, is 6100 English units; whilst that of tan in an ordinary state, containing 30% of water, is only 4284 English units. The heating power of wet tan evaporated from and at 212° by one pound of tan, equivalent to 5.46 lbs., for perfectly dry tan, 5.46 lbs., for tan with 30% water, 3.84 lbs. Experiments by Prof. R. H. Thurston (*Jour. Frank. Inst.*, 1873, p. 100) gave with the Crockett furnace, the wet tan containing 55% of water, an evaporation from and at 212° F. of 4.34 lbs. of water per pound of tan, and with the Thompson furnace an evaporation of 3.19 lbs. of water per pound of wet tan containing 55% of water. The Thompson furnace consisted of three fire-brick ovens, each 9 feet × 4 feet 4 inches, containing 234 lbs. of grate in all, for three boilers with a total heating surface of 1,170 sq. ft., a ratio of heating to grate surface of 9 to 1. The tan was burned in the top. The Crockett furnace was an ordinary fire-brick furnace, 6 × 4 feet, built in front of the boiler, instead of under it, the heating surface to grate being 14.6 to 1. According to Prof. Thurston, the conditions of success in burning wet fuel are the surrounding of the fuel with heated surfaces and with burning fuel that it may be dried, and then so arranging the apparatus that thorough combustion may be secured, and that the rapidity of combustion be precisely the same as that of dry fuel. Where this rapidity is exceeded the dry portion is consumed completely, leaving a mass of fuel which refuses to take fire.

Wheat as Fuel. (*Eng'g Mechanics*, Feb., 1893, p. 55).—Experiments in England that winter-wheat straw, dried at 230° F., had the following composition: C, 46.1; H, 5.6; N, 0.42; O, 43.7; Ash, 4.1. Heating value in British thermal units: dry straw, 6290; with 6% water, 5770; with 10% water, 5250. The heating value of dry straw ranged from 6250 for buckwheat to 6750 for flax.

Eng'g, vol. 1, p. 62) gives the mean composition of wheat and barley straw: C, 46.1; H, 5.6; N, 0.42; O, 43.7; Ash, 4.1; water, 15.75, the heating value being 6290. The heating value of straw of this composition, according to Dulong's formula, and deducting the heat lost in evaporating the water, is 8144 heat-units. Clark erroneously gives it as 8144 heat-units.

Waste Fuel in Sugar Manufacture.—Bagasse, or sugar-cane, after the juice has been extracted, is burned as fuel.

generated for every pound of carbon consumed, the 66% of generating 397,834 heat units as against 345,200, or a units in favor of the 72% bagasse.

"Assuming the temperature of the waste gases to be surrounding atmosphere and water in the bagasse at 80° F., the quantity of air necessary for the combustion of one pound of the lost heat will be as follows: In the waste gases, heat 450° F., and in vaporizing the moisture, etc., the 66% bagasse 112,546 heat units, and 116,150 for the 72% bagasse.

"Subtracting these quantities from the above, we find that will produce 185,298 available heat units, or nearly 38% of the bagasse, which gives 299,050 units. Accordingly, one ton of cane at 66% mill extraction will produce 680 lbs. bagasse, equal to 185,298 available heat units, while the same cane at 72% extraction will produce 680 lbs. bagasse, equal to 167,468,000 units.

"A similar calculation for the case of Louisiana cane contains 10% fibre, and 10% total solids in the juice, assuming 75% mill extraction that bagasse from one ton of cane contains 157,395,640 units, which 56,146,500 have to be deducted.

"This would make such bagasse worth on an average 10¢ per ton of cane ground. Under fairly good conditions, 1 ton of cane contains 7½ lbs. water, while the best boiler plants evaporate the bagasse from 1 ton of cane at 75% mill extraction about 689 lbs. to 919 lbs. of water. The juice extracted from sugar under these conditions contain 1260 lbs. of water. If we add the water added during the process of manufacture is 10% of the juice made, the total water handled is 1410 lbs. From this in this case, the commercial massecuite would be about 1 ton, the original mill juice, or say 225 lbs. Said mill juice, equals 1650 lbs. liquor handled; and 1650 lbs., minus 225 lb. equals 1425 lbs. the quantity of water to be evaporated during the process. To effect a 7½-lb. evaporation requires 190 lbs. of coal, and 10 lbs. evaporation.

"To reduce 1650 lbs. of juice to syrup of, say, 25° Baumé requires an evaporation of 1770 lbs. of water, leaving 480 lbs. of syrup. If this is accomplished in the open air, it will require about 156 lbs. of coal for boiler evaporation, and 117 at 10 lbs. evaporation.

"With 5 lbs. of coal for each foot the fuel required would be 156 lbs. for boiler evaporation, and 117 at 10 lbs. evaporation.

PETROLEUM.

Products of the Distillation of Crude Petroleum.

American petroleum of sp. gr. 0.800 may be split up by fractional distillation as follows (Robinson's Gas and Petroleum Engines):

Boiling Point	Distillate.	Percentages.	Specific Gravity.	Flashing Point, Deg. F.
140°	Rhigolene. {	traces.	.590 to .625
155°	Chymnogene. }			
185°	Gasolene (petroleum spirit)...	1.5	.636 to .657
	Beozine, naphtha C, benzolene.	10.	.660 to .700	14
	{ Benzine, naphtha B	2.5	.714 to .718
	{ " " A	2.	.735 to .737	32
	{ Polishing oils.
	Kerosene (lamp-oil).....	50.	.802 to .820	100 to 132
	Lubricating oil.....	15.	.850 to .915	230
	Paraffine wax.....	2.
	Residue and Loss.....	16.

As Petroleum, produced at Lima, Ohio, is of a dark green color, and marks 48° Baumé at 15° C. (sp. gr., 0.792). Distillation in fifty parts, each part representing 2% by volume, gave following results:

Sp. Gr.	Per cent.	Sp. Gr.	Per cent.	Sp. Gr.	Per cent.	Sp. Gr.	Per cent.	Sp. Gr.	Per cent.	Sp. Gr.
0.680	18	0.720	34	0.764	50	0.802	68	0.830	88	0.815
.683	20	.728	36	.768	52	.806	70	.825	90	.815
.685	22	.730	38	.772	54	.806	72	.830	92	.815
.690	24	.735	40	.778	56	.806	74	.830	94	.815
.694	26	.740	42	.782	58	.806	76	.810	96	.815
.698	28	.742	44	.788	60	.804	78	.830	100	.815
.700	30	.746	46	.792	62	.808	80	.818		
.706	32	.760	48	.800	64	.812	82	.816		

RETURNS.

per cent naphtha, 70° Baumé, 6 per cent paraffine oil.
 " " burning oil. 10 " " residuum.
 Distillation started at 23° C., this being due to the large amount of gas present, and when 60% was reached, at a temperature of 310° C., hydrocarbons remaining in the retort were dissociated, then gases and lighter distillates were obtained, and, as usual in such cases, the rate decreased from 310° C. down gradually to 200° C., until 75% was obtained, and from this point the temperature remained constant to the end of the distillation. Therefore these hydrocarbons in statu nascendi absorbed much heat. (*Jour. Am. Chem. Soc.*)

The Use of Petroleum as Fuel.—Thos. Urquhart, of Russia (Proc. I. E., Jan. 1889), gives the following table of the theoretical evaporation of petroleum in comparison with that of coal, as determined by Favre & Silbermann:

Fuel.	Specific Gravity at 32° F., Water = 1.000.	Chem. Comp.			Heating-power, British Thermal Units.	Theoret. Evap., lbs. Water per lb. Fuel from and at 212° F.
		C.	H.	O.		
heavy crude oil	S. G. 0.886	p. c. 84.9	p. c. 13.7	p. c. 1.4	Units. 20,736	lbs. 21.48
medium light crude oil ..	0.884	86.3	13.6	0.1	22,027	23.73
heavy " " " ..	0.938	86.6	12.3	1.1	20,138	20.25
very heavy " " " ..	0.928	87.1	11.7	1.2	19,832	19.83
English Coal, Mean samples	1.380	80.0	5.0	8.0	14,112	

difference in the cost of handling the coal, ashes, and oil.
 In 1892 there were reported to the Engineers' Club of P
 comparative figures, from tests undertaken to ascertain t
 of coal, petroleum, and gas.

1 lb. anthracite coal evaporated	
1 lb. bituminous coal	
1 lb. fuel oil, 36° gravity	
1 cubic foot gas, 39 C. F.	

The gas used was that obtained in the distillation of g
 about the same fuel-value as natural or coal-gas of equal.

Taking the efficiency of bituminous coal as a basis, the c
 petroleum is more than 50% greater than that of coal; when
 petroleum exceeds coal only about 45%—the one containing
 and the other 21,000.

Crude Petroleum vs. Indiana Block Co.
raising at the South Chicago Steel Works
 Trans. A. I. M. E., xvii, 807.)—With coal, 14 tubular boiler
 quired 25 men to operate them; with fuel oil, 6 men were r
 of 19 men at \$2 per day, or \$38 per day.

For one week's work 2731 barrels of oil were used, again
 required for the same work, showing 3.22 barrels of oil to b
 ton of coal. With oil at 60 cents per barrel and coal at \$2.1
 ative cost of oil to coal is as \$1.93 to \$2.15. No evapo
 made.

Petroleum as a Metallurgical Fuel.—C. E. Fe
 M. E., xvii, 809) reports a series of trials with oil as fuel in
 open-hearth steel-furnaces, and in raising steam with resu
 In a run of six weeks the consumption of oil, partly refin
 and some of the naphtha being removed), in heating 14-inch
 furnaces was about 6½ gallons per ton of blooms. 2. In m
 open-hearth furnace 48 gallons of oil were used per ton o
 six weeks' trial with Lima oil from 47 to 54 gallons of oil w
 ton of ingots. 4. In a six months' trial with Siemens heat
 consumption of Lima oil was 6 gallons per ton of ingots.
 favorable circumstances, showing hot ingots and rapid

producer, and by utilizing the sensible heat of the gas in place. It ought to be possible to oxidize one out of every two pounds of oxygen derived from water-vapor. The thermic ratios are as follows:

	Heat-units.
CO (3 lbs. gasified with air and 1 lb. with water)	17,600
which furnish 1.33 lbs. of oxygen to combine with 1 lb. of carbon by dissociation	10,333
of 9.333 lbs. CO, 0.167 lb. H, and 13.39 lbs. N, heated	3,748
and loss	3,519
	17,600

is blown into a producer with the air is almost all condensed water before entering the fuel, and consequently water is not liberates 167 lb. of hydrogen, which is delivered to the producer in the same heat that it absorbs in the producer. According to this calculation, therefore, 60% of the heat of combustion is theoretically recovered by the dissociation of the fuel, and the sensible heat of the gas be counted, with radiator items, as loss, yet the gas must carry $4 \times 14,500 = 58,000$ heat-units, or 87% of the calorific energy of the carbon. This is a loss in conversion of 13%, without crediting the gas with the heat required for generating steam, or taking into account the loss due to oxidizing some of the carbon.

In good producer-practice the proportion of CO₂ in the gas is from 4% to 7% of the C burned to CO₂, but the extra heat required to form CO₂ should be largely recovered in the dissociation of more carbon. Therefore does not represent as much loss as it would indicate. If, for example, of energy, this gas has the advantage of carrying 4.46 times as much heat as steam would be present if the fourth pound of coal had been used in the producer.

Gas.—In anthracite coal there is a volatile combustible gas from 1.5% to over 7%. The amount of energy derived from the following theoretical gasification made with the composition: Carbon, 85%; vol. HC, 5%; ash, 10%; 80 lbs. carbon burned to CO; 5 lbs. carbon burned to CO₂; three fourths of the hydrogen derived from air, and one fourth from water.

	Products.		
	Pounds.	Cubic Feet.	Anal. by Vol.
CO	186.66	2529.34	33.4
CO ₂	18.33	157.64	2.0
(distilled)	5.00	116.60	1.6
Heat required, of which			
CO liberate..... H	3.75	712.50	9.4
CO associated with N	301.05	4064.17	53.6
	514.79	7580.15	100.0

above gas obtained from 100 lbs. anthracite:

86 lbs. CO	807,304 heat-units.
100 " CH ₄	117,500 "
75 " H	232,500 "

Heat in gas per lb.	1,157,304 "
" " 100 lbs. of coal	2,948 "
of the conversion	1,349,500 "

and H exceeds the results obtained in practice. The gas as will probably account for this discrepancy, and, therefore, assumes the possibility of delivering at least 80% of the heat of the volatile combustible gas in the producer.

Gas.—A theoretical gasification of 100 lbs. of anthracite coal, and 32% of volatile combustible (which is the amount of volatile combustible in coal), is made in the following table. The carbon is burned to CO and 5 lbs. to CO₂; one fourth of the hydrogen is derived from air, and the remainder from water.

derived from steam and three fourths from air; the heat value of the volatile combustible is taken at 20,000 heat-units to the pound. In making volumetric proportions all the volatile hydrocarbons, fixed or free, are classed as marsh-gas, since it is only by some tentative assumption that even an approximate idea of the volumetric composition can be formed. The energy, however, is calculated from weight.

Process.	Products.	
	Pounds.	Cubic Feet.
50 lbs. C burned to.....CO	116.66	1580.7
5 lbs. C burned to.....CO ₂	18.33	157.6
32 lbs. vol. HC (distilled).....	32.00	746.2
80 lbs. O are required, of which 20 lbs. derived from H ₂ O, liberate..... H	2.5	475.0
60 lbs. O, derived from air, are associated with.....N	200.70	2709.4
	370.19	5668.9
Energy in 116.66 lbs. CO.....	504,554	heat-units.
" " 32.00 lbs. vol. HC....	640,000	"
" " 2.50 lbs. H.....	156,000	"
	1,299,554	"
Energy in coal.....	1,437,500	"
Per cent of energy delivered in gas.....	90.0	
Heat-units in 1 lb. of gas.....	3,484	

Water-gas.—Water-gas is made in an intermittent process, by heating up the fuel-bed of the producer to a high state of incandescence, in some cases utilizing the resulting gas, which is a lean producer-gas, by shutting off the air and forcing steam through the fuel, which disintegrates the water into its elements of oxygen and hydrogen, the former combining with the carbon of the coal, and the latter being liberated.

This gas can never play a very important part in the industrial field, on account of the large loss of energy entailed in its production, yet there are some special purposes where it is desirable, even at a great excess in the unit of heat over producer-gas; for instance, in small high-temperature furnaces, where much regeneration is impracticable, or where the "blow-up" gas can be used for other purposes instead of being wasted.

The reactions and energy required in the production of 1000 feet of water-gas, composed, theoretically, of equal volumes of CO and H, are as follows:

500 cubic feet of H weigh.....	2.63
500 cubic feet of CO weigh.....	36.89
Total weight of 1000 cubic feet.....	39.52

Now, as CO is composed of 12 parts C to 16 of O, the weight of 1000 lbs. is 15.81 lbs. of C and 21.08 lbs. of O. When this oxygen is derived from water, it liberates, as above, 2.635 lbs. of hydrogen. The heat developed in these reactions (roughly, as we will not take into account the energy required to elevate the coal from the temperature of the atmosphere to say 1800°) is as follows:

2.635 lbs. H absorb in dissociation from water $2.635 \times 62,000$	= 164,400
15.81 lbs. C burned to CO develops 15.81×4400	= 69,564
Excess of heat-absorption over heat-development.....	94,836

If this excess could be made up from C burnt to CO, without loss of heat, we would only have to burn an additional 4.83 lbs. C to supply the heat, and we could then make 1000 feet of water-gas from 20.64 lbs. of coal (equal 24 lbs. of 85% coal). This would be the perfection of gas-making, as the gas would contain really the same energy as the coal; but in practice more than double this amount of coal, and do not more than 50% of the energy of the fuel in the gas, because the steam heat is obtained in an indirect way and with imperfect combustion. In fact, this is not often that the sum of the CO and H exceed 50% of the total heat value of the fuel, the balance being made up by the liberating CO₂ and N. But water-gas should be made with much less energy by burning the "blow-up" (producer) gas in brick regenerator, storing up heat of which can be returned to the producer by the blowing-up.

The following table shows what may be considered average

a weight and energy of 1000 cubic feet, of the four types of heating and illuminating purposes:

	Natural Gas.	Coal-gas.	Water-gas.	Producer-gas.	
				Anthra.	Bitu.
.....	0.50	6.0	45.0	27.0	27.0
.....	2.18	46.0	45.0	12.0	12.0
.....	92.6	40.0	2.0	1.2	2.5
.....	0.31	4.0	0.4
.....	0.26	0.5	4.0	2.5	2.5
.....	3.61	1.5	2.0	57.0	56.3
.....	0.34	0.5	0.5	0.3	0.3
.....	1.5	1.5
1000 cubic feet.....	445.6	32.0	45.6	65.6	65.9
100000 cubic feet.....	1,100,000	735,000	322,000	137,455	156,917

Natural Gas in Ohio and Indiana.

(Eng. and M. J., April 21, 1894.)

	Ohio.			Indiana.			
	Fos-toria.	Findlay	St. Mary's.	Muncie.	Anders-son.	Koko-mo.	Mar-ion.
.....	1.89	1.64	1.94	2.35	1.86	1.42	1.20
.....	92.84	93.35	93.85	92.67	93.07	94.16	93.57
.....	.20	.35	.20	.25	.47	.30	.15
.....	.55	.41	.44	.45	.73	.55	.60
.....	.20	.25	.23	.25	.26	.29	.30
.....	.35	.39	.35	.35	.42	.30	.55
.....	3.82	3.41	2.98	3.53	3.02	2.80	3.42
.....	.15	.20	.21	.15	.15	.18	.20

ly 30,000 cubic feet of gas have the heating power of one

Producer-gas from One Ton of Coal.

(W. H. Blauvelt, Trans. A. I. M. E., xviii. 614.)

L.	Per Cent.	Cubic Feet.	Lbs.	Equal to—
.....	25.3	33,213.84	2451.20	1050.51 lbs. C + 1400.7 lbs. O.
.....	9.2	12,077.76	63.56	63.56 " H.
.....	3.1	4,069.68	174.66	174.66 " CH ₄ .
.....	0.8	1,050.34	77.78	77.78 " C ₂ H ₄ .
.....	3.4	4,463.52	519.02	141.54 " C + 377.44 lbs. O.
.....	58.2	76,404.96	5659.63	7350.17 " Air.
.....	100.0	131,280.00	8945.85	

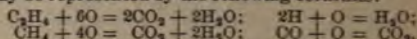
on this basis, the 131,280 ft. of gas from the ton of coal con-
 tains 1159.6 lbs. carbon and 734.4 lbs. volatile com-
 erts of which is 31,302,300 B.T.U. Hence, in the processes of
 purification there was a loss of 35.2% of the energy of the

of the hydrocarbons in a soft coal is uncertain and quite
 ultimate analysis of the average coal shows that
 arly to the composition of CH₄ (marsh-gas).
 emphasizes the following points as highly importa
 tance:

First. That a large percentage of the energy of the coal is lost if gas is made in the ordinary low producer and cooled to the temperature of the air before being used. To prevent these sources of loss, the producer should be placed so as to lose as little as possible of the sensible heat of the gas, and prevent condensation of the hydrocarbon vapors. A high temperature should be carried, keeping the producer cool on top, thereby preventing breaking-down of the hydrocarbons and the deposit of soot, as well as keeping the carbonic acid low.

Second. That a producer should be blown with as much steam into the air as will maintain incandescence. This reduces the percent of nitrogen and increases the hydrogen, thereby greatly enriching the gas. The temperature of the producer is kept down, diminishing the loss by radiation through the walls, and in a large measure preventing the decomposition of the hydrocarbons.

The Combustion of Producer-gas. (H. H. Campbell, A. I. M. E., xix, 128.)—The combustion of the components of ordinary producer-gas may be represented by the following formulae:



AVERAGE COMPOSITION BY VOLUME OF PRODUCER-GAS: A, MADE WITH GRATES, NO STEAM IN BLAST; B, OPEN GRATES, STEAM-JET IN BLAST. SAMPLES OF EACH.

	CO ₂ .	O.	C ₂ H ₄ .	CO.	H.	CH ₄ .
A min	3.6	0.4	0.2	20.0	5.3	3.0
A max	5.6	0.4	0.4	24.8	8.5	5.2
A average... ..	4.84	0.4	0.34	22.1	6.8	3.74
B min	4.6	0.4	0.2	20.8	6.9	2.2
B max	6.0	0.8	0.4	24.0	9.8	3.4
B average... ..	5.3	0.54	0.36	22.74	8.37	2.56

The coal used contained carbon 82%, hydrogen 4.7%.

The following are analyses of products of combustion:

	CO ₂ .	O.	CO.	CH ₄ .	H.	K.
Minimum	15.2	0.2	trace.	trace.	trace.	21.1
Maximum	17.2	1.6	2.0	0.6	2.0	22.2
Average	16.3	0.8	0.4	0.1	0.2	21.2

Use of Steam in Producers and in Boiler-furnaces.

W. Raymond, Trans. A. I. M. E., xx, 635.)—No possible use of steam can cause a gain of heat. If steam be introduced into a bed of incandescent carbon it is decomposed into hydrogen and oxygen.

The heat absorbed by the reduction of one pound of steam to hydrogen is much greater in amount than the heat generated by the union of the oxygen thus set free with carbon, forming either carbonic oxide or carbonic acid. Consequently, the effect of steam alone upon a bed of incandescent fuel is to chill it. In every water-gas apparatus, designed to produce gas by means of the decomposition of steam a fuel-gas relatively free from hydrogen, the loss of heat in the producer must be compensated by some other heating device.

This loss may be recovered if the hydrogen of the steam is subsequently burned, to form steam again. Such a combustion of the hydrogen is contemplated, in the case of fuel-gas, as secured in the subsequent use of the gas. Assuming the oxidation of H to be complete, the use of steam does not cause either gain nor loss of heat, but a simple transference, the heat absorbed by steam decomposition being restored by hydrogen combustion. In practice, it may be doubted whether this restoration is ever secured. But it is certain that an excess of steam would defeat the reaction altogether, and that there must be a certain proportion of steam, which admits the realization of important advantages, without too great a net loss of heat.

The advantage to be secured (in boiler furnaces using small amounts of anthracite) consists principally in the transfer of heat from the lower part of the fire, where it is not wanted, to the upper side, where it is needed. The decomposition of the steam below cools the fuel and the grate, whereas a blast of air alone would produce, at that point, intense oxidation (forming the first CO₂), to the injury of the grate, the fusion of the fuel, and the formation of a hard scale.

The most economical is not easily determined, as it depends upon the nature of the fuel mixture, the quantity of steam, and the primary air-supply, introduced into the grate.

the fire-bed, are factors affecting the problem. (See Trans. I., xx, 625.)

Analyses by Volume and by Weight.—To convert an analysed mixed gas by volume into analysis by weight: Multiply the per cent of each constituent gas by the density of that gas (see p. 166). Divide the product by the sum of the products to obtain the percentages by weight.

Fuel for Small Furnaces.—E. P. Reichhelm (*Am. Mach.*, 1895) discusses the use of gaseous fuel for forge fires, for dropping annealing-ovens and furnaces for melting brass and copper, for tanning, muffle-furnaces, and kilns. Under ordinary conditions, in furnaces he estimates that the loss by draught, radiation, and the space not occupied by work is, with coal, 80%, with petroleum 70%, gas above the grade of producer-gas 25%. He gives the following comparative cost of fuels, as used in these furnaces:

Kind of Gas.	No. of Heat-units in 1,000 cu. ft. used.	No. of Heat-units in Furnaces after Deducing 25% Loss.	Average Cost per 1,000 Ft.	Cost of 1,000 Heat-units Obtained in Furnaces.
Gas	1,000,000	750,000		
20 candle-power	675,000	506,250	\$1.25	\$2.46
Water-gas	646,000	484,500	1.00	2.06
Gas, 20 candle-power	690,000	517,500	.90	1.73
Gas from coke	313,000	234,750	.40	1.70
Gas from bituminous coal	377,000	282,750	.45	1.59
Gas and producer-gas mixed	185,000	138,750	.20	1.44
Producer-gas	150,000	112,500	.15	1.33
Producer-gas, fuel $2\frac{1}{2}$ gals. per 1000 ft.	306,367	229,774	.15	.65
per ton, per 1,000,000 heat-units utilized				.73
Producer-gas, 3 cts. per gal., per 1,000,000 heat-units				.73

Reichhelm gives the following figures from practice in melting brass and with naphtha converted into gas: 1800 lbs. of metal require 1 ton of coal, at \$4.65 per ton, equal to \$2.51, or, say, 15 cents per 100 lbs. report : 2500 lbs. of metal require 47 gals. of naphtha, at 6 cents per gallon to \$2.82, or, say, 11 $\frac{1}{4}$ cents per 100 lbs.

ILLUMINATING-GAS.

Producer-gas is made by distilling bituminous coal in retorts. The retort is a long horizontal semi-cylindrical or \square shaped chamber, holding 60 to 300 lbs. of coal. The retorts are set in "benches" of from 10 to 20, heated by one fire, which is generally of coke. The vapors distilled from the coal are converted into a fixed gas by passing through the retort, which is heated almost to whiteness.

The gas passes out of the retort through an "ascension-pipe" into a long vertical pipe called the hydraulic main, where it deposits a portion of its tar; it contains; thence it goes into a condenser, a series of iron tubes cooled by cold water, where it is freed from condensable vapors, as ammonia-water, then into a washer, where it is exposed to jets of water, then to a scrubber, a large chamber partially filled with trays made of iron or wood, containing coke, fragments of brick or paving-stones, which it is washed with a spray of water. By the washer and scrubber the gas is freed from the last portion of tar and ammonia and from some of the sulphur compounds. The gas is then finally purified from sulphur compounds by passing it through lime or oxide of iron. The gas is drawn from the hydraulic main and forced through the washer, scrubber, etc., by an exhaust pump.

The coal used is generally caking bituminous, but as the gas is deficient in gases of high illuminating power, there is added to it either cannel coal or other enricher.

The following table, abridged from one in Johnson's Cyclopaedia, gives the candle power, etc., of some gas-coals and enrichers.

Gas-coals, etc.	Vol. Matter.	Fixed Carb.	Ash.	Gas per ton of 2240 lbs. in cu. ft.	Cand.-power of Gas.	Coke per ton of 2240 lbs.
						lbs.
Pittsburgh, Pa.	36.76	51.93	7.07
Westmoreland, Pa.	35.00	58.00	6.00	10,642	16.62	1544
Sterling, O.	37.50	56.90	5.60	10,528	18.81	1480
Despard, W. Va.	40.00	53.30	6.70	10,765	20.41	1549
Darlington, O.	43.00	40.00	17.00	9,800	34.95	1320
Petonia, W. Va.	46.00	41.00	13.00	13,200	42.73	1280
Grahamite, W. Va.	53.50	44.50	2.00	15,000	38.70	7026

The products of the distillation of 100 lbs. of average gas-coal are as follows. They vary according to the quality of coal and the temperature of distillation.

Coke, 64 to 65 lbs.; tar, 6.5 to 7.5 lbs.; ammonia liquor, 10 to 12 lbs. of gas, 15 to 12 lbs.; impurities and loss, 4.5% to 3.5%.

The composition of the gas by volume ranges about as follows: hydrogen, 38% to 48%; carbonic oxide, 2% to 14%; marsh-gas (Methane, CH_4) 31%; heavy hydrocarbons (C_2H_2 , ethylene, propylene, benzole vapour) 7.5% to 4.5%; nitrogen, 1% to 3%.

In the burning of the gas the nitrogen is inert; the hydrogen and carbonic oxide give heat but no light. The luminosity of the flame is due to the composition by heat of the heavy hydrocarbons into lighter hydrocarbons and carbon, the latter being separated in a state of extreme subdivision. By the heat of the flame this separated carbon is heated to incandescence, and the illuminating effect of the flame is due to the light of the incandescence of the particles of carbon.

The attainment of the highest degree of luminosity of the flame, upon the proper adjustment of the proportion of the heavy hydrocarbons (with due regard to their individual character) to the nature of the mixed therewith.

Investigations of Percy F. Frankland show that mixtures of ethylene and hydrogen cease to have any luminous effect when the proportion of ethylene does not exceed 10% of the whole. Mixtures of ethylene and carbonic oxide cease to have any luminous effect when the proportion of ethylene does not exceed 20%, while all mixtures of ethylene and marsh-gas have a more or less luminous effect. The luminosity of a mixture of 10% ethylene and 90% marsh-gas being equal to about 18 candles, and that of one of 25% ethylene and 75% marsh-gas about 25 candles. The illuminating effect of marsh-gas alone, when burned in an argand burner, is by no means inconsistent with the above.

For further description, see the Treatises on Gas by King, Richards, and Hughes; also Appleton's Cyc. Mech., vol. I, p. 900.

Water-gas.—Water-gas is obtained by passing steam through red-hot coal, coke, or charcoal heated to redness or beyond. The steam is decomposed, its hydrogen being liberated and its oxygen burning the carbon of the fuel, producing carbonic-oxide gas. The chemical reaction is $\text{C} + \text{H}_2\text{O} = \text{CO} + \text{H}_2$, or $2\text{C} + 2\text{H}_2\text{O} = \text{C} + \text{CO}_2 + 4\text{H}$, followed by a splitting of the CO_2 , making $2\text{CO} + 4\text{H}$. By weight the normal gas $\text{CO} + 2\text{H}_2$ is composed of $\text{C} + \text{O} + 4\text{H} = 28$ parts CO and 2 parts H, or 93.33% CO and 6.67% H.

Water-gas produced as above described has great heating-power, but little illuminating-power. It may, however, be used for lighting by causing it to whiteness some solid substance, as is done in the Woburn system of descent light.

An illuminating-gas is made from water-gas by adding to it hydrogen gas or vapors, which are usually obtained from petroleum or some other hydrocarbon products. A history of the development of modern illuminating-gas processes, together with a description of the most recent forms of apparatus, is given by Alex. C. Humphreys, in a paper on "Water-gas in its various applications," read before the Mechanical Section of the British Association, in 1859. After describing many recent improvements in the manufacture of water-gas, he says that

en the process of T. S. C. Lowe was introduced. All the later processes are the modifications of Lowe's, the essential which were "an apparatus consisting of a generator and superheated furnace fired; the superheater being heated by the secondary room from the generator, the heat so stored up in the loose brick work being used, in the second part of the process, in the fixing permanent of the hydrocarbon gases; the second part of the process being the passing of steam through the generator fire, and the passing of oil or hydrocarbon at some point between the fire of the generator and the loose filling of the superheater."

The gravity of water-gas increases with the increase of the heavy hydrocarbons which give it illuminating power. The following figures, taken from the authorities, are given by F. H. Shelton in a paper on Water-gas presented to the Ohio Gas Light Association, in 1894:

Specific Gravity of Water-gas
 19.5 20. 22.5 24. 25.4 26.3 28.3 29.6 .30 to 31.9
 .571 .630 .589 .60 to .67 .64 .602 .70 .65 .65 to .71

Properties of Water-gas and Coal-gas Compared.

The following analyses are taken from a report of Dr. Gideon E. Moore on Water-gas, 1885:

	Composition by Volume.			Composition by Weight.		
	Water-gas.		Coal-gas. Heidel- berg.	Water-gas.		Coal- gas.
	Wor- cester.	Lake.		Wor- cester.	Lake.	
.....	2.64	3.85	2.15	0.04402	0.06175	0.04559
side	0.14	0.30	3.01	0.00305	0.00753	0.00992
.....	0.06	0.01	0.65	0.00114	0.00018	0.01569
.....	11.29	12.80	2.55	0.18759	0.30454	0.05589
.....	0.00	0.00	1.21	0.03834
not....	1.53	2.65	1.33	0.07077	0.11700	0.07825
side....	28.26	23.58	8.88	0.46634	0.37064	0.18758
.....	18.88	20.95	34.02	0.17928	0.19132	0.41087
.....	37.20	35.88	40.20	0.04421	0.04103	0.06987
.....	100.00	100.00	100.00	1.00000	1.00000	1.00000
theory.	0.5825	0.6057	0.4580
practice.	0.5915	0.6018
in 1 cu.
liquid.	650.1	688.7	642.0
vapor.	597.0	646.6	577.0
p.	5311.2°F.	5281.1°F.	5202.9°F.
power.	22.06	26.31

The values (B. T. U.) of the gases are calculated using the multipliers given below (comp

J. Thomsen), and multiplying the result by the weight of 1 cu. ft. at 62° F., and atmospheric pressure.

The flame temperatures (theoretical) are calculated on the assumption of complete combustion of the gases in air, without excess of air.

The candle-power was determined by photometric tests, using of $\frac{1}{4}$ -in. water-column, a candle consumption of 130 grains of wax per hour, and a meter rate of 5 cu. ft. per hour, the result being for a temperature of 62° F. and a barometric pressure of 30 in. that the candle-power may be regulated at the pleasure of the operator. In the charge of the apparatus, the range of candle-power being five candles, according to the manipulation employed.

Calorific Equivalents of Constituents of Illuminating Gas.

	Heat-units from 1 lb.			Heat-unit	
	Water Liquid.	Water Vapor.		Water Liquid.	Water Vapor.
Ethylene.....	21,524.4	30,134.8	Carbonic oxide..	4,395.6	
Propylene.....	21,222.0	19,834.2	Marsh-gas.....	24,021.0	
Benzole vapor....	18,934.0	17,847.0	Hydrogen.....	61,324.0	

Efficiency of a Water-gas Plant.—The practical efficiency of an illuminating water-gas setting is discussed in a paper by A. C. (Proc. Am. Gaslight Assn., 1890), from which the following is abstracted.

The results refer to 1000 cu. ft. of unpurified carburetted gas, at 60° F. The total anthracite charged per 1000 cu. ft. of gas was 25 and unconsumed coal removed 9.9 lbs., leaving total combustible 23.5 lbs., which is taken to have a fuel-value of 14500 B. T. U. per cu. ft. a total of 340,750 heat-units.

	Composition by Volume.	Weight per 100 cu. ft.	Composition by Weight.	
			Weight.	Percentage.
I. Carburetted Water-gas.	{ CO ₂ + H ₂ S ..	3.8	.465842	.0967
	{ C ₂ H ₂	14.6	1.139968	.3397
	{ CO	28.0	2.1868	.6328
	{ CH ₄	17.0	.75854	.15710
	{ H	35.6	1.991464	.6174
	{ N	1.0	.078596	.01637
	100.0	4.828824	1.0000	
II. Uncarburetted gas.	{ CO ₂	3.5	.429065	.1019
	{ CO	48.4	3.389540	.8051
	{ H	51.8	.289821	.0688
	{ N	1.3	.102175	.0242
	100.0	4.210601	1.0000	
III. Blast products escaping from superheater.	{ CO ₂	17.4	2.133066	.5154
	{ O	3.3	.255006	.0329
	{ N	79.4	6.2405224	.7877
	100.0	8.6501980	1.0000	
IV. Generator blast-gases.	{ CO ₂	9.7	1.189123	.1496
	{ CO	17.8	1.390180	.1680
	{ N	72.5	5.698210	.6884
	100.0	8.277513	1.0000	

The heat energy absorbed by the apparatus is $23.5 \times 14,500 = 340,750$ units = A . Its disposition is as follows:

1. The energy of the CO produced;
2. The energy absorbed in the decomposition of the steam;
3. The loss of heat between the sensible heat of the escaping gas and the entering oil;
4. The energy carried off by the escaping blast products;
5. The energy lost by radiation from the shells;

the heat carried away from the shells by convection (air-currents);
 the heat rendered latent in the gasification of the oil;
 the sensible heat in the ash and unconsumed coal recovered from the
 boiler.
 The heat equation is $A = B + C + D + E + F + G + H + I$; A being
 the heat energy of the gas, B the heat energy of the steam, C the
 heat energy of the illuminating-gases, D the heat energy of the
 sensible heat in the ash and unconsumed coal, E the heat energy
 of the heat rendered latent by the gasification of the oil, F the
 heat energy of the heat rendered latent by the gasification of the
 oil, G the heat energy of the heat rendered latent by the gasification
 of the oil, H the heat energy of the heat rendered latent by the
 gasification of the oil, I the heat energy of the heat rendered latent
 by the gasification of the oil.
 A comparison of the CO in Tables I and II show that $\frac{280}{434}$, or 64.5%
 volume of carburetted gas is pure water-gas, distributed thus: CO₂,
 28.0%; H, 33.4%; N, 0.8%; = 64.5%. 1 lb. of CO at 60° F. = 13.531 cu.
 ft. per 1000 cu. ft. of gas = 280 + 13.531 = 20.694 lbs. Energy of the CO
 94 × 4395.6 = 91,043 heat-units, = B . 1 lb. of H at 60° F. = 189.2 cu.
 ft. per M of gas = 334 + 189.2 = 1.7653 lbs. Energy of the H per lb.
 of steam (according to Thomsen, considering the steam generated by its combustion
 condensed to water at 75° F.) = 61,524 B. T. U. In Mr. Glasgow's ex-
 periments the steam entered the generator at 331° F.; the heat required to
 the product of combustion of 1 lb. of H, viz., 8.98 lbs. H₂O, from water
 to steam at 331° must therefore be deducted from Thomsen's figure, or
 (8.98 × 1140.2) = 51,385 B. T. U. per lb. of H. Energy of the H, then,
 33 × 51,285 = 90,533 heat-units, = C . The heat lost due to the sensible
 in the illuminating-gases, their temperature being 1450° F., and that of
 entering oil 235° F., is 48.29 (weight) × .45786 sp. heat × 1215 (rise of tem-
 perature) = 26,864 heat-units = D .
 The specific heat of the entering oil is approximately that of the issuing

oil. The heat carried off in 1000 cu. ft. of the escaping blast products is 86,592
 (wt) × .23645 (sp. heat) × 1474° (rise of temp.) = 30,180 heat-units: the
 temperature of the escaping blast gases being 1350° F., and that of the
 entering air 76° F. But the amount of the blast gases, by registra-
 tion of an anemometer, checked by a calculation from the analyses of the
 blast-gases, was 2457 cubic feet for every 1000 cubic feet of carburetted gas
 issued. Hence the heat carried off per M. of carburetted gas is 30,180 ×
 2.457 = 74,152 heat-units = E .

Experiments made by a radiometer covering four square feet of the shell
 of the apparatus gave figures for the amount of heat lost by radiation
 = 1454 heat-units = F , and by convection = 15,696 heat-units = G .
 The heat rendered latent by the gasification of the oil was found by taking
 the difference between all the heat fed into the carburetter and super-
 heater and the total heat dissipated therefrom to be 12,841 heat-units = H .
 The sensible heat in the ash and unconsumed coal is 9.9 lbs. × 1500° × .25
 (sp. heat) = 3712 heat-units = I .

The sum of all the items $B + C + D + E + F + G + H + I$ = 327,295 heat-
 units, which subtracted from the heat energy of the combustible consumed,
 340,750 heat-units, leaves 13,455 heat-units, or 4 per cent, unaccounted for.

The total heat energy of the coal consumed, or 340,750 heat-units, the
 heat energy of the steam, or 91,043 heat-units, and the heat energy of the
 illuminating-gases, or 90,533 heat-units, amounting to 132,878
 heat-units, or 39 per cent; the remainder, or 207,872 heat-units, or 61 per
 cent, being utilized. The efficiency of the apparatus as a heat machine is
 therefore 61 per cent.

35 gallons, or 35 lbs. of crude petroleum were fed into the carburetter
 to make 1000 cu. ft. of gas made; deducting 5 lbs. of tar recovered, leaves 30 lbs,
 or 600,000 heat-units as the net heating value of the petroleum used.
 Adding this to the heating value of the coal, 340,750 B. T. U., gives 940,750
 heat-units, of which there is found as heat energy in the carburetted gas, as
 shown in the table below, 764,050 heat units, or 81 per cent, which is the commer-
 cial efficiency of the apparatus, i.e., the ratio of the energy contained in
 the finished product to the total energy of the coal and oil consumed.

The heating power per M. cu. ft. of the carburetted gas is	The heating power per M. of the uncarburetted gas is
38.0	CO ₂ 35.0
146.0 × .117220 + 21222.0 = 363300	CO 434.0 × .078100 + 4395.6 = 148
380.0 × .078100 + 4395.6 = 96120	H 515.0 × .005594 + 61524.0 = 178
170.0 × .044620 + 24021.0 = 182210	N 13.0
356.0 × .005594 + 61524.0 = 122220	
10.0	1000.0
764.0	
764050	

heating value of the illuminants C₁₈H₂₆ is assumed

The candle-power of the gas is 31, or 6.2 candle-power per gallon used. The calculated specific gravity is .6355, air being 1.

For description of the operation of a modern carburetted plant, see paper by J. Steffox, *Eng'g*, July 20, 1894, p. 29.

Space required for a Water-gas Plant.—Mr. Shelton, 15 modern plants of the form requiring the most floor-space, give average floor-space required per 1000 cubic feet of daily capacity as

Water-gas Plants of Capacity in 24 hours of	Require an Area of Floor each 1000 cu. ft. of abo
100,000 cubic feet.....	4 square feet.
200,000 " " ".....	3.5 " "
400,000 " " ".....	2.75 " "
600,000 " " ".....	2 to 2.5 sq. ft.
7 to 10 million cubic feet.....	1.25 to 1.5 sq. ft.

These figures include scrubbing and condensing rooms, but not be engine rooms. In coal-gas plants of the most modern and compact form with 16 benches of 9 retorts each, with a capacity of 1,500,000 cubic feet 24 hours, will require 4.8 sq. ft. of space per 1000 cu. ft. of gas, and 4 benches of 6 retorts each, with 300,000 cu. ft. capacity per 24 hours require 6 sq. ft. of space per 1000 cu. ft. The storage-room required gas-making materials is: for coal-gas, 1 cubic foot of room for 1 cubic feet of gas made; for water-gas made from coke, 1 cubic foot for every 373 cu. ft. of gas made; and for water-gas made from all 1 cu. ft. of room for every 615 cu. ft. of gas made.

The comparison is still more in favor of water-gas if the case is of a water-gas plant added as an auxiliary to an existing coal-gas plant, instead of requiring further space for storage of coke, part already required for storage of coke produced and not at once sold out off, by reason of the water-gas plant creating a constant demand more or less of the coke so produced.

Mr. Shelton gives a calculation showing that a water-gas of 28 would require gas-mains eight per cent greater in diameter than quantity coal-gas of .435 sp. gr. if the same pressure is maintained holder. The same quantity may be carried in pipes of the same if the pressure is increased in proportion to the specific gravity. At the same pressure the increase of candle-power about balances the demand flow. With five feet of coal-gas, giving, say, eighteen candle-power foot equals 3.6 candle-power; with water-gas of 23 candle-power foot equals 4.6 candle-power, and 4 cubic feet gives 18.4 candle-power more than is given by 5 cubic feet of coal-gas. Water-gas may from oven-coke or gas-house coke as well as from anthracite coal, gas plant may be conveniently run in connection with a coal-gas plant surplus retort coke of the latter being used as the fuel of the form.

In coal-gas making it is impracticable to enrich the gas to over candle-power without causing too great a tendency to smoke, but it of as high as thirty candle-power is quite common. A mixture of and water-gas of a higher C.P. than 20 can be advantageously dis-

Fuel-value of Illuminating-gas.—E. G. Love (School Qly, January, 1892) describes F. W. Hartley's calorimeter for determining the calorific power of gases, and gives results obtained in tests of carburetted water-gas made by the municipal branch of the Consolidated of New York. The tests were made from time to time during the years, and the figures give the heat-units per cubic foot at 60° inches pressure: 715, 692, 735, 732, 691, 738, 735, 703, 734, 730, 731, 727, 731 heat units. Similar tests of mixtures of coal- and water-gases of other branches of the same company give 694, 715, 684, 692, 727, 692, 686 heat-units per foot, or an average of 694.7. The average of tests was 710.5 heat-units, and this we may fairly take as represent calorific power of the illuminating gas of New York. One thousand this gas, costing \$1.25, would therefore yield 710,500 heat-units, which is equivalent to 568,400 heat-units for \$1.00.

The common coal-gas of London, with an illuminating power of 20 candles, has a calorific power of about 668 units per foot, and cost 30 cents per thousand.

The product obtained by decomposing steam by incandescence in the Motay process, consists of about 4% of CO, and

is mixture would have a heating-power of about 300 units per cubic foot, £ sold at 50 cents per 1000 cubic feet would furnish 600,000 units for \$1.00, compared with 568,400 units for \$1.00 from illuminating gas at \$1.25 per 1000 cubic feet. This illuminating-gas if sold at \$1.15 per thousand would therefore be a more economical heating agent than the fuel-gas mentioned, at 50 cents per thousand, and be much more advantageous than the latter, in that plain, service, and meter could be used to furnish gas for both lighting and heating.

A large number of fuel-gases tested by Mr. Love gave from 184 to 470 heat-units per foot, with an average of 309 units. Making the cost of heat from illuminating-gas at the lowest figure given by Mr. Love, viz., \$1.00 for 600,000 heat-units, it is a very expensive fuel, equal coal at \$40 per ton of 2000 lbs., the coal having a calorific power of only 83% of that of pure carbon:

$$600,000 : (12,000 \times 2000) :: \$1 : \$40.$$

FLOW OF GAS IN PIPES.

The rate of flow of gases of different densities, the diameter of pipes required, etc., are given in King's Treatise on Coal Gas, vol. ii. 374, as follows:

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} d = \text{diameter of pipe in inches,} \\ Q = \text{quantity of gas in cu. ft. per} \\ \text{hour,} \\ l = \text{length of pipe in yards,} \\ h = \text{pressure in inches of water,} \\ s = \text{specific gravity of gas, air be-} \\ \text{ing 1,} \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} d = \sqrt[5]{\frac{Q^2sl}{(1350)^2h}}, \\ h = \frac{Q^2sl}{(1350)^2d^5}, \\ Q = 1350d^2\sqrt{\frac{dh}{sl}} = 1350\sqrt{\frac{d^5h}{sl}}. \end{array}$$

Molesworth gives $Q = 1000\sqrt{\frac{d^5h}{sl}}$.

J. P. Gill, *Am. Gas-light Jour.* 1894, gives $Q = 1291\sqrt{\frac{d^5h}{s(l+d)}}$.

This formula is said to be based on experimental data, and to make allowance for obstructions by tar, water, and other bodies tending to check the flow of gas through the pipe.

A set of tables in Appleton's Cyc. Mech. for flow of gas in 2, 6, and 12 in. pipes is calculated on the supposition that the quantity delivered varies as the square of the diameter instead of as $d^2 \times \sqrt{d}$, or $\sqrt{d^5}$.

These tables give a flow in large pipes much less than that calculated by the formulæ above given, as is shown by the following example. Length of pipe 100 yds., specific gravity of gas .042, pressure 1-in. water-column.

	2-in. Pipe.	6-in. Pipe.	12-in. Pipe.
$Q = 1350\sqrt{\frac{d^5h}{sl}}$	1178	18,368	103,912
$Q = 1000\sqrt{\frac{d^5h}{sl}}$	873	13,606	76,972
$Q = 1291\sqrt{\frac{d^5h}{s(l+d)}}$	1116	16,327	93,845
Table in App. Cyc.	1390	11,657	46,628

An experiment made by Mr. Clegg, in London, with a 4-in. pipe, 6 miles long, pressure 3 in. of water, specific gravity of gas .398, gave a discharge of the atmosphere of 852 cu. ft. per hour, after a correction of 33 cu. ft. made for leakage.

Substituting this value, 852 cu. ft., for Q in the formula $Q = C\sqrt{\frac{d^5h}{sl}}$, and C , the coefficient, = 997, which corresponds nearly with the value given by Molesworth.

Services for Lamps. (Molesworth.)

Lamps.	Ft. from Main.	Require Pipe-bore.	Lamps.	Ft. from Main.	Re Pipe
2	40	$\frac{1}{2}$ in.	15	130	1 1
4	50	$\frac{3}{4}$ in.	25	150	1 1
6	50	$\frac{3}{4}$ in.	25	180	1 1
10	100	$\frac{3}{4}$ in.	35	200	1 1

(In cold climates no service less than $\frac{1}{2}$ in. should be used.)

Maximum Supply of Gas through Pipes in cu. ft. per Hour, Specific Gravity being taken at .45, calculated from the Formula $Q = 1000 \sqrt{d^5 h + st}$. (Molesworth.)

LENGTH OF PIPE = 10 YARDS.

Diameter of Pipe in Inches.	Pressure by the Water-gauge in Inches.								
	.1	.2	.3	.4	.5	.6	.7	.8	.9
$\frac{3}{8}$	13	18	22	26	29	31	34	36	38
$\frac{1}{2}$	26	37	46	53	59	64	70	74	78
$\frac{3}{4}$	73	100	126	145	162	187	192	205	211
1	149	211	255	298	333	365	394	422	447
1 $\frac{1}{4}$	260	368	451	521	582	638	689	737	781
1 $\frac{3}{4}$	411	581	711	821	915	1006	1082	1152	1218
2	843	1192	1460	1686	1886	2066	2231	2385	2528

LENGTH OF PIPE = 100 YARDS.

	Pressure by the Water-gauge in Inches.									
	.1	.2	.3	.4	.5	.75	1.0	1.25	1.5	2
$\frac{1}{8}$	8	12	14	17	19	23	26	29	32	37
$\frac{3}{8}$	23	32	42	46	51	63	73	81	89	103
1	47	67	89	94	105	129	149	167	183	211
1 $\frac{1}{4}$	82	116	143	165	184	225	263	291	319	369
1 $\frac{3}{4}$	130	184	225	260	290	356	411	459	503	583
2	267	377	462	533	596	730	843	943	1033	1192
2 $\frac{1}{2}$	466	659	807	932	1042	1276	1478	1647	1804	2083
3	735	1039	1270	1470	1643	2012	2328	2598	2846	3283
3 $\frac{1}{2}$	1080	1528	1871	2161	2416	2968	3416	3830	4184	4813
4	1508	2133	2613	3017	3373	4131	4770	5333	5842	6713

LENGTH OF PIPE = 1000 YARDS.

	Pressure by the Water-gauge in Inches.					
	.5	.75	1.0	1.5	2.0	2.5
1	33	41	47	58	67	75
1 $\frac{1}{4}$	92	113	130	159	184	206
2	189	231	267	327	377	422
2 $\frac{1}{4}$	329	403	466	571	659	737
3	520	636	735	900	1039	1162
4	1067	1306	1508	1847	2131	2385
5			2635	3237	3727	4167
6			4157	5091	5879	6633

LENGTH OF PIPE = 5000 YARDS.

Per cent	Pressure by the Water-gauge in Inches.				
	1.0	1.5	2.0	2.5	3.0
	119	146	169	189	207
	329	402	465	520	569
	675	826	955	1067	1168
	1179	1443	1667	1863	2041
	1859	2277	2629	2939	3220
	2733	3347	3865	4321	4734
	3816	4674	5397	6034	6610
	5123	6274	7245	8100	8873
	6667	8165	9428	10541	11547
	10516	12880	14872	16628	18215

C. C. Humphreys says his experience goes to show that these tables are for a small flow, but it is difficult to accurately check the tables, on account of the extra friction introduced by rough pipes, bends, etc. For one rule is to allow 1/42 of an inch pressure for each right-angle bend. Where there is apt to be trouble from frost it is well to use no service of meter than 3/4 in., no matter how short it may be. In extremely cold climates this is now often increased to 1 in., even for a single lamp. The best in the U. S. now condemns any service less than 3/4 in.

STEAM.

Temperature of Steam in contact with water depends upon the pressure under which it is generated. At the ordinary atmospheric pressure (14.7 lbs. per sq. in.) its temperature is 212° F. As the pressure is increased, as by the steam being generated in a closed vessel, its temperature that of the water in its presence, increases.

Saturated Steam is steam of the temperature due to its pressure—superheated steam is steam heated to a temperature above that due to its pressure.

Wet Steam is steam which contains no moisture. It may be either saturated or superheated.

Wet Steam is steam containing intermingled moisture, mist, or spray, at the same temperature as dry saturated steam of the same pressure.

When introduced into the presence of superheated steam will flash into water until the temperature of the steam is reduced to that due to its pressure. Water in the presence of saturated steam has the same temperature as the steam. Should cold water be introduced, lowering the temperature of the whole mass, some of the steam will be condensed, reducing the pressure and temperature of the remainder, until an equilibrium is established.

Temperature and Pressure of Saturated Steam.—The relation between the temperature and the pressure of steam, according to Rankine's experiments, is expressed by the formula (Buchanan's, as given by Rankine),

$$t = \frac{6.1993544 - \log p}{2988.16} - 371.85,$$

in which p is the pressure in pounds per square inch and t the temperature of the steam in Fahrenheit degrees. This formula has accuracy between 120° F. and 446° F., corresponding to pressures from 1.68 lbs. to 445 lbs. per square inch. (For other formulae see Rankine and Peabody's Thermodynamics.)

Total Heat of Saturated Steam (above 32° F.).—According to Rankine's experiments, the formula for total heat of steam is $H = 1091.7 + 0.32t$, in which t is temperature Fahr., and H the heat-units. (Rounded off many others; Clark gives 1091.16 instead of 1091.7.)

Latent Heat of Steam.—The formula for latent heat of steam, as given by Rankine and others, is $L = 1091.7 - .695(t - 32^\circ)$. (Clausius's formula in Fahrenheit units, as given by Clark, is $L = 1092.6 - .708t$.)

Work.)—The following formulas are sufficiently accurate within the given ranges of pressure (Clark, S. E.):

From 14.7 lbs. to 50 lbs. total pressure per square inch...
From 50 lbs. to 300 lbs. total pressure per square inch...

Heat required to Generate 1 lb. of Steam from Water at 32° F.

Sensible heat, to raise the water from 32° to 212° = ...

Latent heat, 1, of the formation of steam at 212° = ...

2, of expansion against the atmospheric pressure, 2116.4 lbs. per sq. ft. \times 26.36 cu. ft.
= 55,786 foot-pounds \div 778 =

Total heat above 32° F.

The Heat Unit, or British Thermal Unit.

The heat-unit used in this work is that of Rankine, accepted by writers, viz., the quantity of heat required to raise the temperature of water 1° F. at or near its temperature of maximum. Peabody's definition, the heat required to raise a pound of water 6° F. is not generally accepted. (See Thurston, Trans. Am. Soc. Mech. Engrs., xiii. 351.)

Specific Heat of Saturated Steam.—The specific heat of saturated steam is .305, that of water being 1; or it is 1.281, if the expression .305 for specific heat is taken in a compound form, to changes both of volume and of pressure which takes place in the formation of saturated steam. (Clark, S. E.)

This statement by Clark is not strictly accurate. When the temperature of saturated steam is elevated, water being present and the steam being saturated, water is evaporated. To raise the temperature of water 1° F. requires 1 thermal unit, and to evaporate it at that temperature requires 0.695 less thermal unit, the latent heat of saturation being 0.695 B.T.U. for each increase of temperature of 1°. The specific heat of water and its saturated vapor combine

me of water, the volume of water being measured at the temperature t . The relative volume is found by multiplying the volume in cu. ft. of steam by the weight of a cu. ft. of water at 32° F., or 62.425 lbs.

Gaseous Steam.—When saturated steam is superheated, or superheated with heat, it advances from the condition of saturation into that of dry. The gaseous state is only arrived at by considerably elevating the temperature, supposing the pressure remains the same. Steam thus sufficiently superheated is known as gaseous steam or steam gas.

Total Heat of Gaseous Steam.—Regnault found that the total heat of gaseous steam increased, like that of saturated steam, uniformly with the temperature, and at the rate of .475 thermal units per pound for each degree of temperature, under a constant pressure.

A general formula for the total heat of gaseous steam produced from one pound of water at 32° F. is $H = 1074.6 + .475t$. [This formula is for vapor generated at 32° . It is not true if generated at 212° , or at any other temperature than 32° . (Prof. Wood.)]

The **Specific Heat of Gaseous Steam** is .475, under constant pressure, as found by Regnault. It is identical with the coefficient of increase of total heat for each degree of temperature. [This is at atmospheric pressure and 212° temperature. He found it not true for any other pressure. It indicates that it would be less at higher temperatures. (Prof. Wood.)]

The **Specific Density of Gaseous Steam** is .623, that of air being 1.000. That is to say, the weight of a cubic foot of gaseous steam is about five sixths of that of a cubic foot of air, of the same pressure and temperature. The density or weight of a cubic foot of gaseous steam is expressible by the same formula as that of air, except that the multiplier or coefficient is in proportion to the less specific density. Thus,

$$D' = \frac{2.7074p \times .623}{t + 461} = \frac{1.684p}{t + 461}$$

in which D' is the weight of a cubic foot of gaseous steam, p the total pressure per square inch, and t the temperature Fahrenheit.

Superheated Steam.—The above remarks concerning gaseous steam taken from Clark's Steam-engine. Wood gives for the total heat (above 32°) of superheated steam $H = 1091.7 + 0.48(t - 32^{\circ})$.

The following is abridged from Peabody (Therm., p. 115, etc.).

When far removed from the temperature of saturation, superheated steam obeys the laws of perfect gases very nearly, but near the temperature of saturation the departure from those laws is too great to allow of calculations being for engineering purposes.

The specific heat at constant pressure, C_p , from the mean of three experiments by Regnault, is 0.4805.

Values of the ratio of C_p to specific heat at constant volume:

Pressure p , pounds per square inch..	5	50	100	200	300
Ratio $C_p + C_v = k =$	1.335	1.332	1.330	1.324	1.316

Steamer takes k as a constant = 1.333.

SPECIFIC HEAT AT CONSTANT VOLUME, SUPERHEATED STEAM.

Pressure, pounds per square inch.....	5	50	100	200	300
Specific heat C_v	0.351	.348	.346	.344	.341

It is quite as reasonable to assume that C_v is a constant as to suppose that C_p is constant, as has been assumed. If we take C_v to be constant, then C_p will appear as a variable.

If p = pressure in lbs. per sq. ft., v = volume in cubic feet, and T =

temperature in degrees Fahrenheit + 460.7, then $pv = 93.5T - 371p^2$.

Total heat of superheated steam, $H = 0.4805(T - 10.38p^2) + 857.2$.

The Rationalization of Regnault's Experiments on Steam. (J. McFarlane Gray, Proc. Inst. M. E., July, 1889.)—The formulae constructed by Regnault are strictly empirical, and were based entirely on experiments. They are therefore not valid beyond the range of temperatures and pressures observed.

Gray has made a most elaborate calculation, based not on experimental fundamental principles of thermodynamics, from which to deduce the pressure and total heat of steam, and presents the

lated therefrom which show substantial agreement with Regnault's. He gives the following examples of steam-pressures calculated for temperatures beyond the range of Regnault's experiments.

Temperature.		Pounds per sq. in.	Temperature.		Pounds per sq. in.
C.	Fahr.		C.	Fahr.	
230	446	406.9	340	644	210
240	464	458.9	360	680	220
250	482	579.9	380	716	230
260	500	691.6	400	752	240
280	536	940.0	415	779	250
300	572	1261.8	427	800.6	260
320	608	1661.9			270

These pressures are higher than those obtained by Regnault's which gives for 415° C. only 4067.1 lbs. per square inch.

Table of the Properties of Saturated Steam.—In the following tables the figures for temperature, total heat, and latent heat are taken, up to 210 lbs. absolute pressure, from the tables in Porter's Steam-engine Indicator, which has been widely accepted as standard by American engineers. The figures for total heat, given in the original as from 0° F., have been changed to above 32° F. The figures for weight per cubic foot and for cubic foot pound have been taken from Dwellshauvers-Dery's table, Trans. A. S. M. E., vol. xi., as being probably more accurate than those of Porter. The figures for relative volume are from Buel's table, in Dubois's translation of Bach, vol. ii. They agree quite closely with the relative volumes of steam from weights as given by Dery. From 211 to 219 lbs. the figures for total heat, total heat, and latent heat are from Dery's table; and from 220 to 270 lbs. all the figures are from Buel's table. The figures have not been given out to as many decimal places as they are in most of the tables given by different authorities; but any figure beyond the fourth significant figure is unnecessary in practice, and beyond the limit of error of the observations and of the formulæ from which the figures were derived.

Weight of 1 Cubic Foot of Steam in Decimals of a Pound. Comparison of Different Authorities.

Absolute Pressure, lbs. per sq. in.	Weight of 1 cubic foot according to—					Absolute Pressure, lbs. per sq. in.	Weight of 1 cubic foot according to—			
	Porter.	Clark.	Buel.	Dery.	Pea-body.		Porter.	Clark.	Buel.	Dery.
1	.0030	.003	.00303	.00299	.00299	130	.27428	.2738	.2735	.2735
14.7	.03797	.0380	.037930376	140	.31386	.3162	.3163	.3163
20	.0511	.0507	.0507	.0507	.0502	160	.35209	.3590	.3589	.3589
40	.0994	.0974	.0972	.0972	.0964	180	.38895	.4009	.4012	.4012
60	.1457	.1425	.1424	.1422	.1409	200	.42496	.4431	.4432	.4432
80	.19015	.1863	.1866	.1862	.1843	2204842	.4822	.4822
100	.23302	.2307	.2303	.2296	.2271	2405245	.5276	.5276

There are considerable differences between the figures of weight of steam as given by different authorities. Porter's figures are from the experiments of Fairbairn and Tate. The figures given by other authorities are derived from theoretical formulæ which are believed to give more reliable results than the experiments. The figures for total heat, and latent heat as given by different authorities show a general agreement, all being derived from Regnault's experiments. See *Tables of Saturated Steam*; also Jacobus, Trans. A. S. M. E., vol.

Properties of Saturated Steam.

Cury.	Absolute Pressure, lbs. per square inch.	Temperature Fahrenheit.	Total Heat above 32° F.		Latent Heat L_v = $H - h$, Heat-units.	Relative Volume, Vol. of Water at 39° F. = 1.	Volume, Cu. ft. in 1 lb. of Steam.	Weight of 1 cu. ft. Steam, lb.
			In the Water h Heat-units.	In the Steam H Heat-units.				
74	.089	32	0	1091.7	1091.7	208080	333.3	.0030
87	.122	40	8.	1094.1	1086.1	154330	2472.2	.0040
56	.176	50	18.	1097.2	1079.2	107630	1724.1	.0058
40	.254	60	23.01	1100.2	1073.2	76370	1223.4	.0082
19	.359	70	33.02	1103.3	1065.3	54660	875.61	.0115
90	.502	80	43.04	1106.3	1053.3	39690	635.80	.0158
51	.692	90	53.06	1109.4	1041.3	29290	469.20	.0213
30	.943	100	63.08	1112.4	1044.4	21830	349.70	.0286
88	1	102.1	70.09	1118.1	1043.0	20623	334.23	.0299
83	1	126.3	94.44	1120.5	1036.0	10730	173.23	.0577
83	3	141.6	109.9	1125.1	1015.3	7325	117.98	.0848
78	4	153.1	121.4	1128.6	1007.2	5588	89.80	.1112
74	5	162.3	130.7	1131.4	1000.7	4530	72.50	.1373
70	6	170.1	138.5	1133.8	995.2	3816	61.10	.1631
67	7	176.9	145.4	1135.9	990.5	3302	53.00	.1887
63	8	182.9	151.5	1137.7	986.2	2912	46.60	.2140
60	9	188.3	156.9	1139.4	982.4	2607	41.82	.2391
56	10	193.2	161.9	1140.9	979.0	2361	37.80	.2641
52	11	197.8	166.5	1142.3	975.8	2159	34.61	.2889
49	12	202.0	170.7	1143.5	973.8	1990	31.90	.3136
45	13	205.9	174.7	1144.7	970.0	1846	29.58	.3381
41	14	209.6	178.4	1145.9	967.4	1721	27.59	.3625
38	14.7	212	180.9	1146.6	965.7	1646	26.36	.3794
34	15	213.0	181.9	1146.9	965.0	1614	25.87	.3986
32	16	216.3	185.3	1147.9	962.7	1519	24.33	.4110
30	17	219.4	188.4	1148.9	960.5	1434	22.98	.4252
28	18	222.4	191.4	1149.8	958.3	1359	21.78	.4402
26	19	225.2	194.3	1150.6	956.3	1292	20.70	.4483
24	20	227.9	197.0	1151.5	954.4	1231	19.72	.4670
22	21	230.5	199.7	1152.2	952.6	1176	18.84	.4808
20	22	233.0	202.2	1153.0	950.8	1126	18.03	.4955
18	23	235.4	204.7	1153.7	949.1	1080	17.30	.5078
16	24	237.8	207.0	1154.5	947.4	1038	16.62	.5208
14	25	240.0	209.3	1155.1	945.8	998.4	15.99	.5253
12	26	242.2	211.5	1155.8	944.3	962.3	15.42	.5317
10	27	244.3	213.7	1156.4	942.8	928.8	14.88	.5371
8	28	246.3	215.7	1157.1	941.3	897.6	14.38	.5425
6	29	248.3	217.8	1157.7	939.9	868.5	13.91	.5478
4	30	250.2	219.7	1158.3	938.9	841.3	13.48	.5520
3	31	252.1	221.6	1158.8	937.2	815.8	13.07	.5562
2	32	254.0	223.5	1159.4	935.9	791.8	12.65	.5604
1	33	255.7	225.3	1160.0	934.6	769.2	12.32	.5646
0	34	257.5	227.1	1160.5	933.4	748.0	11.98	.5688
35	259.2	228.8	1161.0	932.2	727.9	11.62	.5730	
36	260.8	230.5	1161.5	931.0	708.8	11.28	.5772	
37	262.5	232.1	1162.0	929.8	690.8	10.95	.5814	

Properties of Saturated Steam.

Gauge Pressure, lbs. per sq. in.	Absolute Pressure, lbs. per square inch.	Temperature Fahrenheit.	Total Heat above 32° F.		Latent Heat L , $H - h$, Heat-units.	Relative Volume, Vol. of Water at 39° F. = 1.	Volume, Cu. ft. in 1 lb. of Steam	Weight of 1 cu. ft. Steam, lb.
			In the Water h , Heat-units.	In the Steam H , Heat-units.				
23.3	33	261.0	233.8	1162.5	928.7	673.7	10.79	.06364
24.3	39	265.6	235.4		937.6	657.5	10.53	.06493
25.3	40	267.1	236.9	1163.4	936.5	642.0	10.28	.06721
26.3	41	268.6	238.5	.9	935.4	627.3	10.05	.06949
27.3	42	270.1	240.0	1164.3	934.4	613.3	9.83	.0718
28.3	43	271.5	241.4	.7	933.3	599.9	9.61	.0740
29.3	44	272.9	242.9	1165.2	932.3	587.0	9.41	.0763
30.3	45	274.3	244.3	.6	931.3	574.7	9.21	.0786
31.3	46	275.7	245.7	1166.0	930.4	563.0	9.02	.0810
32.3	47	277.0	247.0	.4	919.4	551.7	8.84	.1131
33.3	48	278.3	248.4	.8	918.5	540.9	8.67	.1153
34.3	49	279.6	249.7	1167.2	917.5	530.5	8.50	.1176
35.3	50	280.9	251.0	.6	916.6	520.5	8.34	.1198
36.3	51	282.1	252.2	1168.0	915.7	510.9	8.19	.1221
37.3	52	283.3	253.5	.4	914.9	501.7	8.04	.1243
38.3	53	284.5	254.7	.7	914.0	492.8	7.90	.1266
39.3	54	285.7	256.0	1169.1	913.1	484.2	7.76	.1288
40.3	55	286.9	257.2	.4	912.3	475.9	7.63	.1311
41.3	56	288.1	258.3	.8	911.5	467.9	7.50	.1333
42.3	57	289.1	259.5	1170.1	910.6	460.2	7.38	.1355
43.3	58	290.3	260.7	.5	909.8	452.7	7.26	.1377
44.3	59	291.4	261.8	.8	909.0	445.5	7.14	.1400
45.3	60	292.5	262.9	1171.2	908.2	438.5	7.03	.1422
46.3	61	293.6	264.0	.5	907.5	431.7	6.92	.1444
47.3	62	294.7	265.1	.8	906.7	425.2	6.82	.1466
48.3	63	295.7	266.2	1172.1	905.9	418.8	6.73	.1488
49.3	64	296.8	267.2	.4	905.2	412.6	6.62	.1511
50.3	65	297.8	268.3	.8	904.5	406.6	6.53	.1533
51.3	66	298.8	269.3	1173.1	903.7	400.8	6.43	.1555
52.3	67	299.8	270.4	.4	903.0	395.2	6.34	.1577
53.3	68	300.8	271.4	.7	902.3	389.8	6.25	.1599
54.3	69	301.8	272.4	1174.0	901.6	384.5	6.17	.1621
55.3	70	302.7	273.4	.3	900.9	379.3	6.09	.1643
56.3	71	303.7	274.4	.6	900.2	374.3	6.01	.1665
57.3	72	304.6	275.3	.8	899.5	369.4	5.93	.1687
58.3	73	305.6	276.3	1175.1	898.9	364.6	5.85	.1709
59.3	74	306.5	277.2	.4	898.2	360.0	5.78	.1731
60.3	75	307.4	278.2	.7	897.5	355.5	5.71	.1753
61.3	76	308.3	279.1	1176.0	896.9	351.1	5.63	.1775
62.3	77	309.2	280.0	.2	896.2	346.8	5.57	.1797
63.3	78	310.1	280.9	.5	895.6	342.6	5.50	.1819
64.3	79	310.9	281.8	1176.8	895.0	338.5	5.43	.1840
65.3	80	311.8	282.7	1177.0	894.3	334.5	5.37	.1862
66.3	81	312.7	283.6	.3	893.7	330.6	5.31	.1884
67.3	82	313.5	284.5	.6	893.1	326.8	5.25	.1906
68.3	83	314.4	285.3	.8	892.5	323.1	5.18	.1928
69.3	84	315.3	286.2	1178.1	891.9	319.5	5.13	.1950
70.3	85	316.0	287.0	.3	891.3	315.9	5.07	.1972

Properties of Saturated Steam.

Absolute Pressure, lbs. per square inch.	Temperature Fahrenheit.	Total Heat above 32° F.		Latent Heat $L_v = H - h$, Heat-units.	Relative Volume Vol. of Water at 39° F. = 1.	Volume, Cu. ft. in 1 lb. of Steam	Weight of 1 cu. ft. Steam, lb.
		In the Water h Heat-units.	In the Steam H Heat-units.				
86	316.8	287.9	1178.6	890.7	312.5	5.02	.1093
87	317.7	288.7	.8	890.1	309.1	4.96	.2015
88	318.5	289.5	1179.1	889.5	305.8	4.91	.2036
89	319.3	290.4	.3	888.9	302.5	4.86	.2058
90	320.0	291.2	.6	888.4	299.4	4.81	.2080
91	320.8	292.0	.8	887.8	296.3	4.76	.2102
92	321.6	292.8	1180.0	887.2	293.2	4.71	.2123
93	322.4	293.6	.3	886.7	290.2	4.66	.2145
94	323.1	294.4	.5	886.1	287.3	4.62	.2166
95	323.9	295.1	.7	885.6	284.5	4.57	.2188
96	324.6	295.9	1181.0	885.0	281.7	4.53	.2210
97	325.4	296.7	.2	884.5	279.0	4.48	.2231
98	326.1	297.4	.4	884.0	276.3	4.44	.2253
99	326.8	298.2	.6	883.4	273.7	4.40	.2274
100	327.6	298.9	.8	882.9	271.1	4.36	.2296
101	328.3	299.7	1182.1	882.4	268.5	4.32	.2317
102	329.0	300.4	.3	881.9	266.0	4.28	.2339
103	329.7	301.1	.5	881.4	263.6	4.24	.2360
104	330.4	301.9	.7	880.8	261.2	4.20	.2382
105	331.1	302.6	.9	880.3	258.9	4.16	.2403
106	331.8	303.3	1183.1	879.8	256.6	4.12	.2425
107	332.5	304.0	.4	879.3	254.3	4.09	.2446
108	333.2	304.7	.6	878.8	252.1	4.05	.2467
109	333.9	305.4	.8	878.3	249.9	4.02	.2489
110	334.5	306.1	1184.0	877.9	247.8	3.98	.2510
111	335.2	306.8	.2	877.4	245.7	3.95	.2531
112	335.9	307.5	.4	876.9	243.6	3.92	.2553
113	336.5	308.2	.6	876.4	241.6	3.88	.2574
114	337.2	308.8	.8	875.9	239.6	3.85	.2596
115	337.8	309.5	1185.0	875.5	237.6	3.82	.2617
116	338.5	310.2	.2	875.0	235.7	3.79	.2638
117	339.1	310.8	.4	874.5	233.8	3.76	.2660
118	339.7	311.5	.6	874.1	231.9	3.73	.2681
119	340.4	312.1	.8	873.6	230.1	3.70	.2703
120	341.0	312.8	.9	873.2	228.3	3.67	.2724
121	341.6	313.4	1186.1	872.7	226.5	3.64	.2745
122	342.2	314.1	.3	872.3	224.7	3.62	.2766
123	342.9	314.7	.5	871.8	223.0	3.59	.2788
124	343.5	315.3	.7	871.4	221.3	3.56	.2809
125	344.1	316.0	.9	870.9	219.6	3.53	.2830
126	344.7	316.6	1187.1	870.5	218.0	3.51	.2851
127	345.3	317.2	.3	870.0	216.4	3.48	.2872
128	345.9	317.8	.4	869.6	214.8	3.46	.2894
129	346.5	318.4	.6	869.2	213.2	3.43	.2915
130	347.1	319.1	.8	868.7	211.6	3.41	.2936
131	347.6	319.7	1188.0	868.3	210.1	3.38	.2957
132	348.2	320.3	.2	867.9	208.6	3.36	.2978
133	348.8	320.8	.3	867.5	207.1	3.34	.2999
134	349.4	321.5	.5	867.0	205.7	3.32	.3020

Properties of Saturated Steam.

Gauge Pressure, lbs. per sq. in.	Absolute Pressure, lbs. per square inch.	Temperature Fahrenheit.	Total Heat above 32° F.		Latent Heat L_v $= H - h$ Heat-units.	Relative Volume Vol. of water at 39° F. = 1.	Volume, Cu. Ft. in 1 lb. of Steam.	Weights of 1 lb.
			In the Water h Heat-units.	In the Steam H Heat-units.				
120.3	135	350.0	322.1	1188.7	866.6	204.2	2.92	
121.3	136	350.5	322.6	.9	866.2	202.8	2.93	
122.3	137	351.1	323.2	1189.0	865.8	201.4	2.94	
123.3	138	351.8	323.8	.2	865.4	200.0	2.95	
124.3	139	352.2	324.4	.4	865.0	198.7	2.96	
125.3	140	352.8	325.0	.5	864.6	197.3	2.97	
126.3	141	353.3	325.5	.7	864.2	196.0	2.98	
127.3	142	353.9	326.1	.9	863.8	194.7	2.99	
128.3	143	354.4	326.7	1190.0	863.4	193.4	3.00	
129.3	144	355.0	327.2	.2	863.0	192.2	3.01	
130.3	145	355.5	327.8	.4	862.6	190.9	3.02	
131.3	146	356.0	328.4	.5	862.2	189.7	3.03	
132.3	147	356.6	328.9	.7	861.8	188.5	3.04	
133.3	148	357.1	329.5	.9	861.4	187.3	3.05	
134.3	149	357.6	330.0	1191.0	861.0	186.1	3.06	
135.3	150	358.2	330.6	.2	860.6	184.9	3.07	
136.3	151	358.7	331.1	.3	860.2	183.7	3.08	
137.3	152	359.2	331.6	.5	859.9	182.6	3.09	
138.3	153	359.7	332.2	.7	859.5	181.5	3.10	
139.3	154	360.2	332.7	.8	859.1	180.4	3.11	
140.3	155	360.7	333.2	1192.0	858.7	179.2	3.12	
141.3	156	361.3	333.8	.1	858.4	178.1	3.13	
142.3	157	361.8	334.3	.3	858.0	177.0	3.14	
143.3	158	362.3	334.8	.4	857.6	176.0	3.15	
144.3	159	362.8	335.3	.6	857.2	174.9	3.16	
145.3	160	363.3	335.9	.7	856.9	173.9	3.17	
146.3	161	363.8	336.4	.9	856.5	172.9	3.18	
147.3	162	364.3	336.9	1193.0	856.1	171.9	3.19	
148.3	163	364.8	337.4	.2	855.8	171.0	3.20	
149.3	164	365.3	337.9	.3	855.4	170.0	3.21	
150.3	165	365.7	338.4	.5	855.1	169.0	3.22	
151.3	166	366.2	338.9	.6	854.7	168.1	3.23	
152.3	167	366.7	339.4	.8	854.4	167.1	3.24	
153.3	168	367.2	339.9	.9	854.0	166.2	3.25	
154.3	169	367.7	340.4	1194.1	853.6	165.3	3.26	
155.3	170	368.2	340.9	.2	853.3	164.3	3.27	
156.3	171	368.7	341.4	.4	852.9	163.4	3.28	
157.3	172	369.1	341.9	.5	852.6	162.5	3.29	
158.3	173	369.6	342.4	.7	852.2	161.6	3.30	
159.3	174	370.0	342.9	.8	851.9	160.7	3.31	
160.3	175	370.5	343.4	.9	851.6	159.8	3.32	
161.3	176	371.0	343.9	1195.1	851.2	158.9	3.33	
162.3	177	371.4	344.3	.2	850.9	158.1	3.34	
163.3	178	371.9	344.8	.4	850.5	157.2	3.35	
164.3	179	372.4	345.3	.5	850.2	156.4	3.36	
180	180	372.8	345.8	.7	849.9	155.6	3.37	
91	181	373.3	346.3	.8	849.5	154.8	3.38	
2	182	373.7	346.7	.9	849.2	154.0	3.39	
1	183	374.2	347.2	1196.1	848.9	153.2	3.40	

Properties of Saturated Steam.

Absolute Pressure, lbs. per square inch.	Temperature Fahrenheit.	Total Heat above 32° F.		Latent Heat L , $= H - h$, Heat-units.	Relative Volume, Vol. of water at 32° F. = 1.	Volume, Cu. ft. in 1 lb. of Steam	Weight of 1 cu. ft. Steam, lb.
		In the Water h Heat-units.	In the Steam H Heat-units.				
184	374.6	347.7	1196.2	848.5	152.4	2.46	.4066
185	375.1	348.1	.3	848.2	151.6	2.45	.4087
186	375.5	348.6	.5	847.9	150.8	2.43	.4108
187	375.9	349.1	.6	847.6	150.0	2.42	.4129
188	376.4	349.5	.7	847.2	149.2	2.41	.4150
189	376.9	350.0	.9	846.9	148.5	2.40	.4170
190	377.3	350.4	1197.0	846.6	147.8	2.39	.4191
191	377.7	350.9	.1	846.3	147.0	2.37	.4212
192	378.2	351.3	.3	845.9	146.3	2.36	.4233
193	378.6	351.8	.4	845.6	145.6	2.35	.4254
194	379.0	352.2	.5	845.3	144.9	2.34	.4275
195	379.5	352.7	.7	845.0	144.2	2.33	.4296
196	380.0	353.1	.8	844.7	143.5	2.32	.4317
197	380.3	353.6	.9	844.4	142.8	2.31	.4337
198	380.7	354.0	1198.1	844.1	142.1	2.29	.4358
199	381.2	354.4	.2	843.7	141.4	2.28	.4379
200	381.6	354.9	.3	843.4	140.8	2.27	.4400
201	382.0	355.3	.4	843.1	140.1	2.26	.4420
202	382.4	355.8	.6	842.8	139.5	2.25	.4441
203	382.8	356.2	.7	842.5	138.8	2.24	.4462
204	383.2	356.6	.8	842.2	138.1	2.23	.4482
205	383.7	357.1	1199.0	841.9	137.5	2.22	.4503
206	384.1	357.5	.1	841.6	136.9	2.21	.4523
207	384.5	357.9	.2	841.3	136.2	2.20	.4544
208	384.9	358.3	.3	841.0	135.7	2.19	.4564
209	385.3	358.8	.5	840.7	135.1	2.18	.4585
210	385.7	359.2	.6	840.4	134.5	2.17	.4605
211	386.1	359.6	.7	840.1	133.9	2.16	.4626
212	386.5	360.0	.8	839.8	133.3	2.15	.4646
213	386.9	360.4	.9	839.5	132.7	2.14	.4667
214	387.3	360.9	1200.1	839.2	132.1	2.13	.4687
215	387.7	361.3	.2	838.9	131.5	2.12	.4707
216	388.1	361.7	.3	838.6	130.9	2.12	.4728
217	388.5	362.1	.4	838.3	130.3	2.11	.4748
218	388.9	362.5	.6	838.1	129.7	2.10	.4768
219	389.3	362.9	.7	837.8	129.2	2.09	.4788
220	389.7	363.2*	1200.8	838.6*	128.7	2.06	.4808
220	393.6	366.2	1202.0	835.8	123.3	1.98	.5061
240	397.3	370.0	1203.1	833.1	118.5	1.90	.5270
250	400.9	373.8	1204.2	830.5	114.0	1.83	.5478
300	404.4	377.4	1205.3	827.9	109.8	1.76	.5686
370	407.8	380.9	1206.3	825.4	105.9	1.70	.5894
380	411.0	384.3	1207.3	823.0	102.3	1.64	.6101
390	414.2	387.7	1208.3	820.6	99.0	1.585	.6308
300	417.4	390.9	1209.2	818.3	95.8	1.535	
350	432.0	406.3	1213.7	807.5	82.7	1.325	

Discrepancies at 205.3 lbs. gauge are due to the change in pressure.

Properties of Saturated Steam.

Gauge Pressure, lbs per sq. in.	Absolute Press- ure, lbs. per square inch.	Temperature Fahrenheit.	Total Heat above 32° F.		Latent Heat h , Heat-units.	Relative Volume of water at 80° F. = 1.	Volume, Cu. Ft. of steam in 1 lb.
			In the Water h Heat- units.	In the Steam H Heat- units.			
385.3	400	444.9	419.8	1217.7	797.9	22.6	1.167
435.3	450	456.6	432.2	1221.3	799.1	22.1	1.163
485.3	500	467.4	443.5	1224.5	781.0	22.5	.942
535.3	550	477.5	454.1	1227.6	773.5	22.6	.888
585.3	600	486.9	464.2	1230.5	766.2	22.3	.790
635.3	650	495.7	473.6	1233.2	759.6	22.5	.711
685.3	700	504.1	482.4	1235.7	753.2	22.4	.650
735.3	750	512.1	490.9	1238.0	747.2	22.6	.600
785.3	800	519.6	498.9	1240.3	741.4	22.1	.560
835.3	850	526.8	506.7	1242.5	735.8	21.9	.520
885.3	900	533.7	514.0	1244.7	730.6	22.0	.480
935.3	950	540.3	521.3	1246.7	725.4	21.4	.450
985.3	1000	546.8	528.3	1248.7	720.3	20.0	.420

FLOW OF STEAM.

Flow of Steam through a Nozzle. (From Clark on the engine.)—The flow of steam of a greater pressure into an atmosphere less pressure increases as the difference of pressure is increased, and external pressure becomes only 58% of the absolute pressure in the nozzle. The flow of steam is neither increased nor diminished by the fall of external pressure below 58%, or about 4/7ths of the inside pressure, even to the extent of a perfect vacuum. In flowing through a nozzle of the best form the steam expands to the external pressure, and to the volume due to that pressure, so long as it is not less than 58% of the internal pressure. For an external pressure of 58%, and for lower percentages, the ratio of expansion varies from 1 to 1.634. The following table is selected from Mr. Brown's data giving the rates of discharge under a constant internal pressure at various external pressures:

Outflow of Steam; from a Given Initial Pressure at Various Lower Pressures.

Absolute initial pressure in boiler, 75 lbs. per sq. in.

Absolute Pressure in Boiler per square inch.	External Pressure per square inch.	Ratio of Expansion in Nozzle.	Velocity of Outflow at Constant Density.	Actual Velocity of Outflow Expanded.	Discharge per sq. inch of Orifice in 1 min.
75	74	1.012	227.5	220	100
75	72	1.037	286.7	401	100
75	70	1.063	490	521	100
75	65	1.136	680	749	100
75	61.62	1.198	736	876	100
75	60	1.219	765	983	100
75	50	1.434	873	1252	100
75	45	1.575	890	1401	100
75	43.40	1.624	890.6	1446.5	100
75	58% cont.	1.634	890.5	1446.5	100
75		1.624	890.5	1446.5	100

eam of varying initial pressures is discharged into the atmospheric pressure being not more than 58% of the initial velocity of outflow at constant density, that is, supposing the density to be maintained, is given by the formula $V = 3.5853 \sqrt{h}$.

velocity of outflow in feet per minute, as for steam of the initial density:

height in feet of a column of steam of the given absolute initial pressure of uniform density, the weight of which is equal to the pressure on the unit of base.

initial pressure to which the formula applies, when the steam is discharged into the atmosphere at 14.7 lbs. per square inch, is (14.7×5.37) lbs. per square inch. Examples of the application of the formula are given in the table below.

contents of this table it appears that the velocity of outflow into the atmosphere, of steam above 25 lbs. per square inch absolute pressure, increases very slowly with the pressure, obviously because the weight to be moved, increases with the pressure. A velocity of 900 feet per second may, for approximate calculations, be taken as the velocity of outflow as for constant density, that is, taking the steam at the initial volume.

Flow of Steam into the Atmosphere.—External pressure 14.7 lbs. absolute. Ratio of expansion in nozzle, 1.624

Initial Pressure, lbs. per sq. in.	Actual Velocity of Outflow Expanded, feet per sec.	Discharge per square inch of Orifice per min. if H. P. = 30, lbs. per hour.	Horse-power per sq. in. of Orifice if H. P. = 30, lbs. per hour.	Absolute Initial Pressure per square inch, lbs.	Velocity of Outflow as at Constant Density, feet per sec.	Actual Velocity of Outflow Expanded, feet per sec.	Discharge per square inch of Orifice per minute, lbs.	Horse-power per sq. in. of Orifice if H. P. = 30, lbs. per hour.
25	1401	22.81	45.6	90	895	1454	77.94	155.9
30	1408	26.84	53.7	100	898	1459	86.34	172.7
40	1419	35.18	70.4	115	902	1466	98.76	197.5
50	1429	44.06	88.1	135	906	1472	115.61	231.2
60	1437	52.59	105.2	155	910	1478	132.31	264.4
70	1444	61.07	122.1	165	913	1481	140.46	280.9
80	1447	65.30	130.6	175	919	1493	181.58	363.2

Approximate Rule.—Flow in pounds per second = absolute pressure \times area in square inches \div 70. This rule gives results which correspond with those in the above table, as shown below.

lbs. p. sq. in.	25.37	40	60	75	100	135	165	215
per min., by	22.81	35.18	52.59	65.30	86.34	115.61	140.46	181.58
rule.....	21.74	34.23	51.43	64.29	85.71	115.71	141.43	184.29

body, in Trans. A. S. M. E., xi, 187, reports a series of experiments of steam through tubes $\frac{1}{4}$ inch in diameter, and $\frac{1}{4}$, $\frac{1}{2}$, and $\frac{3}{4}$ inch with rounded entrances, in which the results agreed closely with Napier's rule, the greatest difference being an excess of the experimental result of 3.3%. An equation derived from the theory of fluid flow is given by Prof. Peabody, but it does not agree with the experimental results as well as Napier's rule, the excess of the actual flow

Flow of Steam in Pipes.—A formula commonly used for velocity of steam in pipes is the same as Downing's for the flow of water in

iron pipes, viz., $V = 50 \sqrt{\frac{H}{L} D}$, in which V = velocity in feet

L = length and D = diameter of pipe in feet, H = height of column of steam, of the pressure of the steam at

which would produce a pressure equal to the difference of pressure at two ends of the pipe. (For derivation of the coefficient 50, see Essay "Warming Buildings by Steam," Proc. Inst. C. E. 1882.)

If Q = quantity in cubic feet per minute, d = diameter in inches, L = length in feet, the formula reduces to

$$Q = 4.7233 \sqrt{\frac{H}{L}} d^5, \quad H = .0448 \frac{Q^2 L}{d^8}, \quad d = .5374 \sqrt[5]{\frac{Q^2 L}{H}}$$

(These formulæ are applicable to air and other gases as well as steam.)

If p_1 = pressure in pounds per square inch of the steam (or gas) at the entrance to the pipe, p_2 = the pressure at the exit, then $144(p_1 - p_2) = w$ = difference in pressure per square foot. Let w = density or weight per cubic foot of steam at the pressure p_1 , then the height of column equivalent to difference in pressures

$$= H = \frac{144(p_1 - p_2)}{w}, \quad \text{and} \quad Q = 60 \times .7854 \times 50 D^2 \sqrt{\frac{144(p_1 - p_2)}{wL}}$$

If W = weight of steam flowing in pounds per minute = Qw , and taken in inches, L being in feet,

$$W = 56.68 \sqrt{\frac{w(p_1 - p_2)d^8}{L}}; \quad Q = 56.68 \sqrt{\frac{(p_1 - p_2)w^3}{Lw}}$$

$$d = 0.199 \sqrt[5]{\frac{W^2 L}{w(p_1 - p_2)}} = 0.199 \sqrt[5]{\frac{Q^2 w L}{p_1 - p_2}}$$

$$\text{Velocity in feet per minute} = V = Q \div \frac{d^2}{144} = 10392 \sqrt{\frac{(p_1 - p_2)w^3}{wL}}$$

$$\text{For a velocity of 6000 feet per minute, } d = \frac{wL}{3(p_1 - p_2)}; \quad p_1 - p_2 = \frac{wL}{3d}$$

For a velocity of 6000 feet per minute, a steam-pressure of 100 lbs. gauge or $w = .364$, and a length of 100 feet, $d = \frac{8.8}{p_1 - p_2}$; $p_1 - p_2 = \frac{8.8}{d}$. That is, a pipe 1 inch diameter, 100 feet long, carrying steam of 100 lbs. gauge-pressure at 6000 feet velocity per minute, would have a loss of pressure of 8.8 lbs. per square inch, while steam travelling at the same velocity in a pipe 8.8 inch diameter would lose only 1 lb. pressure.

G. H. Babcock, in "Steam," gives the formula

$$W = 87 \sqrt{\frac{w(p_1 - p_2)d^8}{L \left(1 + \frac{3.6}{d}\right)}}$$

In earlier editions of "Steam" the coefficient is given as 300,—evidently an error,—and this value has been reprinted in Clark's Pocket-Book (1898 edition). It is apparently derived from one of the numerous formulæ for flow of water in pipes, the multiplier of L in the denominator being used for the expression of the increased resistance of small pipes. Putting this term

in the form $W = c \sqrt{\frac{w(p_1 - p_2)d^8}{L}}$, in which c will vary with the diameter of the pipe, we have,

For diameter, inches....	1	2	3	4	6	8
Value of c	40.7	52.1	58.8	63	68.8	73.7

instead of the constant value 56.68, given with the simpler formula.

One of the most widely accepted formulæ for flow of water is D'Ar

$\frac{W}{d^5} = \frac{1}{L}$, in which c has values ranging from 65 for a $\frac{1}{4}$ inch pipe to

24-inch. Using D'Arcy's coefficients, and modifying his formula to apply to steam, to the form

$$Q = c \sqrt{\frac{(p_1 - p_2)d^5}{wL}}, \text{ or } W = c \sqrt{\frac{w(p_1 - p_2)d^5}{L}}$$

is,

meter, inches....	1/8	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
c.....	36.8	45.3	52.7	56.1	57.8	58.4	59.5	60.1	60.7
meter, inches....	9	10	12	14	16	18	20	22	24
c.....	61.2	61.8	62.1	62.3	62.6	62.7	62.9	63.2	63.2

In the absence of direct experiments these coefficients are probably as any that may be derived from formulæ for flow of water.

of pressure in lbs. per sq. in. = $p_1 - p_2 = \frac{Q^2 w L}{c^2 d^5}$.

of Pressure due to Radiation as well as Friction.— Ludwig (*Mechanics*, June 30, 1883) gives the following formula for the flow of steam in pipes. He takes into consideration the losses in due both to radiation and to friction.

of power, expressed in heat-units due to friction, $H_f = \frac{W^2 f l}{10 p^2 d^5}$.

due to radiation, $H_r = 0.362 r l d$.

where W is the weight in lbs. of steam delivered per hour, f the coefficient of friction of the pipe, l the length of the pipe in feet, p the absolute pressure, d the diameter of the pipe in inches, and r the coefficient of radiation. f is taken as from .0165 to .0175, and r varies as follows:

TABLE OF VALUES FOR r .

Pipe Covering.	Absolute Pressure.			
	40 lbs.	65 lbs.	90 lbs.	115 lbs.
Red pipe	437	555	630	684
Asphalt composition.....	146	178	193	209
Asbestos	157	192	202	222
Asbestos flock.....	150	185	197	210
Wooden lag.....	100	122	145	151
Mineral wool.....	61	76	85	93
Air felt.....	48	58	66	73

The appended table shows the loss due to friction and radiation in a steam pipe where the quantity of steam to be delivered is 1000 lbs. per hour, $l = 64$ ft., the pipe being so protected that loss by radiation $r = 64$, and the terminal pressure being 90 lbs.:

Friction	Loss by Friction, H_f .	Loss by Radiation, H_r .	Total Loss, L .	Diam. of Pipe, inches.	Loss by Friction, H_f .	Loss by Radiation, H_r .	Total Loss, L .
	197,531	16,768	214,300	3 1/4	376	58,688	59,064
	64,727	20,960	85,687	4	193	67,072	67,265
	25,012	25,152	51,164	5	63	82,940	83,003
	12,025	29,344	41,379	6	25	100	100
	6,173	33,536	39,709	7	12	11	11
	2,023	41,920	43,943	8	6	13	13
	818	50,304	51,122				

If the pipes are carrying steam with minimum loss, then for l and p , the loss of pressure L for pipes of different diameters varies as the diameters.

The general equation for the loss of pressure for the minimal loss of friction and radiation is

$$L = \frac{0.0007025 \cdot d \cdot l \cdot p}{W}$$

The loss of pressure for pipes of 1 inch diameter for different terminal pressures when steam is flowing with minimal loss is expressed by the formula $L = C\sqrt{p}$, in which the coefficient C has the following values:

For 65 lbs. abs. term. pressure.....	$C =$	0.00088
75 " " " " " " " " " " " "		0.00089
80 " " " " " " " " " " " "		0.00090
100 " " " " " " " " " " " "		0.00093
115 " " " " " " " " " " " "		0.00096

In order to find the loss of pressure for any other diameter, divide the loss of pressure in a 1-inch pipe for the given terminal pressure by its diameter, and the quotient will be the loss of pressure for that diameter.

The following is a general summary of the results of Mr. Badger's investigation:

The flow of steam in a pipe is determined in the same manner as that of water, the formula for the flow of steam being modified only by substituting the equivalent loss of pressure, divided by the density of the steam, for the loss of head.

The losses in the flow of steam are two in number—the loss due to friction of flow and that due to radiation from the sides of the pipe. The sum of these is a minimum when the equivalent of the loss due to radiation of flow is equal to one fifth of the loss of heat by radiation. The greater or less loss of pressure—i.e., for a less or greater diameter—the total loss increases very rapidly.

For delivering a given quantity of steam at a given terminal pressure with minimal total loss, the better the non-conducting material of the pipe, the larger the diameter of the steam-pipe to be used.

The most economical loss of pressure for a pipe of given diameter and terminal pressure is the most economical loss of pressure in a pipe of 1 inch diameter for the same conditions, divided by the diameter of the given pipe in inches.

The following table gives the capacity of pipes of different diameters to deliver steam at different terminal pressures through a pipe one half mile long for loss of pressure of 10 lbs., and a mean value of $f = 0.0175$. W denotes the number of pounds of steam delivered per hour:

Diameter of Pipe, inches.	Abs. Term. Pressure.			Diameter of Pipe, inches.	Abs. Term. Pressure.	
	65 lbs.	80 lbs.	100 lbs.		65 lbs.	80 lbs.
	W	W	W		W	W
1	102	113	125	4½	4,397	4,872
1¼	179	198	219	5	5,721	6,329
1½	282	312	346	6	9,024	10,000
1¾	415	459	508	7	13,268	14,701
2	579	641	710	8	18,526	20,528
2½	1,011	1,121	1,240	9	24,870	27,556
3	1,595	1,768	1,956	10	32,364	35,869
3½	2,346	2,599	2,875	11	41,081	45,567
4	3,275	3,629	4,042	12	51,049	56,261

Resistance to Flow by Bends, Valves, etc. (From *Engineering Buildings by Steam*.)—The resistance at the entrance to a pipe through a special bellows joint when the steam is flowing consists of two parts. The head loss is

$$h = \frac{v^2}{2g} + \frac{v^2}{2g} \left(\frac{v}{c} \right)^2$$

where v is the velocity of flow, and the head $\frac{v^2}{2g}$.

resistance of the mouth of the tube. Hence the whole loss of pressure is $1.505 \frac{v^2}{2g}$. This resistance is equal to the resistance of a tube of a length equal to about 60 times its diameter. The resistance of each sharp right-angled elbow is the same as in flowing through of straight tube equal to about 40 times its diameter. For a stop-valve the resistance is taken to be $1\frac{1}{2}$ times that of the elbow.

Steam-pipes for Stationary Engines.—Authorities on engine generally agree that steam-pipes supplying engines should be such size that the mean velocity of steam in them does not exceed 40 feet per minute, in order that the loss of pressure due to friction be not excessive. The velocity is calculated on the assumption that the steam is cut off at each stroke. In very long pipes, 100 feet and upward, it is better to make them larger than this rule would give, and to place a large stop-valve on the pipe near the engine, especially when the engine cuts off at the end of the stroke.

Power, May, 1893, on proper area of supply-pipes for engines showing the practice of leading builders. To facilitate comparison, the sizes of engines have been rated in horse-power at 40 pounds mean pressure. The table contains all the varieties of simple engines, from the Corliss to the Corliss, and it appears that there is no general rule for the sizes of pipe used in the different types. The sizes selected from this table are as follows:

in	2	2½	3	3½	4	4½	5	6	7	8	9	10
Engines	25	39	56	77	100	125	156	225	306	400	506	625
Formula (1)	23	36	51	70	91	116	143	206	278	366	463	571
Formula (2)	24	37.5	54	73	96	121	150	216	294	384	486	600

1 H.P. requires .1375 sq. in. of steam-pipe area.
 Horse-power = $6d^2$. d = diam. of pipe in inches.

.1375 in formula (1) is thus derived: Assume that the linear steam velocity in the pipe should not exceed 6000 feet per minute, then cyl. area \times piston-speed \div 6000 (a). Assume that the av. mean pressure is 40 lbs. per sq. in., then cyl. area \times piston-speed \times 40 \div 6000 = power (b). Dividing (a) by (b) and cancelling, we have pipe area = .1375 sq. in. If we use 8000 ft. per min. as the allowable velocity, the factor .1375 becomes .1031; that is, pipe area \div H.P. = .1031 \times 97 = horse-power. This, however, gives areas of pipe used in the most recent practice. A formula which gives results agreeing with practice, as shown in the above table is

$$\text{Horse-power} = 6d^2, \text{ or pipe diameter} = \sqrt{\frac{\text{H.P.}}{6}} = .408 \sqrt{\text{H.P.}}$$

TABLE OF CYLINDERS CORRESPONDING TO VARIOUS SIZES OF STEAM-ENGINES, BASED ON PISTON-SPEED OF ENGINE OF 600 FT. PER MINUTE, AND ON THE MEAN VELOCITY OF STEAM IN PIPE OF 4000, 6000, AND 8000 FT. PER MIN. (STEAM ASSUMED TO BE ADMITTED DURING FULL STROKE.)

Inches	2	2½	3	3½	4	4½	5	6
	5.2	6.5	7.7	9.0	10.3	11.6	12.9	15.6

plan is followed, the pipe fills with water whenever this boiler is shut and the others are running, and breakage of the pipe may cause serious suits. Never let a junction-pipe run into the bottom of the main pipe, into the side or top. Always use an angle-valve where convenient, as it is more room in them. Never use a gate valve under high pressure and by-pass is used with it. Never open a blow-off valve on a boiler a little then shut it; it is sure to catch the sediment and ruin the valve, but well open before closing. Never use a globe-valve on an indicator pipe, water, always use gate or angle valves or stop-cocks to obtain a clear sage. Buy if possible valves with renewable disks. Lastly, never let a go inside a boiler to work, especially if he is to hammer on it, unless break the joint between the boiler and the valve and put a plate of between the flanges.

Flanges for Steam-nozzles and Steam-pipe, used with Gill Water-tube Boiler, Phila., 1894.

Size of pipe.....	3	4	5	6	7	8
Outside diameter of flange, inches..	9	10	11	12	13	14
Pitch-circle for bolts, diam., " ..	7	8	9	10	11	12
Outside diam. of gaskets, " ..	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	10 $\frac{1}{2}$
Inside diam. of gaskets, " ..	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$
Number of bolts ..	5	6	7	8	9	10
Size of pipe.....	10	11	12	13	14	15
Outside diameter of flange, inches..	16	17	18	19	20	21
Pitch-circle for bolts, diam., " ..	14	15	16	17	18	19
Outside diam. of gaskets, " ..	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	13 $\frac{1}{2}$	14 $\frac{1}{2}$	15 $\frac{1}{2}$	16 $\frac{1}{2}$	17 $\frac{1}{2}$
Inside diam. of gaskets, " ..	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	12 $\frac{1}{2}$	13 $\frac{1}{2}$	14 $\frac{1}{2}$	15 $\frac{1}{2}$
Number of bolts ..	12	13	14	15	16	17

All holes drilled 15/16 in., with a jig accurately laid out.

All bolts to be $\frac{3}{8}$ in. diam. by $3\frac{1}{2}$ in. long under the head.

All bolts to have square heads and hexagon nuts.

The "Steam Loop" is a system of piping by which water of condensation in steam-pipes is automatically returned to the boiler. Its simplest form it consists of three pipes, which are called the riser, the horizontal, and the drop-leg. When the steam-loop is used for returning to boiler the water of condensation and entrainment from the steam through which the steam flows to the cylinder of an engine, the riser is usually attached to a separator; this riser empties at a suitable height the horizontal, and from thence the water of condensation is led into drop-leg, which is connected to the boiler, into which the water of condensation is fed as soon as the hydrostatic pressure in drop-leg in connection with the steam-pressure in the pipes is sufficient to overcome the boiler pressure. The action of the device depends on the following principles: Difference of pressure may be balanced by a water-column; vapors or liquids tend to rise to the point of lowest pressure; rate of flow depends on difference of pressure and mass; decrease of static pressure in a steam-pipe or chamber is proportional to rate of condensation; in a steam-current water will be carried or swept along rapidly by friction. (Illustrated in Modern Mechanics, p. 807.)

Loss from an Uncovered Steam-pipe. (Bjorling on Pump engines.)—The amount of loss by condensation in a steam-pipe carried in a deep mine-shaft has been ascertained by actual practice at the Clay Colliery, near Chesterfield, where there is a pipe $7\frac{1}{2}$ in. internal diameter, 100 ft. long. The loss of steam by condensation was ascertained by a measurement of the water deposited in a receiver, and was found to be equivalent to about 1 lb. of coal per I.H.P. per hour for every 100 ft. of steam-pipe; but there is no doubt that if the pipes had been in the shaft, and well covered with a good non-conducting material, the loss would have been less. (For Steam-pipe Coverings, see p. 469, ante.)

THE STEAM-BOILER.

Horse-power of a Steam-boiler.—The term horse power has several meanings in engineering: *First*, an *absolute unit or measure of the work*, that is, of the work done in a certain definite period of time, or source of energy, as a steam-boiler, a waterfall, a current of air or water, or by a prime mover, as a steam-engine, a water-wheel, or a wind-mill. The value of this unit, whenever it can be expressed in foot-pounds of work, as in the case of steam-engines, water-wheels, and waterfalls, is 33,000 foot-pounds per minute. In the case of boilers, where the work done is the conversion of water into steam, cannot be expressed in foot-pounds of work, the usual value given to the term horse-power is the evaporation of 30 lbs. of water of a temperature of 100° F. into steam at 70 lbs. pressure above the atmosphere. Both of these units are arbitrary; the first, foot-pounds per minute, first adopted by James Watt, being considered lent to the power exerted by a good London draught-horse, and the second, of water evaporated per hour being considered to be the steam-rent per indicated horse-power of an average engine.

The second definition of the term horse-power is an *approximate measure of size, capacity, value, or "rating"* of a boiler, engine, water-wheel, or source or conveyer of energy, by which measure it may be described, advertised, and sold, advertised, etc. No definite value can be given to this term, which varies largely with local custom or individual opinion of makers and users of machinery. The nearest approach to uniformity which has arrived at in the term "horse-power," used in this sense, is to say that a boiler, engine, water-wheel, or other machine, "rated" at a certain horse-power, should be capable of steadily developing that horse-power for a certain period of time under ordinary conditions of use and practice, leaving it to the custom, to the judgment of the buyer and seller, to written contracts of purchase and sale, or to legal decisions upon such contracts, the interpretation of what is meant by the term "ordinary conditions of use and practice." (Trans. A. S. M. E., vol. vii. p. 226.)

The committee of the A. S. M. E. on Trials of Steam-boilers in 1884 (Trans., p. 265) discussed the question of the horse-power of boilers as follows: "The Committee of Judges of the Centennial Exhibition, to whom the trials of steam-boilers at that exhibition were intrusted, met with this same question, and finally agreed to solve it, at least so far as the work of that committee was concerned, by the adoption of the unit, 30 lbs. of water evaporated into dry steam per hour from feed-water at 100° F., and under a pressure of 70 lbs. per square inch above the atmosphere, these conditions being considered by them to represent fairly average practice. The quantity of heat demanded to evaporate a pound of water under these conditions is 1,146 British thermal units, or 1.146 units of evaporation. The unit of heat proposed is thus equivalent to the development of 33,305 heat units per hour, or 34,488 units of evaporation. . . ."

The committee, after due consideration, has determined to accept the above as the standard, and to recommend that in all standard trials the commercial horse-power be taken as an evaporation of 30 lbs. of water per hour from a feed-water temperature of 100° F. into steam at 70 lbs. gauge pressure, which shall be considered to be equal to 34½ units of evaporation, that is, to 34½ lbs. of water evaporated from a feed-water temperature of 212° F. into steam at the same temperature. This unit of evaporation is equal to 33,305 thermal units per hour.

The opinion of this committee that a boiler rated at any stated number of horse-powers should be capable of developing that power with easy firing, with draught, and ordinary fuel, while exhibiting good economy; and that the boiler should be capable of developing at least one third more than its rated power to meet emergencies at times when maximum efficiency is not the most important object to be attained.

Unit of Evaporation.—It is the custom to reduce results of boiler-trials to the common standard of weight of water evaporated by the unit of the combustible portion of the fuel, the evaporation being considered to have taken place at mean atmospheric pressure, and at the temperature at that pressure, the feed-water being also assumed to have been at that temperature. This is, in technical language, said to be the *latent evaporation from and at the boiling-point at atmospheric pressure, and at 212° F.* This unit of evaporation, or on

water evaporated from and at 212°, is equivalent to 965.7 British thermal units.

Measures for Comparing the Duty of Boilers.—The measure of the efficiency of a boiler is the number of pounds of water evaporated per pound of combustible, the evaporation being reduced to the standard "from and at 212°," that is, the equivalent evaporation from feed-water at temperature of 212° F. into steam at the same temperature.

The measure of the capacity of a boiler is the amount of "boiler horse-power" developed, a horse-power being defined as the evaporation of 30 lbs. of water per hour from 100° F. into steam at 70 lbs. pressure, or 34½ lbs. per hour from and at 212°.

The measure of relative rapidity of steaming of boilers is the number of pounds of water evaporated per hour per square foot of water-heating surface.

The measure of relative rapidity of combustion of fuel in boiler-furnace is the number of pounds of coal burned per hour per square foot of grate surface.

STEAM-BOILER PROPORTIONS.

Proportions of Grate and Heating Surface required for a given Horse-power.—The term horse-power here means capacity to evaporate 30 lbs. of water from 100° F., temperature of feed-water being 70 lbs., gauge-pressure = 34.5 lbs. from and at 212° F.

Average proportions for maximum economy for land boilers fired with good anthracite coal:

Heating surface per horse-power	11.5 sq. ft.
Grate " " " "	1/3 "
Ratio of heating to grate surface	34.5 "
Water evap'd from and at 212° per sq. ft. H.S. per hour	3 lbs.
Combustible burned per H.P. per hour	3 "
Coal with 1/6 refuse, lbs. per H.P. per hour	3.6 "
Combustible burned per sq. ft. grate per hour	9 "
Coal with 1/6 refuse, lbs. per sq. ft. grate per hour	10.8 "
Water evap'd from and at 212° per lb. combustible	11.5 "
" " " " " " " " coal (1/6 refuse)	2.6 "

The rate of evaporation is most conveniently expressed in pounds evaporated from and at 212° per sq. ft. of water-heating surface per hour, and rate of combustion in pounds of coal per sq. ft. of grate-surface per hour.

Heating-surface.—For maximum economy with any kind of fuel the boiler should be proportioned so that at least one square foot of heating surface should be given for every 3 lbs. of water to be evaporated from and at 212° F. per hour. Still more liberal proportions are required if a portion of the heating-surface has its efficiency reduced by: 1. Tendency of heated gases to short-circuit, that is, to select passages of least resistance and flow through them with high velocity, to the neglect of other passages. 2. Deposition of soot from smoky fuel. 3. Incrustation. If the heating-surfaces are clean, and the heated gases pass over it uniformly, little increase in economy can be obtained by increasing the heating-surface beyond the proportion of 1 sq. ft. to every 3 lbs. of water to be evaporated, with all conditions favorable but little decrease of economy will take place if the proportion is 1 sq. ft. to every 4 lbs. evaporated; but in order to provide for driving of the boiler beyond its rated capacity, and for possible decrease of efficiency due to the causes above named, it is better to allow 1 sq. ft. to 3½ lbs. evaporation per hour as the minimum standard proportion.

Where economy may be sacrificed to capacity, as where fuel is very cheap, it is customary to proportion the heating-surface much less liberally. The following table shows approximately the relative results that may be expected with different rates of evaporation, with anthracite coal.

Lbs. water evapor'd from and at 212° per sq. ft. heating-surface per hour	2	2.5	3	3.5	4	5	6	7	8	9
Sq. ft. heating-surface required per horse-power:	17.3	13.8	11.5	9.8	8.6	6.8	5.8	4.9	4.3	3.5
Ratio of heating to grate surface if 1/3 sq. ft. of G. S. is required per H.P.	22	41.4	34.5	29.4	25.8	20.4	17.4	13.7	12.9	11.4
Probable relative economy:	(60)	100	100	95	90	85	80	75	70	65
Probable temperature of chimney gases, degrees F.:	457	482	502	532	562	602	632	662	682	702

economy will vary not only with the amount of heating-surface, but with the efficiency of that heating-surface as a means for transfer of heat from the heated gases to the water, and on its freedom from soot and incrustation, and upon the nature of the water and the heated gases.

The efficiency will largely depend upon the thoroughness with which the combustion is effected in the furnace.

Any boiler with any kind of fuel will greatly depend upon the amount of fuel supplied to the furnace in excess of that required to support combustion. A strong draught and thin fires this excess may be very great, but at the same time there is a loss of economy.

Measurement of Heating-surface.—Authorities are not agreed as to the best methods of measuring the heating-surface of steam-boilers. The general practice is to consider as heating-surface all the surfaces that are exposed to the fire on one side and by flame or heated gases on the other, but there is some difference of opinion as to whether tubular heating-surface should be measured on the inside or from the outside diameter. Some writers say that the heating-surface always on the smaller side—the fire side of the vertical return tubular boiler and the water side in a water-tube boiler. Others would deduct from the heating-surface thus measured the portions supposed to be ineffective on account of being covered by the fire or being out of the direct current of the gases.

For the sake of uniformity, however, it would appear to be the best method to measure all surfaces as heating-surfaces which transmit heat from the fire to the water, making no allowance for different degrees of exposure. It is also, to use the external instead of the internal diameter of tubes, for greater convenience in calculation, the external diameter of tubes usually being made in even inches or half inches. There would be no good reason for considering the smaller surface in a tube as heating-surface, for the transmission of heat through plates that are exposed on one side does not appear to be proportional to the thickness of the plate, but rather to the larger. Thus the Serve ribbed tube transmits heat to the water per foot of length than a plain tube of same diameter, and a ribbed steam-radiator radiates more heat than a plain radiator having the same internal or smaller surface.

Measurement of heating-surface of vertical tubular boilers: Multiply the area of the fire-box (in inches) by its height above the grate; add the combined circumference of all the tubes by their length, and the area of the lower tube-sheet; from this sum subtract the area of all the tubes, and divide by 144: the quotient is the square feet of heating-surface.

Measurement of heating-surface of horizontal tubular boilers: Take the area of the fire-box in inches. Multiply two thirds of the circumference of the tubes by their length; multiply the sum of the circumferences of all the tubes by their length; to the sum of these products add two thirds of the area of the tube-sheets; from this sum subtract twice the combined area of all the tubes; divide the remainder by 144 to obtain the result in square feet. **Measurement of heating-surface in tubes:** Multiply the area of the fire-box by the diameter of a tube in inches, by its length in feet,

Builder's Rating. Heating-surface per horse-power.—It is a general practice among builders to furnish about 12 square feet of heating-surface per horse-power, but as the practice is not uniform, and contracts should always specify the amount of heating-surface to be furnished. Not less than one third square foot of grate-surface should be allowed per horse-power.

Engineering News, July 5, 1894, gives the following rough-and-ready rule for determining approximately the commercial horse-power of tubular or water-tube boilers:

Number of tubes \times their length in feet \times their nominal diameter $\div 50 = nLd \div 50$. The number of square feet of surface

$$\frac{nLd}{12} = \frac{nLd}{3.82}$$

and the horse-power at 12 square feet of surface per horse-power, not counting the shell, $= nLd \div 45.8$. If 15 square feet of tubes be taken, it is $nLd \div 57.3$. Making allowance for heating-surface in the shell will reduce the divisor to about 50.

Rating of Marine and Locomotive Boilers.—The rating of marine boilers is not generally used in connection with boilers in connection with locomotives. The boilers are designed to suit the requirements of the service, and the extent of grate and heating-surface only.

Grate-surface.—The amount of grate-surface required per power, and the proper ratio of heating-surface to grate-surface, are extremely variable, depending chiefly upon the character of the coal and the rate of draught. With good coal, low in ash, approximately equal results may be obtained with large grate-surface and light draught and with small grate-surface and strong draught, the total amount of coal burned being the same in both cases. With good bituminous coal, like No. 1, low in ash, the best results apparently are obtained with strong draught and high rates of combustion, provided the grate-surfaces are not so large that the total coal burned per hour is not too great for the capacity of the heating-surface to absorb the heat produced.

With coals high in ash, especially if the ash is easily fusible, it is necessary to choke the grates, large grate-surface and a slow rate of combustion are required, unless means, such as shaking grates, are provided to remove the ash as fast as it is made.

The amount of grate-surface required per horse-power under various conditions may be estimated from the following table:

	Lbs. Water from and at 212° per lb. Coal.	Lbs. Coal per H.P. per hour.	Pounds of Coal burned per H.P. of Grate per hour.					
			8	10	12	15	20	25
			Sq. Ft. Grate per H.P.					
Good coal and boiler,	10	3.45	.43	.35	.29	.23	.17	.14
	9	3.83	.48	.38	.32	.25	.19	.15
Fair coal or boiler,	8.61	4.	.50	.40	.33	.26	.20	.16
	8	4.31	.54	.43	.36	.29	.22	.17
	7	4.68	.62	.49	.41	.33	.24	.20
Poor coal or boiler,	6.9	5.	.63	.50	.42	.34	.25	.20
	6	5.75	.72	.58	.48	.38	.29	.23
	5	6.9	.86	.69	.58	.46	.35	.28
Lignite and poor boiler,	3.45	10.	1.25	1.00	.83	.67	.50	.40

In designing a boiler for a given set of conditions, the grate-surface should be made as liberal as possible, say sufficient for a rate of combustion of 12 lbs. per square foot of grate for anthracite, and 15 lbs. per square foot for bituminous coal, and in practice a portion of the grate-surface should be bricked over if it is found that the draught, fuel, or other conditions make it advisable.

Proportions of Areas of Flues and other Gas-passages

Rules are usually given making the area of gas-passages in proportion to the area of the grate-surface; thus a common rule for tubular boilers is to make the area over the bridge wall 1/7 of the grate-surface, the flue area 1/8, and the chimney area 1/9.

For average conditions with anthracite coal and moderate draught, a rate of combustion of 12 lbs. coal per square foot of grate per hour, and a heating to grate surface of 20 to 1, this rule is as good as any. It is evident that if the draught were increased so as to cause a rate of combustion of 24 lbs., requiring the grate-surface to be cut down to a ratio of areas of gas-passages should not be reduced much, because the velocity of the gas is reduced. The coal burned being the same under the conditions, and there being no reason why the gases should travel with greater velocity, the actual areas of the passages should remain as before. The ratio of the area to the grate-surface would in that case be doubled.

Mr. Barrus states that the highest efficiency with anthracite is obtained when the tube area is 1/9 to 1/10 of the grate-surface, and with bituminous coal when it is 1/6 to 1/7, for the conditions of moderate draught, such as 10 to 12 lbs. per square foot of grate per hour, and a heating to grate surface of 20 to 1.

The tube area should be made large enough not to choke the flues, but to lessen the capacity of the boiler; if made too large the gases will pass with the least resistance and escape from the boiler. This is commonly found in horizontal tubular boilers.

go chiefly through the upper rows of tubes; sometimes also in tubular boilers, where the gases are apt to pass most rapidly in tubes nearest to the centre.

Passages through Grate-bars.—The usual practice is, air 30% to 50% of area of the grate; the larger the better, to avoid the air supply by clinker; but with coal free from clinker much extra-space may be used without detriment. See paper by F. A. Trans. A. S. M. E., vol. xv. p. 503.

PERFORMANCE OF BOILERS.

Rankine, *Eng. Mech.*, vol. i. p. 327 gives the following formulas for the fuel and water consumed in steam-boilers per square foot of grate per hour, and the ratio of the heating-surface to the area of the boiler taken as evaporated from and at 212° F.

Water-boilers.....	$w = .022r^2 + 9.56c$
Marine-boilers.....	$w = .016r^2 + 10.25c$
Gas-engine boilers.....	$w = .008r^2 + 8.6c$
Coal-boilers (coal-burning).....	$w = .009r^2 + 9.7c$
Coal-boilers (coke-burning).....	$w = .0178r^2 + 7.94c$

w = weight of water in pounds per square foot of grate per hour;
 c = pounds of fuel per square foot of grate per hour;
 r = ratio of heating to grate surface.

The minimum rates of consumption of fuel below which these are not applicable. The limit varies for each kind of boiler, and it is imposed by the fact that the maximum power of fuel is a fixed quantity, and is naturally at that point where the rate of combustion for a given ratio procures the maximum reduction of the whole of the proportion of the heat which is lost into the boiler for evaporation. In the combustion of good coal the limit of efficiency may be taken as measured by 12½ lbs. of water from 12° F.; and in that of good coke by 12 lbs. of water from and at 12° F.; and in that of good coke by 12 lbs. of water from and at 12° F. based on these formulæ Clark gives the following table:

Relative Performance of Steam-boilers for Increasing Ratios of Combustion and different Surface-ratios.

For best coal; surface-ratio 30.

Kind of boiler.	Water from and at 212° F. per hour.	Fuel per Square Foot of Grate per hour, in pounds.						
		5	10	15	20	30	40	50
Coal.	Per sq. ft. of grate	lbs. 62.5*	lbs. 116	lbs. 163	lbs. 211	lbs. 267	lbs. 327	lbs. 398
	Per lb. of coal.....	12.5	11.56	10.89	10.56	10.23	10.06	9.96
	Per sq. ft. of grate	62.5*	117	168	219	292	324	377
	Per lb. of coal.....	12.5	11.69	11.25	10.95	10.69	10.61	10.54
	Per sq. ft. of grate	50	93	136	179	265	351	437
	Per lb. of coal.....	10	9.3	9.01	8.95	8.83	8.77	8.74
Coke.	Per sq. ft. of grate	57	105	154	202	299	396	493
	Per lb. of coal.....	11.4	10.5	10.26	10.10	9.97	9.90	9.86

Surface-ratio 50.

Kind of boiler.	Water from and at 212° F. per hour.	Fuel per Square Foot of Grate per hour, in pounds.						
		5	10	15	20	30	40	50
Coal.	Per sq. ft. of grate	lbs. 62.5*	lbs. 125*	lbs. 187.5*	lbs. 247	lbs. 312	lbs. 383	lbs. 454
	Per lb. of coal.....	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.33	11.41	10.95	10.67
	Per sq. ft. of grate	62.5*	125*	187.5*	245	318	450	562
	Per lb. of coal.....	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.25	11.58	11.35	11.05
	Per sq. ft. of grate	62.5*	106	149	192	278	364	450
	Per lb. of coal.....	12.5	10.6	9.93	9.6	9.27	9.10	9.00
Coke.	Per sq. ft. of grate	62.5*	120	168	217	314	411	508
	Per lb. of coal.....	12.5	11.95	11.20	10.85	10.45	10.30	10.25

* Quantities fall below the scope of the formulæ for r in the text.

Surface ratio 75.

		30	40	50	60	71
Locomotive.	Per sq. ft. of grate.	lbs. 342	lbs. 439	lbs. 536	lbs. 633	lbs. 779
"	Per lb. of coal.....	11.39	10.97	10.71	10.65	10.52

General Conditions which secure Economy of boilers.—In general, the highest results are produced when the temperature of the escaping gases is the least. An examination of the tests made by Mr. G. H. Barrus in his book on "Boiler Tests," by which tests made by him, six in number, in which the temperature of the average, that is, 375° F., and comparing with five tests in which the temperature is less than 375°. The boilers are all of the common type and all use anthracite coal of either egg or broken size. The temperatures in the two series was 444° and 343° respectively, a difference was 101°. The average evaporations are 10.40 lbs. and 10.52 respectively, and the lowest result corresponds to the case of the lowest temperature. In these tests it appears, therefore, that a reduction in the temperature of the waste gases secured an increase in the rate of 6%. This result corresponds quite closely to the effect of a temperature of the gases by means of a flue-heater where a 107° was attended by an increase of 7% in the evaporation per pound of coal.

A similar comparison was made on horizontal tubular boilers burning coal. The average flue temperature in four tests is 444° and the average evaporation is 11.34 lbs. Six boilers have temperatures of the average of which is 383°, and these give an average evaporation of 10.52 lbs. With 67° less temperature of the escaping gases the evaporation is higher by about 4%.

The wasteful effect of a high flue temperature is exhibited by a comparison of the horizontal tubular class. This source of waste is to be the main cause of the low economy produced in those vertical boilers which are deficient in heating-surface.

Relation between the Heating-surface and Grate-surface in Horizontal Boilers of Highest Efficiency.—A comparison of three tests of horizontal boilers with anthracite coal, the ratio of heating-surface to grate-surface being 36.4 to 1, with three other tests of similar boilers, in which the ratio was 48 to 1, showed practically no difference in the results. It shows that a ratio of 36 to 1 provides a sufficient quantity of heating-surface to secure the full efficiency of anthracite coal where the rate of evaporation is not more than 12 lbs. per sq. ft. of grate per hour.

In tests with bituminous coal an increase in the ratio from 36 to 48 secured a small improvement in the evaporation per pound of coal. The temperature of the escaping gases indicated that a still further increase would be beneficial. Among the high results produced on horizontal tubular boilers using bituminous coal, the highest occurs where the ratio is 53.1 to 1. This boiler gave an evaporation of 12.47 lbs. A boiler furnishes another example of high performance, an evaporation of 12.42 lbs. having been obtained with bituminous coal, and in this case the ratio is 65 to 1. These examples indicate that a much larger heating-surface is required for obtaining the full efficiency of bituminous coal than for boilers using anthracite coal. The temperature of the escaping gases in the same boiler is invariably higher when bituminous coal is used than when anthracite coal is used. The deposit of soot on the heating-surface when bituminous coal is used interferes with the full efficiency of the surface, and an increased area is demanded as an offset to the loss of efficiency on occasional occasions. It would seem, then, that if a ratio of 36 to 1 is provided for anthracite coal, from 45 to 50 should be provided when bituminous coal is burned, especially in cases where the rate of combustion is a high one, lbs. per sq. ft. of grate per hour.

The number of tubes controls the ratio between the area of grate and area of tube-opening. A certain minimum amount of tube-opening is required for efficient work.

The best results obtained with anthracite coal in the common horizontal boiler are in cases where the ratio of area of grate-surface to tube-opening is large, 36 to 1. The conclusion is drawn that the full efficiency with bituminous coal is obtained when the tube-opening is

10 of the

bituminous coal is burned the requirements appear to be different. A large tube opening does not seem to make the extra tubes in bituminous coal is used. The highest result on any boiler of tubular class, fired with bituminous coal, was obtained where the tube opening was the largest. This gave an evaporation of 12.47 lbs. per sq. ft. of tube-opening being 5.4 to 1. The next highest result was 11.5 lbs., the ratio being 5.2 to 1. Three high results, averaging 11.5 lbs., were obtained when the average ratio was 7.1 to 1. Without going into details, the ratio to be desired when bituminous coal is used is that of tube-opening having an area of from 1/6 to 1/7 of the grate-applies to medium rates of combustion of, say, 10 to 12 lbs. per sq. ft. of water-heating surface being allowed per

hour. The results obtained from different types of boilers leads to the conclusion that the economy with which different types of boilers depends much more upon their proportions and the conditions in which they work, than upon their type; and, moreover, that the proportions are suitably carried out, and when the conditions are the same the various types of boilers give substantially the same economy.

Efficiency of a Steam-boiler.—The efficiency of a boiler is the ratio of the total heat generated by the combustion of the fuel used in heating the water and in raising steam. With anthracite coal, the heating-value of the combustible portion is very nearly 14,500 Btu. per lb., equal to an evaporation from and at 212° of 14,500 ÷ 966 = 14.99 lbs. of water per lb. of combustible. A boiler which when tested with anthracite coal shows an evaporation of 12 lbs. of water per lb. of combustible, has an efficiency of 12 ÷ 14.99 = .80, a figure which is approximated, but scarcely ever quite reached in best practice. With bituminous coal it is necessary to have an estimate of its heating-power made by a coal calorimeter before the efficiency of the boiler using it can be determined, but a close estimate may be obtained from the chemical analysis of the coal. (See Coal.) The difference between the efficiency obtained by test and 100% is the sum of the losses of heat, the chief of which is the necessary loss due to the formation of the chimney-gases. If we have an analysis and a determination of the heating-power of the coal (properly sampled) and a sample analysis of the chimney-gases, the amounts of the various losses may be determined with approximate accuracy by the method here given.

1. ANALYSIS OF THE COAL.		2. ANALYSIS OF THE DRY CHIMNEY-GASES, BY WEIGHT.			
Semi-bituminous.					
			C.	O.	N.
.....	80.55	CO ₂ = 13.6 =	3.71	9.89
.....	4.50	CO = 2.3 =	.69	.11
.....	2.70	O = 11.2 =	11.20
.....	1.08	N = 75.0 =	75.00
.....	2.92
.....	8.25
.....	100.00	3.80	21.30	75.00

Heat of the coal by Dulong's formula, 14,243 heat-units. Heat collected over water, the moisture in them is not deter-

mined as determined by boiler-test, 10.25, or 2% more than that obtained by analysis, the difference representing carbon in the ashes obtained by test.

Temperature of external atmosphere, 60° F. Humidity of air, 60%, corresponding (see air tables) to .007 lb. of water per lb. of air.

Temperature of chimney-gases, 560° F. Results:

In the chimney-gases being 3.8% of their weight, the total weight of carbon per lb. of carbon burned is 100 + 3.8 = 26.32 lbs. Since the weight of carbon in the coal is 80.55 - 2 = 78.55% of the weight of the coal, the weight of carbon per lb. of coal is 26.32 × 78.55 + 100 = 20.67 lbs. The weight of coal furnishes to the dry chimney-gases, $\frac{78.55}{100} \times 100 = .0214$ lb. O; a total of .8177, say $\frac{81.77}{100}$

tracted from 20.67 lbs. leaves 19.85 lbs. as the quantity of dry air (including moisture) which enters the furnace per pound of coal, not counting air required to burn the available hydrogen, that is, the hydrogen minus eighth of the oxygen chemically combined in the coal. Each lb. of burned contained .045 lb. H, which requires $.045 \times 8 = .36$ lb. O for combustion. Of this, .027 lb. is furnished by the coal itself, leaving .333 lb. come from the air. The quantity of air needed to supply this oxygen (containing 23% by weight of oxygen) is $.333 \div .23 = 1.45$ lb., which with the 19.85 lbs. already found gives 21.30 lbs. as the quantity of dry air applied to the furnace per lb. of coal burned.

The air carried in as vapor is .0071 lb. for each lb. of dry air, or $.0071 \times 21.30 = 0.15$ lb. of coal contained .029 lb. of moisture, which was evaporated and carried into the chimney-gases. The 20.67 lb. of H per lb. of coal when burned formed $.045 \times 9 = .405$ lb. of H_2O .

From the analysis of the chimney-gas it appears that .09 + 3.20 = 3.29 lb. of the carbon in the coal was burned to CO instead of CO_2 .

We now have the data for calculating the various losses of heat at the boiler for each pound of coal burned:

	Heat-units.	Per cent. heat lost of the C.
20.67 lbs. dry gas $\times (560^\circ - 60^\circ) \times$ sp. heat 0.24	= 240.4	75
.15 lb. vapor in air $\times (560^\circ - 60^\circ) \times$ sp. heat .48	= 36.0	11
.029 lb. moisture in coal heated from 60° to 212°	= 4.4	1
" evaporated from and at 212° ; $.029 \times 966$	= 28.0	9
" steam (heated from 212° to 560°) $\times 348 \times .48$	= 4.8	1
.405 lb. H_2O from H in coal $\times (152 + 966 + 348 \times 48)$	= 520.4	16
.0237 lb. C burned to CO; loss by incomplete combustion, $.0237 \times (14544 - 4451)$	= 229.2	7
.02 lb. coal lost in ashes; $.02 \times 14544$	= 290.9	9
Radiation and unaccounted for, by difference	= 621.0	19
	625.1	20
Utilized in making steam, equivalent evaporation		
10.37 lbs. from and at 212° per lb. of coal	= 10,014.9	78
	14,243.0	98

The heat lost by radiation from the boiler and furnace is not easily ascertained directly, especially if the boiler is enclosed in brickwork, or protected by non-conducting covering. It is customary to estimate the heat lost by radiation by difference, that is, to charge radiation with all the heat which is not otherwise accounted for.

One method of determining the loss by radiation is to block off a part of the grate-surface and build a small fire on the remainder, and draw fire with just enough draught to keep up the steam-pressure and supply heat lost by radiation without allowing any steam to be discharged. Weigh the coal consumed for this purpose during a test of several hours duration.

Estimates of radiation by difference are apt to be greatly in error, since this difference are accumulated all the errors of the analyses of the air and of the gases. An average value of the heat lost by radiation from a boiler set in brickwork is about 4 per cent. When several boilers are in a battery and enclosed in a boiler-house the loss by radiation may be much less, since much of the heat radiated from the boiler is returned to the air supplied to the furnace, which is taken from the boiler-room.

An important source of error in making a "heat balance" such one as above given, especially when highly bituminous coal is used, is due to the non-combustion of part of the hydrocarbon gases distilled from the coal immediately after firing, when the temperature of the furnace is reduced below the point of ignition of the gases. Each pound of gas which escapes burning is equivalent to a loss of heat in the furnace of 2,500 heat-units.

In analyzing the chimney gases by the usual method the percentages of the constituent gases are obtained by volume instead of by weight. To reduce percentages by volume to percentages by weight, multiply the percentage by volume of each gas by its specific gravity as compared with air, and divide the result by the sum of the products.

ds of air required to burn a pound of carbon may be obtained in the analysis by volume by the following formula:

$$\text{of air required to burn } \left\{ \frac{4}{3} \right\} \frac{2(\text{CO}_2 + \text{O}) + \text{CO}}{\text{CO}_2 + \text{CO}} \left\{ + 0.23; \right.$$

a pound of carbon
 CO₂, and CO are the per cents, by volume, of the several con-
 the flue gases.

$$\text{per pound } \left\{ = \right\} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Lbs. of air per pound} \\ \text{of carbon} \end{array} \right\} \times \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Per cent of carbon} \\ \text{in coal.} \end{array} \right.$$

to volume at temperature of 32° F. make use of the formula

$$V_0 = 12.387 \times \text{lbs. of air per pound of coal.}$$

TESTS OF STEAM-BOILERS.

**Tests at the Centennial Exhibition, Philadel-
 76.**—(See Reports and Awards Group XX, International Exhibi-
 1876; also, Clark on the Steam-engine, vol. i, page 253.)

ive tests were made of fourteen boilers, using good anthracite
 oiler, the Galloway, being tested with both anthracite and semi-
 coal. Two tests were made with each boiler: one called the
 ial, to determine the economy and capacity at a rapid rate of
 the other called the economy trial, to determine the economy
 n at a rate supposed to be near that of maximum economy and
 city. The following table gives the principal results obtained in
 y trial, together with the capacity and economy figures of the
 ial for comparison.

	Economy Tests.										Capacity Tests.	
	Ratio Water-heating Sur- face to Grate-surface.	Coal burned per sq. ft. Grate per hour.	Per cent Ash and Refuse.	Water evap. from 100° to 70 lbs. p. s.f. H.S. per hr.	Water evap. from and at 212° p. lb. comb'ble cor. for Quality of Steam.	Temperature in Uptake.	Moisture in Steam.	Superheating of Steam.	Horse power.	Horse-power.	Water evap. from and at 212° per lb. Com- bustible.	
	lbs.	p.ct	lbs.	lbs.	degs	%	degs	H.P.	H.P.	lbs.		
.....	34.6	9.1	10.4	2.25	12.094	393	...	41.3	119.8	148.6	10.441	
.....	64.3	12.0	10.4	1.68	11.988	415	...	32.6	57.8	68.4	11.064	
.....	30.6	6.8	11.3	1.87	11.923	333	...	9.4	47.0	69.3	11.163	
.....	45.8	12.1	11.1	2.42	11.906	411	1.3	...	99.8	125.0	11.925	
.....	37.7	10.0	11.0	2.43	11.832	296	2.7	...	135.6	186.6	10.330	
.....	23.7	9.6	11.1	3.63	11.583	303	...	1.4	103.3	133.8	11.216	
.....	23.7	7.9	8.8	3.30	12.125	325	0.3	...	90.9	125.1	11.609	
.....	15.6	8.0	10.3	2.32	11.039	420	...	71.7	42.6	58.7	9.745	
.....	27.3	12.4	8.5	2.75	10.930	517	0.9	...	82.4	108.4	9.889	
.....	30.7	12.3	9.5	3.30	10.834	524	...	20.5	147.5	162.8	9.145	
.....	17.5	9.7	9.3	2.64	10.618	417	...	15.7	98.0	132.8	9.568	
.....	20.9	10.8	9.0	3.82	10.312	...	5.6	...	81.0	99.9	8.397	
.....	33.5	9.3	11.4	1.38	10.041	430	4.2	...	72.1	108.0	9.974	
.....	14.0	8.0	11.0	4.44	10.021	374	5.2	...	51.7	67.8	9.865	
.....	19.0	8.6	9.9	3.43	9.613	572	2.1	...	45.7	67.2	9.429	
.....	2.77	11.123	85.0	110.8	10.2	

parison of the economy and capacity trials shows that an average
 capacity of 30 per cent was attended by a decrease in econo-
 nt, but the relation of economy to rate of driving varied great-
 rent boilers. In the Kelly boiler an increase in capacity of 90 per
 tended by a decrease in economy of over 18 per ce-
 er with an increase of 25 per cent in capacity a
 economy.

One of the most important lessons gained from the above tests there is no necessary relation between the type of a boiler and even the five boilers that gave the best results, the total range of variation between the highest and lowest of the five being only 3.3%, three were tubular boilers, one was a horizontal tubular boiler, and the fifth was a combination of the two types. The next boiler on the list, the Galloway, internally fired boiler, all of the others being externally fired. The following is a brief description of the principal constructive features of the boilers:

Root.....	}	4-in. water-tubes, inclined 20° to horizontal; draught.
Firmenich.....		
Lowe.....	}	3 in. water-tubes, nearly vertical; reversed draught.
Smith.....		
Babcock & Wilcox.....	}	Cylindrical shell, multitubular flue.
Galloway.....		
Andrews.....	}	Cylindrical shell, multitubular flue—water-side flues.
Harrison.....		
Wiegand.....	}	3½-in. water-tubes, inclined 15° to horizontal; reversed draught.
Anderson.....		
Kelly.....	}	Cylindrical shell, furnace-tubes and water-tubes.
Exeter.....		
Pierce.....	}	Square fire-box and double return multitubular.
Rogers & Black.....		
	}	8 slabs of cast-iron spheres, 8 in. in diameter; reversed draught.
	}	4-in. water-tubes, vertical, with internal circulation tubes.
	}	3-in. flue-tubes, nearly horizontal; return circulation.
	}	3-in. water-tubes, slightly inclined; each division with internal diaphragm to promote circulation.
	}	27 hollow rectangular cast-iron slabs.
	}	Rotating horizontal cylinder, with flue-tubes.
	}	Vertical cylindrical boiler, with external water jacket.

Tests of Tubulous Boilers.—The following tables are given by H. Leonard, Asst. Engr. U. S. N., in *Jour. Am. Soc. Naval Engrs.* 1887. The tests were made at different times by boards of U. S. Naval Engineers, except the test of the locomotive-torpedo boiler, which was made in England.

No.	Type.	Coal burned per sq. ft. Grate per hour.		Evaporation from and at 212° F.			Weights, lbs.				Air-pressure, in. of Water.
				Per lb. Com'ble.	Per sq. ft. H. Surface.	Per cu. ft. Space.	E. Empty. S. Steaming Level.	Per I.H.P.	Per sq. ft. H. Surface.	Per lb. Water evaporated.	
1	Belleville..	12.8	10.42	5.2	6.4	E 40,670 S 42,770	204	53.2	10.1	Nat	
2	Herreshoff	9.3	10.23	3.1	9.1	E 2,945 S 2,945	96	14.8	4.8	Jet	
		25.8	8.68	8	23.8	E 3,050 S 1,380	33	1.8	8.1	Jet	
3	Towne.....	4.3	13.4	2.7	10	E 1,380 S 1,640	172	21.8	2.6	Nat	
		24.5	6.77	8.2	30.4	E 1,682 S 1,682	56	2.6	7.7	Nat	
4	Ward.....	7.9	10.77	1.7	5.8	E 1,682 S 1,682	154	13.2	4.07	Jet	
		15.5	7.01	3.2	11	E 1,930 S 1,930	26	1.3	1.3	Jet	
5	Scotch.....	62.5	7.01	10	34.2	E 18,900 S 18,900	120	41.2	4.7	2.2	
		24.8	9.93	8.6	11	E 30,000 S 30,000	80	31.3	1.8	3.3	
6	Locomotive torpedo.	38	9.06	12.8	16.3	E 31,960 S 31,960	47.7	37.3	1.2	4.1	
		98.3	17.1	30.5	36.2	E 26,533 S 30,474	26	12.3	1.3	2	
7	Ward.....	55.04	8.44	9.47	32.1	E 20,160 S 24,640	*31	70.3	2	
8	Thornycroft. (U. S. S. Cushing.)	45	

* Approximate.

coal moisture: Belleville, 6.31; Herreshoff 7.01; Scotch, 11.5; others not given.

DIMENSIONS OF THE BOILERS.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
and in..	8' 6"	4' 9"	2' 6"	3' 2"	9' 0"	16' 8	10' 3"	10' 0"
" " "	7 0	3 8	2 6	1 7	9 0	6 4	4 6 +	7 0†
" " "	11 0	4 0	3 3	7 2	7 6	11 8	8 0†
" " "	645.5	69.6	20 3	42.7	573.5	630.3	729.3	560†
sq. ft..	34.17	9	4.25	3.68	31.16	28	66.5	38.3
face,								
" " "	804	205	75	146	727	1116	2490	2375
" " "	23.5	22	17.6	39.5	23.3	39.8	37.4	62

‡ Diameter. † Diam. of drum. ‡ Approximate.

† per I.H.P. is estimated on a basis of 20 lbs. of water per hour expecting the Scotch boiler, where 35 lbs. have been used, as this limited to 80 lbs. pressure of steam.

‡ Approximation is made from the large table, on the assumption evaporation varies directly as the combustion, and 25 lbs. of steam per foot of grate per hour used as the unit.

of Boiler.	Combustion.	Evaporation per cu. ft. of Space.	Weight per I.H.P.	Weight per sq. ft. Heating-surface.	Weight per lb. Water Evaporated.
.....	0.50	0.50	2.02	2.10	2.50
.....	1.00	0.95	0.72	0.60	0.90
.....	1.00	1.20	1.12	0.87	1.30
.....	1.00	0.44	2.40	1.64	2.30
.....	3.90	0.31	3.70	1.25	3.50
.....	2.20	0.58	1.27	0.50	1.53

ville boiler has no practical advantage over the Scotch either in speed or weight. All the other tubulous boilers given greatly exceed the Scotch in these advantages of weight and space.

High Rates of Evaporation.—*Eng'g*, May 9, 1884, p. 415.
 Locomotive. Torpedo-boat.
 sq. ft. H.S. per hour. 12.57 13.73 12.54 20.74
 lb. fuel from and at 212°. 8.22 8.94 8.37 7.04
 lbs transp'd per sq. ft. of H.S. 12,142 13,263 12,113 20,034
 .586 .637 .542 .468
 If these figures were corrected for priming.

Gain Effected by Heating the Air Supplied to Furnaces. (Clark, S. E.)—Meunier and Scheurer-Kestner obtain 7% greater evaporative efficiency in summer than in winter, with the Scotch boilers under like conditions,—an excess which had been explained by the difference of loss by radiation and conduction. But Mr. Meunier, surmising that the gain might be due in some degree also to the higher temperature of the air in summer, made comparative trials with three Scotch boilers, each working one week with the heated air, and one week with cold air. The following were the several efficiencies:

	FIRST TRIALS: THREE BOILERS; RONCHAMP COAL.	Water per lb. of Coal.	Water per lb. of Combustible.
with heated air (125° F.)	7.77 lbs.	8.95 lbs.
with cold air (69°.8)	7.38 "	8.63 "
Difference in favor of heated air	0.44 "	"
SECOND TRIALS: SAME COAL; THREE OTHER BOILERS.			
with heated air (120° F.)	8.70 lbs.	
with cold air (75°.2)	8.09 "	
Difference in favor of heated air	0.61 "	

These results show economies in favor of heating the air of 6% and 7%. Mr. Poupardin believes that the gain in efficiency is due chiefly to better combustion of the gases with heated air. It was observed that heated air the flames were much shorter and whiter, and that there was notably less smoke from the chimney.

An extensive series of experiments was made by J. C. Hoadley (Trans. A. S. M. E., vol. vi., 676) on a "Warm-blast Apparatus," for utilizing the heat of the waste gases in heating the air supplied to the furnace. The apparatus, as applied to an ordinary horizontal tubular boiler 60 in. diameter, 21 feet long, with 65 3/4-inch tubes, consisted of 240 2-inch tubes, 18 feet long, through which the hot gases passed while the air circulated around them. The net saving of fuel effected by the warm blast was from 10.7% to 13.2% the fuel used with cold blast. The comparative temperatures averaged as follows, in degrees F.:

	Cold-blast Boiler.	Warm-blast Boiler.	Difference.
In heat of fire.....	2493	2793	300
At bridge wall.....	1340	1600	260
In smoke box.....	373	375	2
Air admitted to furnace.....	32	232	300
Steam and water in boiler.....	300	300	0
Gases escaping to chimney.....	373	162	211
External air.....	32	32	0

With anthracite coal the evaporation from and at 212° per lb. combustion was, for the cold-blast boiler, days 10.85 lbs., days and nights 10.51; and for the warm-blast boiler, days 11.83, days and nights 11.03.

Results of Tests of Heine Water-tube Boilers with Different Coals.

(Communicated by E. D. Meier, C. E., 1894.)

Number.....	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Kind of Coal.	Cumberland, Semi-bitumin.	2d Pool, Youghiogheny.		Turkey Hill, Ill.	Carbon Hill, Wash.	Hocking Val., Ohio.	Pittsburgh, Lignite, Ill.	Colonyville, Md.
Per cent ash.....	5.1	4.89	11.6	16.1	11.5	7.4	12.2
Heating-surface, sq. ft..	2900	2040	2040	2300	1360	2730	1168	1168
Grate-surface, sq. ft.....	54	44.8	44.8	50	21	73.5	27.9	27.9
Ratio H. S. to G. S.....	53.7	45.5	45.5	46	60	30.9	41.9	41.9
Coal per sq. ft. G. per hr.	24.7	23.5	22.7	35	33.7	26.2	25.5	25.5
Water per sq. ft. H. S. per hr. from and at 212°.....	5.03	5.14	5.24	5.56	4.26	4.28	4.86	4.86
Water evap. from and at 212° per lb. coal.....	10.91	9.94	10.51	7.31	7.59	8.83	7.26	7.26
Per lb. combustible.....	11.50	10.48	8.27	9.05	9.41	8.41	8.41
Temp. of chimney gases	530°	400	667	573	608	608
Calorific value of fuel.....	13,800	12,936	12,936	10,487	11,785	11,616	2,328	2,328
Efficiency of boiler per c.	77.0	74.3	78.5	67.2	62.5	69.3	73.0	73.0

Tests Nos. 7 and 8 were made with the Hawley Down-draught Furnace, the others with ordinary furnaces.

These tests confirm the statement already made as to the difficulty of obtaining, with ordinary grate-furnaces, as high a percentage of the calorific value of the fuel with the Western as with the Eastern coals.

Test No. 3, 78.5% efficiency, is remarkably good for Pittsburgh (Youghiogheny) coal. If the Washington coal had given equal efficiency, the saving

fuel would be $\frac{78.5 - 62.5}{78.5} = 20.2\%$. The results of tests Nos. 7 and 8 indicate that the downward draught furnace is well adapted for burning the

Iron Boiler Efficiency with Cumberland Coal.—lbs. of water per lb. combustible from and at 212° is about the operation that can be obtained from the best steam fuels in the West, such as Cumberland, Pocahontas, and Clearfield. In exceptional cases, 13 lbs. has been reached, and one test is on record (F. W. Dean, Trans. A. I. M. E., Feb. 1, 1894) giving 13.23 lbs. The boiler was internally fired, fire type, 82 inches diameter, 31 feet long, with 160 3-inch tubes. Heating surface, 1998 square feet; grate-surface, 45 square feet. Heating the test to 30½ square feet. Double furnace, with fire-brick a long combustion-chamber. Feed-water heater in smoke-box. The following are the principal results:

	1st Test.	2d Test.
Water turned per sq. ft. of grate per hour, lbs.....	8.85	16.06
Water per sq. ft. of heating-surface per hour, lbs	1.63	3.00
Water from and at 212° per lb. combustible, including feed-water heater.....	13.17	13.23
Water evaporated, excluding feed-water heater.....	12.88	12.90
Temperature of gases after leaving heater, F.....	360°	463°

BOILERS USING WASTE GASES.

Proportioning Boilers for Blast-Furnaces.—(F. W. Gordon, Trans. A. I. M. E., vol. xii., 1883.)

The author's recommendation for proportioning boilers when properly set for blast-furnace gas is, for coke practice, 30 sq. ft. of heating-surface of iron per 24 hours, which the furnace is expected to make, and the heating-surface thus: For double-flued boilers, all shell-closed to the gases, and half the fire-surface; for the French type, one-half surface of the upper boiler and half the lower boiler; for cylindrical boilers, not more than 60 ft. long, all the heating-

surface must be added a battery for relay in case of cleaning, repairs, or more than one battery extra in large plants, when the water carries

for practice add 50% to above calculations. For charcoal practice, add 30%.

According to the author in May, 1894, Mr. Gordon says that the blast-furnace practice at the time when his article (from which the above extract is written) was very different from that existing at the present time, more economical engines are being introduced, so that less fuel of boiler-surface per ton of iron made in 24 hours may now be required. He says further: Blast-furnace gases are seldom used for other purposes than requirements, which of course is throwing away good fuel. In furnace in an ordinary good condition, and a condition where it is at a maximum of blast, which is in the neighborhood of 300 to 235 atmospheres measurement, per sq. ft. of sectional area of hearth, to produce the necessary H.P. with very small heating-surface, owing to the heat of the escaping gases from the boilers, which frequently is 800° F.

For making 300 tons of iron a day will consume about 900 H.P. in the engine. About a pound of fuel is required in the furnace per ton of metal.

For steam it requires 70 cu. ft. of air-piston displacement per lb. of fuel or 22,400 cu. ft. per minute for 300 tons of metal in 1400 working hours a day, at, say, 10 lbs. discharge-pressure. This is equal to 9¼ lbs. of steam-piston of equal area to the blast-piston, or 900 I.H.P. To provide for hoisting, pumping and other purposes for which steam is employed in blast-furnaces, and we have 1100 H.P., or say 5½ H.P. per ton per day. Dividing this into 30 gives approximately 5½ sq. ft. of surface of boiler per H.P.

Water Tube Boilers using Blast-furnace Gases.—D. S. (Trans. A. I. M. E., xvii, 50) reports a test of a water tube boiler using blast-furnace gas as fuel. The heating-surface was 2535 sq. ft. (developing 1000 H.P. at normal standard), or 5.01 lbs. of water evaporated per sq. ft. of heating-surface per hour. Some of the principal results are as follows: Calorific value of 1 lb. of the gas, 11,000 B.T.U.; initial temperature, which was 650° F.; weight of the gas = 0.9 lb. Chimney draught, 1½ in. sq. in.; of air inlet, 100 sq. in. Temperature of gases at inlet, 1000° F.; at outlet, 400° F.

gases, 775° F. Efficiency of the boiler calculated from the temperature and analyses of the gases at exit and entrance, 61%. The average analyses were as follows, hydrocarbons being included in the nitrogen:

	By Weight.		By Volume.	
	At Entrance.	At Exit.	At Entrance.	At Exit.
CO ₂	10.69	26.37	7.08	19.10
O.....	.11	3.05	.19	5.40
CO.....	26.71	1.78	27.80	0.50
Nitrogen.....	62.45	68.80	65.04	74.90
C in CO ₂	2.92	7.19		
C in CO.....	11.45	.76		
Total C.....	14.37	7.95		

Steam-boilers Fired with Waste Gases from Pudding and Heating Furnaces.—The *Iron Age*, April 6, 1893, contains a number of tests of steam-boilers utilizing the waste heat from puddling and heating furnaces in rolling-mills. The following principal data are selected: In Nos. 1, 2, and 4 the boiler is a Babcock & Wilcox water boiler, and in No. 3 it is a plain cylinder boiler, 42 in. diam. and 25 ft. long. No. 4 boiler was connected with a heating-furnace, the others with puddling furnaces.

	No. 1.	No. 2.	No. 3.	No. 4.
Heating-surface, sq. ft.....	1026	1196	145	150
Grate-surface, sq. ft.....	19.9	13.6	15.6	15.6
Ratio H.S. to G.S.....	52	87.2	10.1	10.1
Water evap. per hour, lbs.....	3358	2129	1812	1812
“ “ per sq. ft. H.S. per hr., lbs....	3.3	1.8	12.7	12.7
“ “ per lb. coal from and at 212°.....	5.9	6.24	3.78	3.78
“ “ “ “ comb. “ “ “ “.....		7.30	4.31	4.31

In No. 2, 1.38 lbs. of iron were puddled per lb. of coal.

In No. 3, 1.14 lbs. of iron were puddled per lb. of coal.

No. 3 shows that an insufficient amount of heating-surface was provided for the amount of waste heat available.

RULES FOR CONDUCTING BOILER-TESTS.

The Committee of the A. S. M. E. on Boiler-tests, consisting of Wm. J. (chairman), J. C. Hoadley, R. H. Thurston, Chas. E. Emery, and Chas. Porter, recommended the following code of rules for boiler-tests (see vol. vi, p. 256):

PRELIMINARIES TO A TEST.

I. In preparing for and conducting trials of steam-boilers the special object of the proposed trial should be clearly defined and steadily kept in view.

II. Measure and record the dimensions, position, etc., of grate and heating surfaces, flues and chimneys, proportion of air-space in the grate face, kind of draught, natural or forced.

III. Put the boiler in good condition. Have heating-surface clean and free from scale, grate-bars and sides of furnace free from clinkers, dust and slag removed from back connections, leaks in masonry stopped, and all connections to draught removed. See that the damper will open to full extent, and that it may be closed when desired. Test for leaks in masonry by firing a little smoky fuel and immediately closing damper. The smoke will then escape through the leaks.

IV. Have an understanding with the parties in whose interest the test is to be made as to the character of the coal to be used. The coal must be dry, or, if wet, a sample must be dried carefully and a determination of the amount of moisture in the coal made, and the calculation of the results of the test corrected accordingly. Wherever possible, the test should be run with standard coal of a known quality. For that portion of the country west of the Alleghenies, a standard good anthracite egg coal of Cumberland is to be taken as the standard for making tests.

Highway Mountains and east of the Missouri River, Pittsburgh lump may be used.*

All important tests a sample of coal should be selected for chemical

to establish the correctness of all apparatus used in the test for weighing and measuring. These are: 1. Scales for weighing coal, ashes, and water. 2. Scales or water-meters for measuring water. Water-meters, as a rule, should only be used as a check on other measurements. For accurate work the water should be weighed or measured in a tank. 3. Thermometers and barometers for taking temperatures of air, steam, feed-water, waste gases, and flues. 4. Pressure-gauges, draught-gauges, etc.

Before beginning a test, the boiler and chimney should be thoroughly cleaned to their usual working temperature. If the boiler is new, it should be put to continuous use at least a week before testing, so as to dry the mortar joints and heat the walls.

Before beginning a test, the boiler and connections should be freed of air, and all water connections, including blow and extra feed pipes, should be disconnected or stopped with blank flanges, except the particular connection through which water is to be fed to the boiler during the trial. In locations where the reliability of the power is so important that an extra feed-pipe must be kept in position, and in general when for any other reason it is not possible to disconnect the feed-pipes, such pipes should be drilled so as to leave openings in their lower sides, which should be kept open throughout the test as a means of detecting leaks, or accidental unauthorized opening of valves. During the test the blow-off pipe should be kept open and exposed.

If a steam injector is used it must receive steam directly from the boiler being tested and not from a steam-pipe or from any other boiler.

The steam-pipe is so arranged that water of condensation cannot get back into the boiler. If the steam-pipe has such an inclination that the water of condensation from any portion of the steam-pipe system may run back into the boiler, it must be trapped so as to prevent this water getting into the boiler without being measured.

STARTING AND STOPPING A TEST.

The test should last at least ten hours of continuous running, and twenty-four hours whenever practicable. The conditions of the boiler and furnace at the beginning and end of the test should be, as nearly as possible, the same at the beginning and at the end of the test. The steam-pressure should be the same, the level of the water in the boiler the same, the fire upon the grate should be the same in quantity and condition, and the walls, flues, etc., should be of the same temperature. To secure as near an approximation to exact uniformity as possible during the test, the fire and in temperatures of the walls and flues, the following method of starting and stopping a test should be adopted:

Standard Method.—Steam being raised to the working pressure, respectively all the fire from the grate, close the damper, clean the ash-pit, and as quickly as possible start a new fire with weighed wood and coal, and at the time of starting the test and the height of the water-level while the boiler is in a quiescent state, just before lighting the fire.

At the end of the test remove the whole fire, clean the grates and ash-pit, and raise the water-level when the water is in a quiescent state; record the height of the water-level and haul the fire as the end of the test. The water-level should be raised as high as possible the same as at the beginning of the test. If it is not possible to raise the water-level to the same height, a correction should be made by computation, and not by operating the boiler after the test is completed. It will generally be necessary to regulate the discharge of steam from the boiler tested by means of the stop-valve while the fires are being hauled at the beginning and at the end of the test, in order to keep the steam-pressure in the boiler at those times up to the average during the test.

Alternate Method.—Instead of the Standard Method above described, the following may be employed where local conditions render it necessary: The regular time for slicing and cleaning fires have them burned rather than sliced is usual before cleaning, and then thoroughly cleaned; note the weight of coal left on the grate as nearly as it can be estimated; note the

These coals are selected because they are about the only ones that possess the essentials of excellence of quality, adaptability to various uses, grates, boilers, and methods of firing, and wide distribution in the markets.

pressure of steam and the height of the water-level—which should be maintained at a uniform medium height to be carried throughout the test—at the same time note this time as the time of starting the test. Fresh coal, which has been weighed, should now be fired. The ash-pits should be thoroughly cleaned at once after starting. Before the end of the test the fires should be blown low, just as before the start, and the fires cleaned in such a manner as to leave the same amount of fire, and in the same condition, on the grates at the start. The water-level and steam-pressure should be brought to the same point as at the start, and the time of the ending of the test noted just before fresh coal is fired.

DURING THE TEST.

XII. Keep the Conditions Uniform.—The boiler should be run continuously, without stopping for meal-times or for rise or fall of pressure due to change of demand for steam. The draught being adjusted to the rate of evaporation or combustion desired before the test is commenced, should be retained constant during the test by means of the damper.

If the boiler is not connected to the same steam-pipe with other boilers, an extra outlet for steam with valve in same should be provided, in case the pressure should rise to that at which the safety-valve is set, so that it may be reduced to the desired point by opening the extra outlet, without stopping the fires.

If the boiler is connected to a main steam-pipe with other boilers, a safety-valve on the boiler being tested should be set a few pounds below that of the other boilers, so that in case of a rise in pressure the other boilers may blow off, and the pressure be reduced by closing the dampers, allowing the damper of the boiler being tested to remain open and firing as usual.

All the conditions should be kept as nearly uniform as possible, the force of draught, pressure of steam, and height of water. The cleaning of the fires will depend upon the character of the fuel, the rate of combustion, and the kind of grates. When very good coal is used, the combustion not too rapid, a ten-hour test may be run without any cleaning of the grates, other than just before the beginning and just before the end of the test. But in case the grates have to be cleaned during the test, the intervals between one cleaning and another should be uniform.

XIII. Keeping the Records.—The coal should be weighed and delivered to the firemen in equal portions, each sufficient for about one hour's firing. A fresh portion should not be delivered until the previous one has been fired. The time required to consume each portion should be noted, the time being recorded at the instant of firing the first of each new portion. It is desirable that at the same time the amount of water fed into the boiler should be accurately noted and recorded, including the height of the water in the boiler and the average pressure of steam and temperature during the time. By thus recording the amount of water evaporated from successive portions of coal, the record of the test may be divided into several divisions, if desired, at the end of the test, to discover the degree of uniformity of combustion, evaporation, and economy at different intervals of the test.

XIV. Priming Tests.—In all tests in which accuracy of results is important, calorimeter tests should be made of the percentage of moisture in the steam, or of the degree of superheating. At least ten such tests should be made during the trial of the boiler, or so many as to reduce the average error to less than one per cent, and the final records of the test corrected according to the average results of the calorimeter tests.

On account of the difficulty of securing accuracy in these tests, the greatest care should be taken in the measurements of weights and temperature. The thermometers should be accurate within a tenth of a degree, and the scales on which the water is weighed to within one hundredth of a pound.

ANALYSES OF GASES.—MEASUREMENT OF AIR-SUPPLY, ETC.

XV. In tests for purposes of scientific research, in which the determination of all the variables entering into the test is desired, certain observations should be made which are in general not necessary in tests for other purposes. These are the measurement of the air-supply, the determination of the moisture contained in the steam, the measurement and analysis of the flue-gases, the determination of the amount of heat lost by radiation, of the rate of evaporation of air, and of the setting, the direct determination by experiments of the heating value of the fuel, and of the

steam made by the boiler) of the total heat imparted to the

the flue-gases is an especially valuable method of determining the value of different methods of firing, or of different kinds of fuel. In making these analyses great care should be taken to properly mix the samples—since the composition is apt to vary at different times—and the analyses should be intrusted only to a thoroughly skilled analyst, who is provided with complete and accurate apparatus. The determination of the other variables mentioned above are not to be taken except by engineers of high scientific attainments. The method for making them is likely to be improved in the course of time, but, for the present, it is not deemed advisable to include in this code any changes for making them.

RECORD OF THE TEST.

The record of the test should be kept on properly prepared blanks, and the forms should be as follows:

No.	Description.	Temperatures.					Fuel.		Feed-water.		
		Boil- ing gauge.	External Air.	Boiler- room.	Flue.	Feed- water.	Steam.	Time.	Lbs.	Time.	Lbs. or cu. ft.

REPORTING THE TRIAL.

The results of the trial should be recorded upon a properly prepared form, and should include as many of the following items as are adapted for the trial for which the trial is made. The items marked with a * are desirable for ordinary trials, but are desirable for comparison with other sources.

Name of the trials of a
 Date of trial
 Duration of trial
 Name of the boiler
 Name of the engine
 Name of the operator
 Name of the observer
 Name of the recorder

Area of grate surface.....	sq. ft.
Area of heating surface.....	sq. ft.
Area of water-heating surface to grate-surface.....	sq. ft.
Pressure in boiler, by gauge.....	lbs.
Steam-pressure.....	lbs.
Water-pressure, per barometer.....	in.
Water-pressure, in inches of water.....	in.
Air-temperature.....	deg.
Boiler-room-temperature.....	deg.
Flue-temperature.....	deg.
Feed-water-temperature.....	deg.
Temperature of steam.....	deg.
Temperature of flue-gases.....	deg.
Temperature of water.....	deg.

See reference in paragraph preceding table

at water evaporated per pound of feed-water from and at 212° F. §.....	lbs.		
at water evaporated per pound of feed-water from and at 212° F. §.....	lbs.		
COMMERCIAL EVAPORATION.			
at water evaporated per pound of feed-water with one sixth refuse, at 70 pounds gauge-pressure, from temperature of 100° F. § 53×0.7249	lbs.		
RATE OF COMBUSTION.			
actually burned per square foot of heating-surface per hour.....	lbs.		
assumption of dry feed-water per hour. Coal consumed with one sixth refuse. §	Per sq. ft. of grate- surface.....	lbs.	
	Per sq. ft. of water- heating surface..	lbs.	
	Per sq. ft. of least area for draught.	lbs.	
RATE OF EVAPORATION.			
evaporated from and at 212° F. per square foot of heating-surface per hour.....	lbs.		
water evaporated from tem- perature of 100° F. at gauge-pressure of 70 lbs. §	Per sq. ft. of grate- surface.....	lbs.	
	Per sq. ft. of water- heating surface..	lbs.	
	Per sq. ft. of least area for draught.	lbs.	
COMMERCIAL HORSE-POWER.			
of thirty pounds of water per hour evaporated from temperature of 100° F. at gauge-pressure of 70 pounds from and at 212° F. §.....	H.P.		
horse-power, builders' rating, at..... square feet of heating-surface.....	H.P.		
per cent developed above, or below, ratings. §	per cent		

of Evaporation.—The table on the following pages was published by the author in Trans. A. S. M. E., vol. vi., 1884, under the title of Facilitating Calculations of Boiler-tests. The tables are prepared for every 3° of temperature of feed-water from 32° to 212° and every two pounds pressure of steam within the limits of ordinary boiler-pressures.

The factor in the table corresponding to a difference of 3° temperature is always either .0031 or .0032. For interpolation to find a factor for a temperature between 32° and 212°, not given in the table, add or subtract for the nearest temperature and add or subtract, as the case may be, if the difference is .0031, and .0011 if the difference is .0032. As the tables are prepared to three decimal places, the error is of no practical importance.

The factors used in calculating these factors of evaporation are those given in Porter's Treatise on the Richards' Steam-engine Indicator.

The Factor = $\frac{H - h}{965.7}$, in which H is the total heat of steam at the observed pressure, and h the total heat of feed-water of the observed

Gauge-pressure. $\frac{1}{2}$ + Absolute pressure 15	Lbs.								
	30 + 25	39 + 35	38 + 45	49 + 55	43 + 60	59 + 65	22 + 67	14 70	
	FACTORS OF EVAPORATION.								
212° F.	1.0003	1.0088	1.0149	1.0197	1.0237	1.0254	1.0271	1.0277	1.03
209	35	1.0130	80	1.0228	68	86	1.0302	1.0309	1.03
206	66	51	1.0212	60	99	1.0317	31	40	
202	98	83	43	91	1.0331	49	65	72	
200	1.0129	1.0214	75	1.0323	62	80	97	1.0403	1.04
197	60	46	1.0306	54	94	1.0412	1.0428	31	
194	92	77	38	85	1.0425	43	60	66	
191	1.0223	1.0308	69	1.0417	57	74	91	97	1.03
188	55	40	1.0400	48	88	1.0506	1.0522	1.0528	
185	86	71	32	80	1.0519	37	54	60	
182	1.0317	1.0403	63	1.0511	51	68	85	91	
179	49	34	95	42	82	1.0600	1.0616	1.0623	1.06
176	80	65	1.0526	74	1.0613	31	48	54	
173	1.0411	97	57	1.0605	45	63	79	85	
170	43	1.0528	89	36	76	94	1.0710	1.0717	1.07
167	74	59	1.0620	68	1.0707	1.0725	42	48	
164	1.0505	91	51	99	39	56	73	80	
161	37	1.0622	82	1.0730	70	88	1.0804	1.0811	1.08
158	68	53	1.0714	62	1.0801	1.0819	36	42	
155	99	84	45	93	33	50	67	73	
152	1.0631	1.0716	76	1.0824	64	82	98	1.0903	1.09
149	62	47	1.0808	55	95	1.0913	1.0930	39	4
146	93	78	39	87	1.0926	44	61	67	
143	1.0724	1.0810	70	1.0918	58	75	92	98	1.10
140	56	41	1.0901	49	89	1.1007	1.1023	1.1030	
137	87	72	33	80	1.1020	38	55	61	
134	1.0818	1.0903	64	1.1012	51	69	86	92	
131	49	34	95	43	83	1.1100	1.1117	1.1123	1.11
128	81	66	1.1026	74	1.1114	32	48	54	
125	1.0912	97	57	1.1105	45	63	79	86	
122	43	1.1028	89	36	76	94	1.1211	1.1217	1.12
119	74	59	1.1120	68	1.1207	1.1225	42	48	
116	1.1005	90	51	99	39	56	73	79	
113	36	1.1122	82	1.1230	70	88	1.1304	1.1310	1.13
110	68	53	1.1213	61	1.1301	1.1319	35	42	
107	99	84	45	92	32	50	66	73	
104	1.1130	1.1215	76	1.1323	63	81	98	1.1404	1.14
101	61	46	1.1307	55	94	1.1412	1.1429	35	
98	92	77	38	86	1.1426	43	60	66	
95	1.1223	1.1309	69	1.1417	57	75	91	97	1.13
92	55	40	1.1400	48	88	1.1506	1.1522	1.1529	
89	86	71	31	79	1.1519	37	54	60	
86	1.1317	1.1402	63	1.1510	50	68	84	91	
83	48	33	94	41	81	99	1.1616	1.1622	1.16
80	79	64	1.1525	73	1.1612	1.1630	47	53	
77	1.1410	95	56	1.1604	44	61	78	84	
74	41	1.1526	87	35	75	92	1.1709	1.1715	1.17
71	72	58	1.1618	66	1.1706	1.1723	40	46	
68	1.1504	80	49	97	37	55	71	78	
65	35	1.1620	80	1.1728	68	86	1.1802	1.1809	1.18
62	66	51	1.1711	59	99	1.1817	33	40	
59	97	82	43	90	1.1830	45	64	71	
56	1.1628	1.1713	74	1.1821	61	79	96	1.1902	1.19
53	59	44	1.1805	52	92	1.1910	1.1927	35	
50	90	75	36	84	1.1923	41	58	64	
47	1.1791	1.1806	67	1.1915	54	72	89	95	1.18
44	52	37	98	46	80	1.2003	1.2020	1.2026	1.20
41	83	68	1.1929	77	1.2017	34	51	57	
38	1.1814	1.1908	60	1.2006	48	65	82	88	
35	91	76	39	79	96	1.2103	1.2120	1.2126	1.21
32	20	5	1.2022	20	1.2110	1.2126	44	50	

Temp., lbs. 58 + Pressures... 75,	60 + 75	62 + 77	64 + 79	66 + 81	68 + 83	70 + 85	72 + 87	74 + 89	76 + 91	
FACTORS OF EVAPORATION.										
F.	1.0295	1.0801	1.0907	1.0912	1.0918	1.0923	1.0929	1.0934	1.0939	1.0944
	33	38	44	49	55	60	65	70	75	
	58	64	71	75	81	86	91	97	1.0402	1.0407
	90	96	1.0401	1.0407	1.0412	1.0418	1.0423	1.0428	33	38
	1.0421	1.0427	33	38	44	49	54	59	65	69
	53	58	64	70	75	80	86	91	96	1.0501
	84	90	96	1.0501	1.0507	1.0512	1.0517	1.0522	1.0527	32
	1.0515	1.0521	1.0527	33	38	43	49	54	59	64
	47	53	58	64	69	75	80	85	90	95
	78	84	90	95	1.0601	1.0606	1.0611	1.0616	1.0622	1.0626
	1.0610	1.0615	1.0621	1.0627	32	37	43	48	53	58
	41	47	52	58	63	69	74	79	84	89
	72	78	84	89	95	1.0700	1.0705	1.0711	1.0716	1.0721
	1.0704	1.0709	1.0715	1.0721	1.0726	32	37	42	47	52
	35	41	46	52	57	63	68	73	78	83
	67	72	78	83	89	94	99	1.0805	1.0810	1.0815
	1.0815	1.0803	1.0809	1.0815	1.0820	1.0825	1.0831	36	41	46
	1.0829	35	40	46	51	57	62	67	72	77
	60	66	72	77	83	88	93	98	1.0904	1.0908
	92	97	1.0903	1.0909	1.0914	1.0919	1.0925	1.0930	35	40
	1.0923	1.0929	34	40	45	51	56	61	66	71
	54	60	66	71	77	82	87	92	97	1.1002
	85	91	97	1.1002	1.1008	1.1013	1.1018	1.1023	1.1029	34
	1.1017	1.1022	1.1028	34	39	44	50	55	60	65
	48	54	59	65	70	76	81	86	91	96
	79	85	91	96	1.1102	1.1107	1.1112	1.1117	1.1122	1.1127
	1.1110	1.1116	1.1122	1.1127	33	38	43	49	54	59
	42	47	53	59	64	69	75	80	85	90
	73	79	84	90	95	1.1201	1.1206	1.1211	1.1216	1.1221
	1.1204	1.1210	1.1215	1.1221	1.1226	32	37	42	47	52
	35	41	47	52	58	63	68	73	78	83
	66	72	78	83	89	94	99	1.1305	1.1310	1.1315
	1.1329	1.1303	1.1309	1.1315	1.1320	1.1325	1.1331	36	41	46
	60	66	71	77	82	88	93	98	1.1403	1.1408
	91	97	1.1403	1.1408	1.1414	1.1419	1.1424	1.1429	34	39
	1.1422	1.1428	34	39	45	50	55	60	65	70
	53	59	65	70	76	81	86	92	97	1.1502
	85	90	96	1.1502	1.1507	1.1512	1.1518	1.1523	1.1528	33
	1.1516	1.1521	1.1527	33	38	43	49	54	59	64
	47	53	58	64	69	75	80	85	90	95
	78	84	89	95	1.1600	1.1606	1.1611	1.1616	1.1621	1.1626
	1.1609	1.1615	1.1621	1.1626	32	37	42	47	52	57
	40	46	52	57	63	68	73	78	83	88
	71	77	83	88	94	99	1.1704	1.1710	1.1715	1.1720
	1.1702	1.1708	1.1714	1.1719	1.1725	1.1730	35	41	46	51
	34	39	45	51	56	61	67	72	77	82
	65	70	76	82	87	92	98	1.1803	1.1808	1.1813
	96	1.1802	1.1807	1.1813	1.1818	1.1824	1.1829	34	39	44
	1.1827	33	38	44	49	55	60	65	70	75
	58	64	69	75	80	86	91	96	1.1901	1.1906
	89	95	1.1901	1.1906	1.1912	1.1917	1.1922	1.1927	32	37
	1.1920	1.1926	32	37	43	48	53	58	63	68
	51	57	63	68	74	79	84	89	94	99
	82	88	94	99	1.2005	1.2010	1.2015	1.2021	1.2026	1.2031
	1.2013	1.2019	1.2025	1.2030	36	41				6
	44	50	56	61	67	72				91
	76	81	87	93	98	1.2103	1.1			1124
	1.2107	1.2112	1.2118	1.2124	1.2129	34				
	38	43	49	55	60	65				
	69	75	80	86	91	97				

Gauge-pressures lb., 75 +	FACTORS OF EVAPORATION.									
	80 +	82 +	84 +	86 +	88 +	90 +	92 +	94 +	96 +	
Absolute Pressures, 93	95	97	99	101	103	105	107	109	111	
212	1.0349	1.0353	1.0358	1.0363	1.0367	1.0372	1.0376	1.0381	1.0385	1.0389
209	80	85	90	94	99	1.0403	1.0408	1.0412	1.0416	1.0421
206	1.0411	1.0416	1.0421	1.0426	1.0430	35	39	43	48	52
203	43	48	52	57	62	66	71	75	79	83
200	74	79	84	89	93	98	1.0502	1.0506	1.0511	1.0515
197	1.0506	1.0511	1.0515	1.0520	1.0525	1.053	33	38	42	46
194	37	42	47	51	56	60	65	69	73	78
191	69	73	78	83	87	92	96	1.0601	1.0603	1.0605
188	1.0600	1.0605	1.0610	1.0614	1.0619	1.0623	1.0628	32	35	38
185	31	36	41	46	50	55	59	63	68	72
182	63	68	72	77	81	86	90	95	99	1.0704
179	94	99	1.0704	1.0708	1.0713	1.0717	1.0722	1.0726	1.0730	33
176	1.0725	1.0730	35	40	44	49	53	57	62	66
173	57	62	66	71	75	80	84	89	93	97
170	88	93	98	1.0802	1.0807	1.0811	1.0816	1.0820	1.0824	1.0828
167	1.0819	1.0824	1.0829	34	38	43	47	51	56	60
164	51	56	60	65	69	74	78	83	87	91
161	82	87	92	96	1.0901	1.0905	1.0910	1.0914	1.0918	1.0922
158	1.0913	1.0918	1.0923	1.0927	32	37	41	45	50	54
155	45	49	54	59	63	68	72	77	81	86
152	76	81	85	90	95	99	1.1004	1.1008	1.1012	1.1016
149	1.1007	1.1012	1.1017	1.1021	1.1026	1.1030	35	39	43	47
146	38	43	48	53	57	62	66	70	75	79
143	70	74	79	84	88	93	97	1.1102	1.1106	1.1110
140	1.1101	1.1106	1.1110	1.1115	1.1120	1.1124	1.1129	33	37	41
137	32	37	42	46	51	55	60	64	68	72
134	63	68	73	78	82	87	91	95	1.1200	1.1204
131	95	99	1.1304	1.1309	1.1313	1.1318	1.1322	1.1327	31	35
128	1.1326	1.1331	35	40	45	49	53	58	62	66
125	57	62	67	71	76	80	85	89	93	98
122	88	93	98	1.1302	1.1307	1.1311	1.1316	1.1320	1.1325	1.1329
119	1.1320	1.1324	1.1329	34	38	43	47	51	56	60
116	51	55	60	65	69	74	78	83	87	91
113	82	87	91	96	1.1401	1.1405	1.1409	1.1414	1.1418	1.1422
110	1.1413	1.1418	1.1422	1.1427	32	36	41	45	49	53
107	44	49	54	58	63	67	72	76	80	85
104	75	80	85	89	94	99	1.1503	1.1507	1.1512	1.1516
101	1.1506	1.1511	1.1516	1.1521	1.1525	1.1530	34	38	43	47
98	38	42	47	52	56	61	65	70	74	78
95	69	74	78	83	87	92	96	1.1601	1.1605	1.1609
92	1.1600	1.1605	1.1609	1.1614	1.1619	1.1623	1.1628	32	35	38
89	31	36	41	45	50	54	59	63	67	72
86	62	67	72	76	81	85	90	94	98	1.1703
83	93	98	1.1703	1.1707	1.1712	1.1717	1.1721	1.1725	1.1730	34
80	1.1724	1.1729	34	39	43	48	52	56	61	65
77	56	60	65	70	74	79	83	88	92	96
74	87	91	96	1.1801	1.1805	1.1810	1.1814	1.1819	1.1823	1.1827
71	1.1818	1.1823	1.1827	32	36	41	45	50	54	58
68	49	54	58	63	68	72	77	81	85	89
65	80	85	89	94	99	1.1903	1.1908	1.1912	1.1916	1.1920
62	1.1911	1.1916	1.1921	1.1925	1.1930	34	39	43	47	52
59	42	47	52	56	61	65	70	74	78	83
56	73	78	83	87	92	96	1.2001	1.2005	1.2009	1.2013
53	1.2004	1.2009	1.2014	1.2018	1.2023	1.2028	32	36	41	45
50	25	30	35	40	45	50	54	59	63	67
47	66	71	76	81	85	90	94	98	1.2106	1.2110
44	98	1.2102	1.2107	1.2112	1.2116	1.2121	1.2125	1.2130	34	38
41	1.2129	33	37	42	47	52	56	61	65	69
38	60	65	70	74	78	83	87	91	95	99
35	91	95	1.2209	1.2214	1.2218	1.2223	1.2227	1.2231	1.2235	1.2239
32	21	25	29	33	37	41	45	49	53	57

mmers 100 + Press. s. 115.	105 + 120	110 + 125	115 + 130	120 + 135	125 + 140	130 + 145	135 + 150	140 + 155	145 + 160	150 + 165
FACTORS OF EVAPORATION.										
1.0397	1.0407	1.0417	1.0427	1.0436	1.0445	1.0453	1.0462	1.0470	1.0478	1.0486
1.0429	39	49	58	67	76	85	93	1.0501	1.0509	1.0517
60	70	80	89	99	1.0508	1.0516	1.0525	33	41	48
92	1.0502	1.0511	1.0521	1.0530	39	48	56	64	72	80
1.0523	33	43	52	62	70	79	87	96	1.0604	1.0611
55	65	74	84	93	1.0602	1.0610	1.0619	1.0627	35	43
86	96	1.0606	1.0615	1.0624	33	42	50	58	66	74
1.0617	1.0627	37	47	56	65	73	82	90	98	1.0706
49	59	69	78	87	96	1.0705	1.0713	1.0721	1.0729	37
80	90	1.0700	1.0709	1.0719	1.0727	36	44	53	61	68
1.0712	1.0722	31	41	50	59	67	76	84	92	1.0800
43	53	63	72	81	90	99	1.0807	1.0815	1.0823	31
74	84	94	1.0803	1.0813	1.0821	1.0830	39	47	55	62
1.0806	1.0816	1.0825	35	44	53	61	70	78	86	94
37	47	57	66	75	84	93	1.0901	1.0909	1.0917	1.0925
68	78	88	97	1.0907	1.0915	1.0924	32	41	49	56
1.0900	1.0910	1.0919	1.0929	38	47	55	64	72	80	88
31	41	51	60	69	78	87	95	1.1003	1.1011	1.1019
62	72	82	91	1.1000	1.1009	1.1018	1.1026	35	43	50
93	1.1003	1.1013	1.1023	32	41	49	58	66	74	82
1.1025	35	44	54	63	72	81	89	97	1.1105	1.1113
56	66	76	85	94	1.1103	1.1112	1.1120	1.1128	36	44
87	97	1.1107	1.1116	1.1125	34	43	51	60	68	75
1.1118	1.1129	38	48	57	66	74	83	91	99	1.1307
50	60	70	79	88	97	1.1206	1.1214	1.1222	1.1230	38
81	91	1.1201	1.1210	1.1219	1.1228	37	45	53	61	69
1.1212	1.1222	32	41	51	59	68	76	85	93	1.1300
43	53	63	73	82	91	99	1.1308	1.1316	1.1324	32
75	85	94	1.1304	1.1313	1.1322	1.1331	39	47	55	63
1.1306	1.1316	1.1326	35	44	53	62	70	78	86	94
37	47	57	66	75	84	93	1.1401	1.1409	1.1417	1.1425
68	78	88	97	1.1407	1.1415	1.1424	32	41	49	56
99	1.1409	1.1419	1.1429	38	47	55	64	72	80	88
1.1431	41	50	60	69	78	86	95	1.1503	1.1511	1.1519
62	72	82	91	1.1500	1.1509	1.1518	1.1516	34	42	50
93	1.1503	1.1513	1.1522	31	40	49	57	65	73	81
1.1524	34	44	53	62	71	80	88	97	1.1606	1.1612
55	65	75	84	94	1.1602	1.1611	1.1620	1.1628	36	43
86	96	1.1606	1.1616	1.1625	34	42	51	59	67	75
1.1618	1.1628	37	47	56	65	73	82	90	98	1.1706
49	59	68	78	87	96	1.1705	1.1713	1.1721	1.1729	37
80	90	1.1700	1.1709	1.1718	1.1727	36	44	52	60	68
1.1711	1.1721	31	40	49	58	67	75	83	91	99
42	52	62	71	80	89	98	1.1806	1.1815	1.1823	1.1830
73	83	93	1.1802	1.1812	1.1820	1.1829	37	46	54	61
1.1804	1.1814	1.1824	34	43	52	60	69	77	85	93
35	45	55	65	74	83	91	1.1900	1.1908	1.1916	1.1924
67	77	86	96	1.1905	1.1914	1.1922	31	39	47	55
98	1.1908	1.1917	1.1927	36	45	54	62	70	78	86
1.1929	39	49	58	67	76	85	93	1.2001	1.2009	1.2017
60	70	80	89	98	1.2007	1.2016	1.2024	32	40	48
91	1.2001	1.2011	1.2020	1.2029	38	47	55	63	71	79
1.2022	32	42	51	60	69	78	86	94	1.2102	1.2110
53	63	73	82	91	1.2100	1.2109	1.2117	1.2126	34	41
84	94	1.2104	1.2113	1.2123	31	40	48	57	65	72
1.2115	1.2125	35	44	54	63	71	80	88	96	1.2203
46	56	66	76	85	94	1.2202	1.2211	1.2219	1.2227	35
77	87	97	1.2207	1.2216	1.2225	33	42	50	58	66
1.2208	1.2219	1.2228	38	47	56	64	73	81	89	97
40	50	59	69	78	87	95	1.2304	1.2312	1.2320	1.2328
71	81	90	1.2300	1.2309	1.2318	1.2326	35	43	51	59

STRENGTH OF STEAM-BOILERS, VARIOUS FOR CONSTRUCTION.

There is a great lack of uniformity in the rules prescribed by different writers and by legislation governing the construction of steam-boilers. In the United States, boilers for merchant vessels must be constructed according to the rules and regulations prescribed by the Board of Supervisors of Steam Vessels; in the U. S. Navy, according to the rules of the Navy Department, and in some cases according to special acts of Congress. On land, in some places, as in Philadelphia, the construction of steam-boilers is governed by local laws; but generally there are no laws upon the subject, and boilers are constructed according to the idea of individual engine-makers. In Europe the construction is generally regulated by different inspection laws. The rules of the U. S. Supervising Inspector of Steam-vessels, the British Lloyd's and Board of Trade, the French Veritas, and the German Lloyd's are ably reviewed in a paper by Mr. Foley, M. Inst. Naval Architects, etc., read at the Chicago Engineering Congress, Division of Marine and Naval Engineering. From this paper following notes are taken, chiefly with reference to the U. S., and British rules. (*Abbreviations.*—T. S., for tensile strength; El., elongation; Dis., for distance of rivet from edge of hole.)

Hydraulic Tests.—*Board of Trade, Lloyd's, and Bureau Veritas.*—Twice the working pressure.

United States Statutes.—One and a half times the working pressure.

Mr. Foley proposes that the proof pressure should be $1\frac{1}{2}$ times the working pressure + one atmosphere.

Established Nominal Factors of Safety.—*Board of Trade.*—4.5 for a boiler of moderate length and of the best construction for merchantship.

Lloyd's.—Not very apparent, but appears to lie between 4 and 5.

United States Statutes.—Indefinite, because the strength of the boiler is not considered, except by the broad distinction between single and double riveting.

Bureau Veritas: 4.4.

German Lloyd's: 5 to 4.65, according to the thickness of the plate.

Material for Riveting.—*Board of Trade.*—Tensile strength of rivet bars between 26 and 30 tons, el. in 10" not less than 25%, and elongation area not less than 50%.

Lloyd's.—T. S., 26 to 30 tons; el. not less than 20% in 8". The rivets must stand bending to a curve, the inner radius of which is not greater than $1\frac{1}{2}$ times the thickness of the plate, after having been uniformly heated to a low cherry-red, and quenched in water at 82° F.

United States Statutes.—No special provision.

Rules Connected with Riveting.—*Board of Trade.*—The tensile resistance of the rivet steel to be taken at 23 tons per square inch to be used for the factor of safety independently of any addition to the factor for the plating. Rivets in double shear to have only 1.75 times the tensile section taken in the calculation instead of 2. The diameter must not be less than the thickness of the plate and the pitch never greater than $\frac{3}{4}$ the thickness of double butt-straps (each) not to be less than $\frac{3}{8}$ the thickness of the plate; single butt-straps not less than $\frac{1}{8}$.

Distance from centre of rivet to edge of hole = diameter of rivet.

Distance between rows of rivets

$$= 2 \times \text{diam. of rivet or } = [(\text{diam.} \times 4) + 1] + 2, \text{ if chain, and} \\ = \frac{\sqrt{[(\text{pitch} \times 11) + (\text{diam.} \times 4)] \times (\text{pitch} + \text{diam.} \times 4)}}{10} \text{ if zig}$$

Diagonal pitch = (pitch \times 6 + diam. \times 4) + 10.

Lloyd's.—Rivets in double shear to have only 1.75 times the single shear strength taken in the calculation instead of 2. The shearing strength of rivets to be taken at 85% of the T. S. of the material of shell plates. In cases where the strength of the longitudinal joint is satisfactorily shown by experiment to be greater than given by the formula, the actual strength may be taken in the calculation.

United States Statutes.—No rules.

Material for Cylindrical Shells Subject to Internal Pressure.—*Board of Trade.*—Between 27 and 32 tons. In the case of riveted shells, the factor of safety should be about $\frac{3}{4}$; &c. not less than 2.

than 20%. Strips 2" wide should stand bending until the sides are flat at a distance from each other of not more than three times the thickness.

1876.—T. S. between the limits of 25 and 30 tons per square inch. Elongation less than 20% in 8". Test strips heated to a low cherry-red and plunged in water at 82° F. must stand bending to a curve, the inner radius of which is not greater than 1½ times the plate's thickness.

1878. *Statutes*.—Plates of ¼" thick and under shall show a contr. of not less than 50%; when over ¼" and up to ¾", not less than 45%; when over ¾" not less than 40%.

Foley's comments: The Board of Trade rules seem to indicate a steel of high T. S. when a lower and more ductile one can be got; the lower limit should be reduced, and the bending test might with advantage be made after tempering, and made to a smaller radius. Lloyd's rule for riveted joints seems more satisfactory, but the temper test is not severe. The United States Statutes are not sufficiently stringent to insure an entirely satisfactory material.

Foley suggests a material which would meet the following: 25 tons per square inch limit in tension; 25% in 8" minimum elongation; radius for bending after tempering = the plate's thickness.

Shell-plate Formula.—*Board of Trade*: $P = \frac{T \times B \times t \times 2}{D \times F}$.

- P = diameter of boiler in inches;
- B = working pressure in lbs. per square inch;
- t = thickness in inches;
- F = percentage of strength of joint compared to solid plate;
- T = tensile strength allowed for the material in lbs. per square inch;
- D = a factor of safety, being 4.5, with certain additions depending on method of construction.

$$\text{Riveted joints: } P = \frac{C \times (t - 2) \times B}{D}$$

C = thickness of plate in sixteenths; B and D as before; C = a constant depending on the kind of joint.

When longitudinal seams have double butt-straps, $C = 20$. When longitudinal seams have double butt-straps of unequal width, only covering on one side the reduced section of plate at the outer line of rivets, $C = 19.5$. When the longitudinal seams are lap-jointed, $C = 18.5$.

1878. *Statutes*.—Using same notation as for Board of Trade,

$$P = \frac{t \times 2 \times T}{D \times 6} \text{ for single-riveting; add 20\% for double-riveting;}$$

T is the lowest T. S. stamped on any plate.

Foley criticises the rule of the United States Statutes as follows: The rule ignores the riveting, except that it distinguishes between single and double, giving the latter 20% advantage; the circumferential riveting or strength of seam is altogether ignored. The rule takes no account of workmanship or method adopted of constructing the joints. The factor, one sixth, only covers the actual nominal factor of safety as well as the loss of strength at the joint, no matter what its percentage; we may therefore consider it as unsatisfactory.

Rules for Flat Plates.—*Board of Trade*: $P = \frac{C(t+1)^2}{S-6}$.

- P = working pressure in lbs. per square inch;
- S = surface supported in square inches;
- t = thickness in sixteenths of an inch;
- C = a constant as per following table:
- $C = 125$ for plates not exposed to heat or flame, the stays fitted with nuts and washers, the latter at least three times the diameter of the stay and ¾ the thickness of the plate;
- $C = 187.5$ for the same condition, but the washers ¾ the pitch of stays in diameter, and thickness not less than plate;
- $C = 200$ for the same condition, but doubling plates in place of washers, the width of which is ¾ the pitch and thickness the same as the plate;
- $C = 112.5$ for the same condition, but the stays with nuts only;
- $C = 15$ when exposed to impact of heat or flame and steam; the plates, and the stays fitted with nuts and washers diameter of the stay and ¾ the plate's thickness;

$C = 67.5$ for the same condition, but stays fitted with nuts only;
 $C = 100$ when exposed to heat or flame, and water in contact with the plate and stays screwed into the plates and fitted with nuts;
 $C = 66$ for the same condition, but stays with riveted heads.

U. S. Statutes.—Using same notation as for Board of Trade. $P = \frac{C}{p}$
 where $p =$ greatest pitch in inches, P and t as above;

$C = 112$ for plates $7/16''$ thick and under, fitted with screw stays and nuts, or plain bolt fitted with single nut and socket riveted head and socket;

$C = 120$ for plates above $7/16''$, under the same conditions;

$C = 140$ for flat surfaces where the stays are fitted with nuts inside and outside;

$C = 200$ for flat surfaces under the same condition, but with the addition of a washer riveted to the plate at least $1/2$ plate's thickness, and of a diameter equal to $2/5$ pitch.

N.B.—Plates fitted with double angle-irons and riveted to plate, with at least $3/8$ the thickness of plate and depth at least $3/4$ of pitch, would allow the same pressure as determined by formula for plate with stays riveted on.

N.B.—No brace or stay-bolt used in marine boilers to have a greater pitch than $10 1/2''$ on fire-boxes and back connections.

Certain experiments were carried out by the Board of Trade which show that the resistance to bulging does not vary as the square of the plate thickness. There seems also good reason to believe that it is not inversely as the square of the greatest pitch. Bearing in mind, says Mr. Foley, that mathematicians have signally failed to give us true theoretical formulae for calculating the resistance of bodies subject to the simplest forms of stresses, we therefore cannot expect much from their assistance in the matter of flat plates.

The Board of Trade rules for flat surfaces, being based on actual experiment, are especially worthy of respect; sound judgment appears also have been used in framing them.

Furnace Formulae.—BOARD OF TRADE.—*Long Furnaces.*—

$P = \frac{C \times t^2}{(L+1) \times D}$, but not where L is shorter than $(11.5t - 1)$, at which length the rule for short furnaces comes into play.

$P =$ working-pressure in pounds per square inch; $t =$ thickness in inch;
 $D =$ outside diameter in inches; $L =$ length of furnace in feet up to 100;
 $C =$ a constant, as per following table, for drilled holes:

$C = 99,000$ for welded or butt-jointed with single straps, double riveted;

$C = 88,000$ for butts with single straps, single-riveted;

$C = 99,000$ for butts with double straps, single-riveted.

Provided always that the pressure so found does not exceed that given by the following formulae, which apply also to short furnaces:

$P = \frac{C \times t}{D}$ for all the patent furnaces named;

$P = \frac{C \times t}{3 \times D} \left(5 - \frac{L \times 12}{67.5 \times t} \right)$ when with Adamson rings.

$C = 8,800$ for plain furnaces;

$C = 14,000$ for Fox; minimum thickness $5/16''$, greatest $3/8''$; plain part not to exceed $6''$ in length;

$C = 13,500$ for Morison; minimum thickness $5/16''$, greatest $3/8''$; plain part not to exceed $6''$ in length;

$C = 14,000$ for Purves-Brown; limits of thickness $7/16''$ and $3/8''$; plain part $9''$ in length;

$C = 8,800$ for Adamson rings; radius of flange next fire $1 1/2''$.

U. S. STATUTES.—*Long Furnaces.*—Same notation.

$P = \frac{89,600 \times t^2}{L \times D}$, but L not to exceed 5 ft.

N.B.—If rings of wrought iron are fitted and riveted on properly and to the flue in such a manner that the tensile stress on the rivets is

3000 lbs. per sq. in., the distance between the rings shall be taken as the length of the flue in the formulæ.

Rules, Plain and Patent.—*P*, as before, when not 8 ft.

$$P = \frac{10 \times t^2}{C}$$

$$\times \frac{D}{C}$$

C when

C = 14,000 for Fox corrugations where *D* = mean diameter;

C = 14,000 for Purves-Brown where *D* = diameter of flue;

C = 5677 for plain flues over 16" diameter and less than 40', when not over 3 ft. lengths.

Comments on the rules for long furnaces as follows: The Board general formula, where the length is a factor, has a very limited use, viz., 10 ft. as the extreme length, and 135 thicknesses — 12",

at limit. The original formula, $P = \frac{C \times t^2}{L \times D}$ is that of Sir W.

and was, I believe, never intended by him to apply to short furnaces. The very face of it, it is apparent, on the other hand, that if it is moderately long furnaces, it cannot be so for very long ones. We are driven to the conclusion that any formula which includes a factor must be founded on a wrong basis.

Trall's form of the formula, namely, substituting (*L* + 1) for *L*, appears sufficiently satisfactory for practical purposes, and in fact as can be judged, tally with the results obtained from experimentally as could be expected. The experiments to which I refer number, and of great variety of length to diameter; the actual safety ranged from 4.4 to 6.2, the mean being 4.78, or practically 5 to me, therefore, that, within the limits prescribed, the Board of Trade formula may be accepted as suitable for our requirements.

The United States Statutes give Fairbairn's rule pure and simple, except the extreme limit of length to which it applies is fixed at 8 feet. As will be seen, no limit for the shortest length is prescribed, but the same is by no means clear, flues and furnaces being mixed or not distinguished.

Material for Stays.—The qualities of material prescribed are as follows:

Trade.—The tensile strength to lie between the limits of 27 and 30 square inch, and to have an elongation of not less than 20% in stays which have been welded or worked in the fire should not

be less than 26 to 30 ton steel, with elongation not less than 20% in 8".

Rules.—The only condition is that the reduction of area must not exceed 40% if the test bar is over 3/4" diameter.

Allowed on Stays.—*Board of Trade.*—9000 lbs. per square inch allowed on the net section, provided the tensile strength ranges from 27 to 30 square inch. Steel stays are not to be welded or worked in the fire.

For screwed and other stays, not exceeding 1 1/2" diameter effective area per square inch is allowed; for stays above 1 1/2", 9000 lbs. No welding.

Rules.—Braces and stays shall not be subjected to a greater stress than 27,000 lbs. per square inch.

S. E., p. 459, says: "The iron of the stays ought not to be exposed to a greater working tension than 3000 lbs. on the square inch, in order to provide against their being weakened by corrosion. This amounts to a factor of safety for the working pressure about 20." It is evident, that an allowance in the factor of safety for corrosion may be decreased with increase of diameter. W. K.]

Board of Trade. $P = \frac{C \times d^2 \times t}{(W - p)D \times L}$. *P* = working pressure per sq. in.; *W* = width of flame-box in inches; *L* = length of flue in inches; *p* = pitch of bolts in inches; *D* = distance between girders to centre in inches; *d* = depth of girder in inches; *t* = thickness of same in inches; *C* = a constant = 6600 for 1 bolt, 9900 for 2 bolts, 11,230 for 4 bolts.

The same formula and constants, except that *C* = 11,000 for 4 or 6 or 7, and 11,880 for 8 or more.

Notes.—The matter appears to be left to the designers.

Tube-Plates.—Board of Trade. $P = \frac{t(D-d) \times 20,000}{W \times D}$

horizontal distance between centres of tubes in inches; d = inside of ordinary tubes; t = thickness of tube-plate in inches; W = width of combustion-box in inches from front tube-plate to back box, or distance between combustion-box tube-plates when the double-ended and the box common to both ends.

The crushing stress on tube-plates caused by the pressure on the box top is to be limited to 10,000 lbs. per square inch.

Material for Tubes.—Mr. Foley proposes the following: It is quality to be such as to give at least 22 tons per square inch as the tensile strength, with an elongation of not less than 15% in 8". It is elongation to be not less than 20% in 8" for the material before being into strips; and after tempering, the test bar to stand completely together. Provided the steel welds well, there does not seem to be object in providing tensile limits.

The ends should be annealed after manufacture, and stay-tubes should be annealed before screwing.

Holding-power of Boiler-tubes.—Experiments made at the Royal Naval Dockyard show that with 2½ in. brass tubes in no case was the power less, roughly speaking, than 6000 lbs., while the average was of 20,000 lbs. It was further shown that with these tubes nuts were fluons, quite as good results being obtained with tubes simply expanded into the tube-plate and fitted with a ferrule. When nuts were fitted it was that they drew off without injuring the threads.

In Messrs. Yarrow's experiments on iron and steel tubes of 2 diameter the first 5 tubes gave way on an average of 23,740 lbs., which appear to be about ¾ the ultimate strength of the tubes themselves; in these cases the hole through the tube-plate was parallel with a side to it, and a ferrule was driven into the tube.

Tests of the next 5 tubes were made under the same conditions as 5, with the exception that in this case the ferrule was omitted, the hole being simply expanded into the plates. The mean pull required was 12 or considerably less than half the ultimate strength of the tubes.

Effect of beading the tubes, the holes through the plate being parallel with ferrules omitted. The mean of the first 3, which are tubes of 1 kind, gives 26,876 lbs. as their holding-power, under these conditions compared with 23,740 lbs. for the tubes fitted with ferrules only. The figure is, however, mainly due to an exceptional case where the holding-power is greater than the average strength of the tubes themselves.

It is disadvantageous to cone the hole through the tube-plate if a sharp edge is removed, as the results are much worse than those with parallel holes, the mean pull being but 16,081 lbs., the experiment made with tubes expanded and ferruled but not beaded over.

In experiments on tubes expanded into tapered holes, beaded and fitted with ferrules, the net result is that the holding-power is, for experiment on, about ¾ of the tensile strength of the tube, the mean being 28,797 lbs.

With tubes expanded into tapered holes and simply beaded over results were obtained than with ferrules; in these cases, however, the edge of the hole was rounded off, which appears in general to have effect.

In one particular the experiments are incomplete, as it is impossible to reproduce on a machine the racking the tubes get by the expansion of the boiler as it is heated up and cooled down again, and it is quite probable, therefore, that the fastening giving the best results on the testing machine may not prove so efficient in practice.

N.B.—It should be noted that the experiments were all made in cold condition, so that reference should be made with caution, the conditions in practice being very different, especially when there is expansion of the tube-plates, or when the tube-plates are thick and subject to heat.

Iron versus Steel Boiler-tubes. (Foley.)—Mr. Foley prefers iron tubes to those of steel, but how far he would go in this direction is not clear. He says that the use of steel tubes is not so good as the use of iron tubes, but that the results of his experiments would vary in this direction. The test consisted of a considerable distance in this direction. The test consisted of a considerable distance in this direction. The test consisted of a considerable distance in this direction.

time furnace, made red-hot, and then dipped in water. The
 aged at a temperature of 46° F.
 ion was twice repeated, with results as follows:

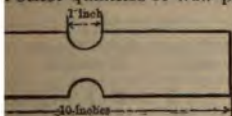
	Steel.	Iron.
th.....	55.495 in.	55.495 in.
° F.; increase.....	.052 "	.048 "
expansion per degree F.....	.0000067	.0000062
ot and dipped in water; decrease	.007 in.	.003 in.
ng and cooling, decrease.....	.031 in.	.004 in.
ng and cooling, decrease.....	.017 in.	.006 in.
traction035 in.	.013 in.

Clark writes: That overheating of tube ends is the cause of the
 re tubes in boilers is proved by the fact that the ferrules at
 by the Admiralty prevent it. These act by shielding the tube
 re action of the flame, and consequently reducing evaporation,
 ing free access of the water to keep them cool.
 many causes contribute, there seems no doubt that thick tube-
 bear a share of causing the mischief.

Construction of Boilers in Merchant Vessels in the United States.

om General Rules and Regulations of the Board of Supervising
 ectors of Steam-vessels (as amended 1893 and 1894.)

Strength of Plate. (Section 3.)—To ascertain the tensile
 other qualities of iron plate there shall be taken from each



sheet to be used in shell or other
 parts of boiler which are subject to
 tensile strain a test piece prepared
 in form according to the following
 diagram, viz.: 10 inches in length, 2
 inches in width, cut out in the
 centre in the manner indicated.

To ascertain the tensile strength
 shall be taken from each sheet to be
 for other parts of boiler which are subject to tensile strain, a test-

qualities of steel plate, there shall be taken from each sheet to be
 for other parts of boiler which are subject to tensile strain, a test-
 ing diagram, the length
 part in centre varying as
 y different thickness of
 follows:



ght portion shall be in
 at eight times the width multiplied by the thickness of said part.
 reduction of area as called for by the present rules of the Board,
 gation of at least 2%. The straight part shall be of a width of 1
 rule to take effect on and after July 1, 1894.

that where contracts for boilers for ocean-going steamers re-
 of material in compliance with the British Board of Trade,
 yd's, or Bureau Veritas rules for testing, the inspectors shall
 sts in compliance with the following rules:

es shall in all cases to have an ultimate elongation not less than 20%
 of 8 inches. It is to be capable of being bent to a curve of which
 dius is not greater than one and a half times the thickness of
 after having been heated uniformly to a low cherry-red, and
 a water of 82° F.

1894 the shape of test-piece for steel was the same as that for iron,
 oved shape. This shape has been condemned by authorities on
 materials for over twenty years. It always gives results which
 y, the error sometimes amounting to 25 per cent. See pages 242,
 so, Strength of Materials, W. Kent, Van N. Science Series No. 41,
 see on Wrought-iron and Chain Cables.]

fy. (Section 5.)—To ascertain the ductility and other lawful
 on of 45,000 lbs. tensile strength shall show a contraction of area,
 out, and each additional 1000 lbs. tensile strength shall show 1
 ditional contraction of area, up to and including 55,000
 on of 55,000 tensile strength and upwards, showing
 area, shall be deemed to have the lawful ductil
 h thickness and under shall show a contraction
 cent. Steel plate over 1/4 inch in thickness, w

Thickness in (ths) of an inch,	Diameter in Inches.									
	54	60	66	72	78	84	90	96	102	108
1	16.2	14.6	13.3	12.2	11.2	10.4	9.7	9.1	8.6	8.1
2	32.4	29.2	26.5	24.3	22.4	20.8	19.4	18.2	17.2	16.3
3	48.6	43.7	39.8	36.5	33.7	31.3	29.2	27.3	25.7	24.3
4	64.8	58.3	53.0	48.6	44.9	41.7	38.9	36.5	34.3	32.4
5	81.0	72.9	66.3	60.8	56.1	52.1	48.0	45.0	42.9	40.3
6	97.2	87.5	79.5	72.9	67.3	62.5	58.3	54.7	51.5	48.6
7	113.4	102.1	92.8	85.1	78.5	72.9	68.1	63.8	60.0	56.7
8	129.6	116.7	106.1	97.2	89.7	83.3	77.8	72.9	68.6	64.4
9	145.8	131.2	119.3	109.4	101.0	93.5	87.5	82.0	77.2	72.8
10	162.0	145.8	132.6	121.5	112.2	104.2	97.2	91.1	85.8	81.0
11	178.2	160.4	145.8	133.7	123.4	114.6	106.9	100.3	94.4	89.1
12	194.4	175.0	159.1	145.8	134.6	125.0	116.7	109.4	102.9	97.2
13	210.7	189.6	172.4	158.0	145.8	135.4	126.4	118.5	111.5	105.3
14	226.9	204.2	185.6	170.1	157.1	145.8	136.1	127.6	120.1	113.4
15	243.1	218.7	198.9	182.3	168.3	156.3	145.8	136.7	128.7	121.5
16	259.3	233.3	212.1	194.4	179.5	166.7	155.6	145.8	137.3	129.6

Rules governing Inspection of Boilers in Philad

In estimating the strength of the longitudinal seams in the shells of boilers the inspector shall apply two formulæ, A and B:

- A, $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Pitch of rivets} - \text{diameter of holes punched to receive the} \\ \text{pitch of rivets} \\ \text{percentage of strength of the sheet at} \end{array} \right.$
- B, $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Area of hole filled by rivet} \times \text{No. of rows of rivets in seam} \times \\ \text{ing strength of rivet} \\ \text{pitch of rivets} \times \text{thickness of sheet} \times \text{tensile strength of} \\ \text{percentage of strength of the rivets in} \end{array} \right.$

Take the lowest of the percentages as found by formulæ A and B, and apply that percentage as the "strength of the seam" in the formula C, which determines the strength of the longitudinal seam.

- C, $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Thickness of sheet in parts of inch} \times \text{strength of seam as ob} \\ \text{by formula A or B} \times \text{ultimate strength of iron stamped on} \\ \text{internal radius of boiler in inches} \times 5 \text{ as a factor of safe} \\ \text{safe working} \end{array} \right.$

TABLE OF PROPORTIONS AND SAFE WORKING PRESSURES WITH FEET AND C, @ 50,000 LBS., T.S.

Diameter of rivet,	5/16"	11/16"	3/4"	13/16"
Diameter of rivet-hole,	11/16"	3/4"	13/16"	7/8"
Pitch of rivets,	2"	2 1/16"	2 3/8"	2 3/4"
Strength of seam, %655	.636	.62	.60
Thickness of plate,	1/4"	5/16"	3/8"	7/16"

Safe Working Pressure with Longitudinal Single-riveted.

24	137	165	193	220
30	109	132	154	176
32	103	124	144	165
34	96	117	136	155
36	91	110	129	147
38	86	104	122	139
40	82	99	116	132
44	74	91	108	123
48	68	83	99	113
54	60	73	88	100
60	55	66	81	91

of rivet.....	5/8"	11/16	3/4	13/16	7/8
of rivet-hole...	11/16"	3/4	13/16	7/8	15/16
of rivets.....	3"	3 1/2	3 3/4	3 7/8	3 1/2
of seam, %.....	.77	.76	.75	.74	.73
of plate.....	3/4"	5/16	3/8	7/16	1/2
of boiler, in...	Safe Working Pressure with Longitudinal Seams, Double-riveted.				
24	160	198	235	269	305
30	127	158	188	215	243
32	119	148	176	202	228
34	112	140	166	190	215
36	106	132	156	179	203
38	101	125	148	170	192
40	96	119	141	161	183
44	87	108	128	147	166
48	79	99	118	135	152
54	70	88	104	120	135
60	64	79	94	108	122

Flues and Tubes for Steam-boilers.—(From Rules of U. S. Mining Inspectors. Steam-pressures per square inch allowable on and lap-welded flues made in sections. Extract from table in Rules of Supervising Inspectors.)
 T = least thickness of material allowable, D = greatest diameter in inches, P = allowable pressure. For thickness greater than T with same diameter increase in the ratio of the thickness.

7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
18	20	21	21	22	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33
189	184	179	174	173	158	152	147	143	139	136	134	131	129	126	125	122
24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40
34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50
121	120	119	117	116	115	115	114	112	112	110	110	109	109	108	108	107

For diameters not over 10 inches the greatest length of section allowable is 30 feet; for diameters 10 to 23 inches, 3 feet; for diameters 23 to 40 inches, 30 feet.

If lengths of sections are greater than these lengths, the allowable pressure is reduced proportionately.

The U. S. rule for corrugated flues, as amended in 1894, is as follows: Rule No. 14. The strength of all corrugated flues, when used for furnaces or chimneys (corrugation not less than 1 1/2 inches deep and not exceeding 6 inches from centres of corrugation), and provided that the plain parts at the ends do not exceed 6 inches in length, and the plates are not less than 1/2 inch thick, when new, corrugated, and practically true circles, to be tested from the following formula:

$$\frac{14,000}{D} \times T = \text{pressure.}$$

T = thickness, in inches; D = mean diameter in inches.

Corrugated Flues.—The same formula is given for ribbed flues, with ribs or corrugations not less than 1 1/2 inches deep and not more than 9 inches apart.

Stayed Surfaces in Steam-boilers.—Rule II, Section 6, of the Rules of the U. S. Supervising Inspectors provides as follows: Braces or stays hereafter employed in the construction of boilers shall be allowed a greater strain than 6000 lbs. per square inch of net area.

Mr. Rankine, in his treatise on the Steam-engine, also in his Pocket-book, gives the following formula: $p = 4071s + d$, in which p is the internal pressure in lbs. per square inch that will strain the plates to their elastic limit, s is the thickness of the plate in inches, d is the distance between two rows of rivets in the clear, and s is the tensile stress in the plate in lbs. per square inch, at the elastic limit. Substitute for s the values for steel, and copper, 12, 14, and 8 tons respectively.

FORMULÆ FOR ULTIMATE ELASTIC STRENGTH OF FLAT STAYED SURFACES.

	Iron.	Steel.	Copper.
Pressure.....	$p = 5000 \frac{t}{d}$	$p = 5700 \frac{t}{d}$	$p =$
Thickness of plate.....	$t = \frac{p \times d}{5000}$	$t = \frac{p \times d}{5700}$	$t =$
Pitch of bolts.....	$d = \frac{5000t}{p}$	$d = \frac{5700t}{p}$	$d =$

For Diameter of the Stay-bolts, Clark gives $d' = .00084$

in which d' = diameter of screwed bolt at bottom of thread, P = normal and P' transverse pitch of stay-bolts between centres, p = pressure in lbs. per sq. in. that will strain the plate to its elastic limit, t = thickness of plate in inches, and s = ultimate elastic strength of the stay-bolts in lbs. per sq. in. Taking $s = 12, 15$, and 18 tons, respectively for iron, steel, and copper, we have

For iron, $d' = .00069 \sqrt{PP'p}$, or if $P = P'$, $d' = .00069 P \sqrt{p}$

For steel, $d' = .00064 \sqrt{PP'p}$, " " $d' = .00064 P \sqrt{p}$

For copper, $d' = .00084 \sqrt{PP'p}$, " " $d' = .00084 P \sqrt{p}$

In using these formulæ a large factor of safety should be taken for reduction of size by corrosion. Thurston's Manual of Steam-boilers, 144, recommends that the factor be as large as 15 or 20. The British Steam Boiler Insp. & Ins. Co. recommends not less than 10.

Strength of Stays.—A. F. Yarrow (*Engr.*, March 20, 1891) gives the following results of experiments to ascertain the strength of water stays:

Description.	Length between Plates.	Diameter of Stay over Threads.
Hollow stays screwed into plates and hole expanded	4.75 in.	1 in. (hole 7/16 in. and 3/16 in.)
Solid stays screwed into plates and riveted over.	4.64 in.	1 in. (hole 9/16 in. and 7/16 in.)
	4.80 in.	3/4 in.
	4.80 in.	5/8 in.

The above are taken as a fair average of numerous tests.

Stay-bolts in Curved Surfaces, as in Water-legs of Cal Boilers.—The rules of the U. S. Supervising Inspectors provide: All vertical boiler-furnaces constructed of wrought iron plates, and having a diameter of over 42 in. or a height of over 40 in., stayed with bolts as provided by § 6 of Rule II, for flat surfaces; the thickness of material required for the shells of such furnaces shall be determined by the distance between the centres of the stay-bolts in the girth and not in the shell of the boiler; and the steam-pressure shall be determined by the distance from centre of stay-bolts in the girth and the diameter of such stay-bolts at the bottom of the thread.

The Hartford Steam-boiler Insp. & Ins. Co. approves the above in its *Locomotive*, March, 1892) as far as it states that curved surfaces shall be computed the same as flat ones, but prefers Clark's formulæ for stayed surfaces to the rules of the U. S. Supervising Inspectors.

Fusible-plugs.—Fusible-plugs should be put in that portion of the heating-surface which first becomes exposed from lack of water. The rules of the U. S. Supervising Inspectors specify Banca tin for the purpose, the melting-point is about 445° F. The rule says: All steamers shall have inserted in their boilers plugs of Banca tin, at least 1/4 in. in diameter at the smallest end of the internal opening, in the following manner:—In *Cylinder-boilers* with flues shall have one plug inserted in the shell of each boiler transverse to the axis of the boiler, and also one plug inserted in the shell of each boiler transverse to the axis of the boiler, and not less than 4 ft. from the front end of the boiler. In *water-tube-boilers* shall have one plug inserted in the highest fire-surface of the boiler, and one in the highest fire-surface of the back.

upright tubular boilers used for marine purposes shall have a fusible plug inserted in one of the tubes at a point at least 2 in. below the lower end-cock, and said plug may be placed in the upper head sheet when deemed advisable by the local inspectors.

Steam-domes.—Steam domes or drums were formerly almost universally used on horizontal boilers, but their use is now generally discontinued, they are considered a useless appendage to a steam-boiler, and unless properly designed and constructed are an element of weakness.

Height of Furnace.—Recent practice in the United States makes the height of furnace much greater than it was formerly. With large sizes of grate there is no serious objection to having the furnace as low as 12 or 18 in., measured from the surface of the grate to the nearest portion of the heating surface of the boiler, but with coal containing much volatile matter and moisture a much greater distance is desirable. With very volatile coals the distance may be as great as 4 or 5 ft. Rankine (S. E., p. 457) says the clear height of the "crown" or roof of the furnace above the grate-bars is seldom less than about 18 in., and often considerably more. In the fire-boxes of locomotives it is on an average about 4 ft. The height of 18 in. is desirable where the crown of the furnace is a brick arch. Where the crown of the furnace, on the other hand, forms part of the heating-surface of the boiler, a greater height is desirable in every case in which it can be obtained; for the temperature of the boiler-plates, being much lower than that of the flame, tends to check the combustion of the inflammable gases which rise from the fuel. As a general principle a high furnace is favorable to complete combustion.

IMPROVED METHODS OF FEEDING COAL,

Mechanical Stokers. (William R. Roney, Trans. A. S. M. E., vol. 1, p. 175.)—Mechanical stokers have been used in England to a limited extent since 1785. In that year one was patented by James Watt. It was a simple device to push the coal, after it was coked at the front end of the grate, back towards the bridge. It was worked intermittently by levers, and was designed primarily to prevent smoke from bituminous coal. (See D. K. Clark's Treatise on the Steam-engine.)

After the year 1840 many styles of mechanical stokers were patented in England, but nearly all were variations and modifications of the two forms of stokers patented by John Jukes in 1841, and by E. Henderson in 1843.

The Jukes stoker consisted of longitudinal fire-bars, connected by links, which formed an endless chain, similar to the familiar treadmill horse-power. Small coal was delivered from a hopper on the front of the boiler, on to the grate, which slowly moving from front to rear, gradually advanced the coal into the furnace and discharged the ash and clinker at the back.

The Henderson stoker consists primarily of two horizontal fans revolving on vertical spindles, which scatter the coal over the fire.

Numerous faults in mechanical construction and in operation have limited the use of these and other mechanical stokers. The first American stoker

was the Murphy stoker, brought out in 1878. It consists of two coal magazines placed in the side walls of the boiler furnace, and extending back from the boiler front 6 or 7 feet. In the bottom of these magazines are rectangular iron boxes, which are moved from side to side by means of a rack and

pinion, and serve to push the coal upon the grates, which incline at an angle of about 35° from the inner edge of the coal magazines, forming a V-shaped receptacle for the burning coal. The grates are composed of narrow parallel

bars, so arranged that each alternate bar lifts about an inch at the lower end, while at the bottom of the V, and filling the space between the ends of the grate-bars, is placed a cast-iron toothed bar, arranged to be turned by a

hand. The purpose of this bar is to grind the clinker coming in contact with it. Over this V-shaped receptacle is sprung a fire-brick arch.

In the Roney mechanical stoker the fuel to be burned is dumped into a hopper on the boiler front. Set in the lower part of the hopper is a "pusher," which is attached to the "feed-plate" forming the bottom of the hopper.

The "pusher," by a vibratory motion, carrying with it the "feed-plate," gradually forces the fuel over the "dead-plate" and on the grate. The grate-bars, in their normal condition form a series of steps, to the top step of which coal is fed from the "dead-plate." Each bar rests in a concave

in the bearer, and is capable of a rocking motion through an adjustable

All the grate-bars are coupled together by a "rocker-bar," which, by a back-and-forth motion being given to the "rocker-bar,"

steam-boilers, the object must be attained by one or more agencies:

1. The position and setting of the boiler-plant. This implies proper grate draught, the necessary air-space between grate-bars and boiler, and ample combustion-room under boilers.

2. The method of firing that is best adapted to each particular furnace to effect combustion of bituminous coal. This may be either: (a) "direct" charging all coal into the front of the furnace until pressure is built up, pushing back and spreading; or (b) "alternate side-firing," by which the coal is spread over the whole grate in thin layers at each charging.

3. The method of supplying air through the furnace-door, bridge-wall, or side walls, and other artificial means for thoroughly mixing the air and fuel.

4. The cooling of the furnace and boilers by the rush of cold air. When the furnace-doors are opened for charging coal and handling the same.

5. The arrangement of the several steps of combustion so that the fuel is gradually dried, and warmed at the coolest part of the furnace, and then advanced by successive steps to the hottest place, where the final coking of the coal is completed, and compelling the distilled products to pass through this hottest part of the fire.

6. The cooling by radiation of the unburned combustible gases, and the mixing and combustion have been accomplished.

7. The supply of air to suit the periodic variation in demand.

8. The introduction of a continuous uniform feeding of coal instead of the intermittent charging.

9. The method of lighting burning or causing the air to enter above the grate and pass through the coal, carrying the distilled products down to the high temperature at the bottom of the fire.

10. The classification of smoke-prevention devices which have been invented is as follows:

1. *Stokers.* They effect a material saving in the labor of the fireman, and are efficient smoke-preventers when not pushed above their normal capacity. When the coal does not cake badly. They are rarely susceptible to sudden changes in the rate of firing frequently demanded in the case of steam-boilers.

2. *Side walls, bridge-wall, and grate-bars, through which air is drawn.* The results are always beneficial, but the flues are liable to become dirty, and the grate clean and in order.

3. *Archways, or spaces in front of the furnace arched over, in which the fuel is coked, both to prevent cooling of the distilled gases, and to allow them to pass through the hottest part of the furnace just beyond the grate.* These arches are good for normal conditions, but ineffective when the rate of firing is high. The arches also are easily burned out and injured by the action of the fire.

4. *Reserve grates, or a portion of the grate next the furnace-doors, reserved for the purpose of coking the coal before it is spread over the grate.* These are useful when the furnace is not forced above its normal capacity. The method of "coke-firing" mentioned before.

5. *Upward draught furnaces, or furnaces in which the air is supplied to the grate, and the products of combustion are taken away from the grate, thus causing a downward draught through the coal, carrying the distilled gases down to the highly heated incandescent coal at the bottom of the layer of coal on the grate.* This is the most perfect manner of effecting combustion, and is absolutely smokeless.

6. *Methods of drawing air in or injecting air into the furnace above the grate, to mix the air and the combustible gases together.* A very efficient method, but one liable to be wasteful of fuel by inducing too rapid a draught.

7. *Reserve grates placed in the furnace above the fire to aid in mixing the air and fuel with the air.*

8. *Two-grate furnaces, of which there are two different styles; the first of which is the "two-grate" style, in which the coal is coked on the first grate, and the distilled gases are made to pass over the second grate, where they are ignited and burned; the coke from the first grate is then carried onto the second grate; a very efficient and economical method, but rather complicated to construct and maintain. In the "two-grate" style, the products of combustion from the first furnace pass*

the grate and fire of the second, each furnace being charged with fuel when needed, the latter generally with a smokeless coal or coke; a conditional and unpromising method.

Mr. C. F. White, Consulting Engineer to the Chicago Society for the Prevention of Smoke, writes under date of May 4, 1893:

The experience had in Chicago has shown plainly that it is perfectly possible to equip steam-boilers with furnaces which shall burn ordinary soft coal in such a manner that the making of smoke dense enough to obstruct vision shall be confined to one or two intervals of perhaps a couple of hours during the ordinary day of 10 hours.

Gas-fired Steam-boilers.—Converting coal into gas in a steam-producer, before burning it under the steam-boiler, is an ideal smoke-prevention, but its expense has hitherto prevented its general adoption. A series of articles on the subject, illustrating a great many devices, by F. J. Rowan, is published in the *Colliery Engineer*, 1884; also Clark on the Steam-engine.

FORCED COMBUSTION IN STEAM-BOILERS

For the purpose of increasing the amount of steam that can be got by a boiler of a given size, forced draught is of great importance, and is universally used in the locomotive, the draught being obtained by a jet in the smoke-stack. It is now largely used in ocean steamers, especially in ships of war, and to a small extent in stationary boilers. Economy is generally not attained by its use, its advantages being confined to securing of increased capacity from a boiler of a given bulk, weight, and cost. The subject of forced draught is well treated in a paper by James H. Entitled, "Forced Combustion in Steam-boilers" (Section G. Eighty-ninth Congress at Chicago, in 1893), from which we abstract the following:

Edwin A. Stevens at Bordentown, N. J., in 1837, in the steamer "America," fitted the boilers with closed ash-pits, into which the air for combustion was forced by a fan. In 1838 Ericsson fitted in a similar manner the steamer "Victory," commanded by Sir John Ross.

Messrs. E. A. and R. L. Stevens continued the use of forced draught a considerable period, during which they tried three different modes of the fan for promoting combustion: 1, blowing direct into a closed ash-pit; 2, exhausting the base of the funnel by the suction of the fan; 3, forcing air into an air-tight boiler-room or stoke-hold. Each of these three methods was attended with serious difficulties.

In the use of the closed ash-pit the blast-pressure would frequently force the gases of combustion, in the shape of a serrated flame, from around the furnace doors in so great a quantity as to affect both the efficiency and health of the firemen.

The chief defect of the second plan was the great size of the fan required to produce the necessary exhaustion. The size of fan required grew rapidly in proportion to the increasing ratio as the combustion increases, both on account of the greater air-supply and the higher exit temperature enlarging the volume of the waste gases.

The third method, that of forcing cold air by the fan into an air-tight boiler-room—the present closed stoke-hold system—though it overcame the difficulties in working belonging to the two forms first tried, had defects of its own, as it cannot be worked, even with modern boiler-construction, much, if at all, above the power of a good draught, in most boilers, without damaging them.

In 1875 John I. Thornycroft & Co., of London, began the construction of torpedo-boats with boilers of the locomotive type, in which a high rate of combustion was attained by means of the air-tight boiler-room, in which air was forced by means of a fan.

In 1882 H.B.M. ships "Satellite" and "Conqueror" were fitted with the system, the former being a small ship of 1500 I.H.P., and the latter of 4500 I.H.P. On the trials with forced draught, which lasted for three hours each, the highest rates of combustion gave 16.2 I.H.P. per square foot of fire-grate in the "Satellite," and 13.41 I.H.P. in the "Conqueror."

None of the short trials at these rates of combustion were made without injury to the seams and tubes of the boilers, but the system was not abandoned, and it has been continued in the British Navy to this day (1893). In Mr. Howden's opinion the advantage arising from increased draught over natural draught is derived from using forced draught in the ash-pit sufficient to overcome the disadvantages arising from

king, there being either excessive smoke from bituminous coal or an evaporative economy.

80 Mr. Howden designed an arrangement intended to overcome the defects of both the closed ash-pit and closed stoke-hold systems.

An air-tight reservoir or chamber is placed on the front end of the boiler surrounding the furnaces. This reservoir, which projects from 8 to 10 feet from the end of the boiler, receives the air under pressure, which is admitted by the valves into the ash-pits and over the fires in proportions regulated to the kind of fuel used and the rate of combustion required. The air above the fires is admitted to a space between the outer and inner ash-pit doors, the inner having perforations and an air-distributing box through which the air passes under pressure.

By means of the balance of air-pressure above and below the fires all means may be provided for the fire to blow out at the furnace-door is removed.

The regulation of the admission of the air by the valves above and below the furnaces, the highest rate of combustion possible by the air-pressure used can be effected, and in same manner the rate of combustion can be reduced to below that of natural draught, while complete and economical combustion at all rates is secured.

A feature of the system is the combination of the heating of the air of combustion by the waste gases with the controlled and regulated admission of air to the furnaces. This arrangement is effected most conveniently by passing the hot fire-gases after they leave the boiler through stacks of vertical tubes enclosed in the uptake, their lower ends being immediately closed by the smoke-box doors.

Installations on Howden's system have hitherto been arranged for a rate of combustion to give at full sea-power an average of from 18 to 22 I.H.P. per square foot of fire-grate with fire-bars from 5' 0" to 5' 6" in length.

It is believed that with suitable arrangement of proportions even 30 I.H.P. per square foot can be obtained.

For an account of recent uses of exhaust-fans for increasing draught, see Report by W. R. Roney, Trans. A. S. M. E., vol. xv.

FUEL ECONOMIZERS.

Green's Fuel Economizer.—Clark gives the following average results from comparative trials of three boilers at Wigan used with and without economizers:

	Without Economizers.	With Economizers.
Coal per square foot of grate per hour.....	21.6	21.4
Water at 100° evaporated per hour.....	73.55	79.32
Water at 212° per pound of coal ...	9.60	10.56

It is shown that in burning equal quantities of coal per hour the rapidity of evaporation is increased 9.3% and the efficiency of evaporation 10% by the use of the economizer.

The average temperatures of the gases and of the feed-water before and after passing the economizer were as follows:

	With 6-ft. grate.		With 4-ft. grate.	
	Before.	After.	Before.	After.
Average temperature of gases.....	649	340	501	312
Average temperature of feed-water.	47	157	41	137

The average of the two grates, to raise the temperature of the feed-water 100° the gases were cooled down 250°.

Performance of a Green Economizer with a Smoky Coal.

The action of Green's Economizer was tested by M. W. Grosseteste for a period of three weeks. The apparatus consists of four ranges of vertical pipes, 6½ feet high, 3¼ inches in diameter outside, nine pipes in each range, connected at top and bottom by horizontal pipes. The water enters all the pipes from below, and leaves them from above. The system of pipes is enclosed in a brick casing, into which the gaseous products of combustion are introduced from above, and which they leave from below. The pipes are cleared of soot externally by automatic scrapers. The capacity of the apparatus is 24 cubic feet, and the total external heating-surface is 290 square feet. The apparatus is placed in connection with a boiler having 355 square feet of heating-surface.

The apparatus had been at work for seven weeks continuously, and had been cleaned, and had accumulated a ¼-inch coating

ash, when its performance, in the same condition, was observed the second week. During the second week it was cleaned twice every day; and the third week, after having been cleaned on Monday morning, it worked continuously without further cleaning. A smoke-making test was used. The consumption was maintained sensibly constant from day to day.

GREEN'S ECONOMIZER.—RESULTS OF EXPERIMENTS ON ITS EFFICIENCY AS AFFECTED BY THE STATE OF THE SURFACE. (W. Grossesche).

TIME (February and March).	Temperature of Feed-water.			Temperature of Steam Produced.	
	Enter- ing Feed- heater.	Leav- ing Feed- heater.	Differ- ence.	Enter- ing Feed- heater.	Leav- ing Feed- heater.
1st Week	Fahr. 73.5°	Fahr. 161.5°	Fahr. 88.0°	Fahr. 849°	Fahr. 201°
2d Week	77.0	230.0	153.0	882	297
3d Week—Monday	73.4	196.0	122.6	831	284
Tuesday	73.4	181.4	108.0	871	309
Wednesday	79.0	178.0	99.0	—	—
Thursday	80.6	170.6	90.0	952	329
Friday	80.6	169.0	88.4	889	338
Saturday	79.0	172.4	93.4	901	331

Coal consumed per hour	1st Week.	2d Week.	3d Week.
Water evaporated from 32° F. per hour ..	214 lbs.	216 lbs.	233
Water per pound of coal	1.421	1.525	1.678
	6.65	7.06	6.78

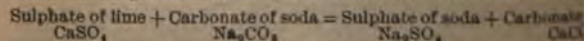
It is apparent that there is a great advantage in cleaning the pipes—the elevation of temperature having been increased by it from 88° to 93°. In the third week, without cleaning, the elevation of temperature rose in three days to the level of the first week; even on the first day it quickly reduced by as much as half the extent of relapse. By cleaning pipes daily an increased elevation of temperature of 65° F. was effected whilst a gain of 6% was effected in the evaporative efficiency.

INCRUSTATION AND CORROSION.

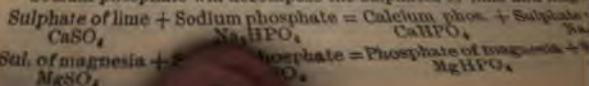
Incrustation and Scale.—Incrustation (as distinguished from mere sediments due to dirty water, which are easily blown out, or gathered up, by means of sediment-collectors) is due to the presence of salts in the feed-water (carbonates and sulphates of lime and magnesia for the most part), which are precipitated when the water is heated, and form hard deposits upon the boiler-plates. (See Impurities in Water, p. 51, ante.)

Where the quantity of these salts is not very large (12 grains per gallon) scale preventives may be found effective. The chemical process either form with the salts other salts soluble in hot water; or precipitate them in the form of soft mud, which does not adhere to the plates, and can be washed out from time to time. The selection of the chemical depends upon the composition of the water, and it should be introduced sparingly with the feed.

EXAMPLES.—Sulphate-of-lime scale prevented by carbonate of soda. Sulphate of soda produced is soluble in water; and the carbonate of soda falls down in grains, does not adhere to the plates, and may therefore be blown out or gathered into sediment-collectors. The chemical reaction is—



Sodium phosphate will decompose the sulphates of lime and magnesia.



ty of salts is large, scale preventives are not of much use, and the force of supply must be sought, or the bad water purified to enter the boilers. The damage done to boilers by unsoftened water is enormous.

Water may be obtained by collecting rain, or condensing steam by condensers. The water thus obtained should be mixed with soft water, or treated with a little alkali, as undiluted, pure lime water; or, after each periodic cleaning, the bad may be used for a skin upon the plates.

Iron and magnesia may be precipitated either by heating the water, or by the addition of a milk of lime (Porter Clark process) with it, the water

may be produced by the use of pure water, or by the presence of lime, or caused perhaps in the engine-cylinder by the action of steam upon the grease, resulting in the production of fatty acids, which may be neutralized by the addition of lime.

Scale is a deposit which may collect in a 100-H.P. steam-boiler, at the rate of 100 lbs. of water per hour, the water containing different quantities in solution, provided that no water is blown off:

Quantities per U. S. gallon:

	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
per 100,000:								
in 1 hour, pounds:	51.42	68.56	85.71	102.85	120	137.1	154.3	171.4
in 24 hours, pounds:	1,542	2,056	2,571	3,085	3,600	4,114	4,628	5,142
in 30 days, pounds:	45,420	61,656	77,142	92,571	108,000	123,414	138,840	154,260

A boiler has 1200 sq. ft. heating-surface, one week's running with water containing 100 grains of solid matter per gallon would make a scale nearly .02 in. thick, if evenly depositing over the heating-surface, assuming the scale to have a sp. gr. of 1.2. $.02 \times 1200 \times 156 \times 1/12 = 312$ lbs.

Compounds.—The Bavarian Steam-boiler Inspection Commission has issued the following regulations:

1. All substances in water can be retained in soluble form by adding caustic soda or lime. This is especially true of boilers having small interior spaces.

2. It is necessary to have a chemical analysis of the water in order to fully determine the nature and quantity of the preparation to be used for the

purpose of removing boiler-scale should be avoided. (A list of the compounds manufactured and sold by German firms is then given and analyzed by the association.)

3. Preparations are either nonsensical or fraudulent, or contain no substances recommended by the association for removal of scale, or are really soda, which is colored to conceal its presence, and is mixed with useless or even injurious matter.

4. It is as well as giving the compound some strange, fanciful name, to imply to deceive the boiler owner and conceal from him the true nature of the compound, or to buy colored soda or similar substances, for which he is asked a higher price.

5. The Milwaukee & St. P. R. R. uses for the prevention of scale in its boilers an alkaline compound consisting of 3750 gals. of water, 100 lbs. of soda, and 1600 lbs. of 58% soda-ash. Between Milwaukee and St. Paul the water-supply contains from 1 to 4½ lbs. of incrusting matter, principally calcium carbonate and sulphate and magnesia.

The amount of compound necessary to prevent the incrustation is 7 pints per 1000 gals. of water. This is really only one-tenth of the quantity needed for chemical combination, but the action of the compound is regenerative. The soda-ash (sodium carbonate) extracts from the water the carbonates of lime and magnesia and precipitates them in a form. The bicarbonate of soda thus formed is precipitated by the heat, and is again changed to soda-ash. Theoretically this action might continue indefinitely.

so strong as in the case of the larger tube, so as to avoid any contracting the effective area by deposit from the solution; but that of the solution will be just sufficient to neutralize any acidity of it (*Iron Age*, Nov. 2, 1893.)

Use of Zinc.—Zinc is often used in boilers to prevent the action of water on the metal. The action appears to be an effect the iron being one pole of the battery and the zinc being the other; the hydrogen goes to the iron shell and escapes as a gas into the steam, the oxygen goes to the zinc.

On account of this action it is generally believed that zinc will prevent corrosion, and that it cannot be harmful to the boiler. Some experiences go to disprove this belief, and in numerous cases not only been of no use, but has even been harmful. In one case a boiler had been troubled with a deposit of scale consisting of organic matter and lime, and zinc was tried as a preventive. The action of the zinc was so obvious that its continued use was a frequent opening of the boiler and cleaning out of detached scale the old scale should be removed and the boiler become clean. Eight months later the water supply was changed, it being now obtained from another stream supposed to be free from lime and to contain only iron matter. Two or three months after its introduction the tubes were found to be coated with an obstinate adhesive scale, and composed of zinc oxide and the organic matter or sediment of the water. The deposit had become so heavy in places as to cause overheating and the plates over the fire. (*The Locomotive*.)

Effect of Deposit on Flues. (Rankine.)—An external or carbonaceous kind is often deposited from the flame and smoke of furnaces in the flues and tubes, and if allowed to accumulate seriously impairs the economy of fuel. It is removed from time to time by means of wire brushes. The accumulation of this crust is the probable cause of the fact that in some steamships the consumption of coal per horse-power per hour goes on gradually increasing until it reaches a half times its original amount, and sometimes more.

Dangerous Steam-boilers discovered by Inspectors. The Hartford Steam-boiler Inspection and Insurance Co. reports that inspectors during 1893 examined 163,323 boilers, inspected 66,698 both internally and externally, subjected 7861 to hydrostatic pressure, found 597 unsafe for further use. The whole number of defects was 122,803, of which 12,390 were considered dangerous. A summary given below. (*The Locomotive*, Feb. 1894.)

SUMMARY, BY DEFECTS, FOR THE YEAR 1893.

Nature of Defects.	Whole No.	Dangerous.	Nature of Defects.	Whole No.
Deposit of sediment.....	9,774	548	Leakage around tubes.....	41,3
Incrustation and scale.....	18,369	865	Leakage at seams.....	5,6
Internal grooving.....	1,249	148	Water-gauges defective.....	1,6
Internal corrosion.....	6,253	397	Blow outs defective.....	4,0
External corrosion.....	8,600	536	Deficiency of water.....	2
Defective braces and stays.....	1,966	485	Safety-valves overloaded.....	2
Settings defective.....	3,094	352	Safety-valves defective.....	2
Furnaces out of shape.....	4,575	254	Pressure-gauges defective.....	5,3
Fractured plates.....	3,532	640	Boilers without pressure-gauges.....	1
Burned plates.....	2,762	325	Unclassified defects.....	1
Blistered plates.....	3,331	164	Total.....	122,8
Defective rivets.....	17,415	1,569		
Defective heads.....	1,357	350		

The above-named company publishes annually a classified list of explosions, compiled chiefly from newspaper reports, showing that 200 to 300 explosions take place in the United States every year, kill 200 to 300 persons, and injuring from 300 to 450. The lists are not to be complete, and may include only a fraction of the actual explosions.

Steam-boilers as Magazines of Explosive Energy. R. H. Thurston (Trans. A. S. M. E., vol. vi.), in a paper with this title, presents calculations showing the stored energy in the boiler of various forms. Concerning the plain cylindrical form and dimensions suggested as a standard by the Hartford

a Co., he says: It is 60 inches in diameter, containing 66 3-inch d is 15 feet long. It has 850 feet of heating and 30 feet of grate is rated at 60 horse-power, but is oftener driven up to 75; weighs nds, and contains nearly its own weight of water, but only 21 of steam when under a pressure of 75 pounds per square inch, below its safe allowance. It stores 52,000,000 foot-pounds of en- which but 4 per cent is in the steam, and this is enough to drive r just about one mile into the air, with an initial velocity of nearly per second.

SAFETY-VALVES.

Calculation of Weight, etc., for Lever Safety-valves.

w = weight of ball at end of lever, in pounds;
 g = weight of lever itself, in pounds;
 V = weight of valve and spindle, in pounds;
 l = distance between fulcrum and centre of ball, in inches;
 l = " " " " " valve, in inches;
 g = " " " " " gravity of lever, in in.;
 A = area of valve, in square inches;
 P = pressure of steam, in lbs. per sq. in., at which valve will open.

$$\text{Then } PA \times l = W \times L + w \times g + V \times l;$$

$$\text{whence } P = \frac{WL + wg + Vl}{Al};$$

$$W = \frac{PA l - wg - Vl}{L};$$

$$L = \frac{PA l - wg - Vl}{W}.$$

EXAMPLE.—Diameter of valve, 4"; distance from fulcrum to centre of ball, 6; centre of valve, 4"; to centre of gravity of lever, 15½"; weight of valve and spindle, 3 lbs.; weight of lever, 7 lbs.; required the weight of ball for the blowing-off pressure 80 lbs. per sq. in.; area of 4" valve = 12.566

$$\text{Then } \frac{PA l - wg - Vl}{L} = \frac{80 \times 12.566 \times 4 - 7 \times 15\frac{1}{2} - 3 \times 4}{36} = 108.4 \text{ lbs.}$$

The following rules governing the proportions of lever-valves are given by the U. S. Supervisors. The distance from the fulcrum to the valve-stem in no case be less than the diameter of the valve-opening; the length of the lever must not be more than ten times the distance from the fulcrum to the valve-stem; the width of the bearings of the fulcrum must not be less than three quarters of an inch; the length of the fulcrum-link must not be less than four inches; the lever and fulcrum-link must be made of cast iron or steel, and the knife-edged fulcrum points and the bearings at these points must be made of steel and hardened; the valve must be seated by its spindle, both above and below the ground seat and above the ground seat, through supports either made of composition (gun-metal) or bushed with brass; and the spindle must fit loosely in the bearings or supports.

Rules for Area of Safety-valves.

The U. S. Supervising Inspectors of Steam-vessels (as amended 1894.) require that safety-valves to be attached to marine boilers shall have an area of not less than 1 sq. in. to 2 sq. ft. of the grate surface in the boiler, and the area of all such safety-valves shall have an angle of inclination of 45° to the centre line of their axes.

For land-boilers, the following rules shall be required to have an area of not less than 1 sq. in. to 3 sq. ft. of grate surface of the boiler, except as hereinafter otherwise provided for water-tube or coil and sectional boilers, and each safety-valve shall be supplied with a lever that will raise the valve to a distance of not less than that equal to one eighth the diameter of the valve-opening, and the seats of all such safety-valves shall have an angle of inclination to the centre line of their axes of 45°. All spring safety-valves for water-tube or coil and sectional boilers shall

If we combine this formula with the formula:

Flow in lbs. per hour = area of opening in sq. in. \times 51.43 \times abs. pressure, and
 Area = diameter of valve \times lift \times 2.23, we obtain the following, which the
 author suggests as probably a more correct formula for the discharging
 capacity of the ordinary lever safety-valve than either of those above given.

Flow in lbs. per hour = $d \cdot (.0003 - .00031d) \times 115 \times 2.23 \times 51.43 = d(795 - 41d)$.
 From which we obtain:

Diameter, inches	1	1½	2	2½	3	3½	4	5	6	7
Flow, lbs. per hour	754	1100	1426	1733	2016	2282	2524	2950	3294	3536
Horse-power	25	37	47	58	67	76	84	98	110	119

the horse-power being taken as an evaporation of 30 lbs. of water per hour.

If we solve the example, above given, of the boiler evaporating 3000 lbs. of water per hour by this table, we find it requires one 7-inch valve, or a 2½- and a 3-inch valve combined. The 7-inch valve has an area of 38.5 sq. in., and the two smaller valves taken together have an area of only 12 sq. in.; another evidence of the absurdity of considering the area of disk as the factor which determined the capacity of the valve.

It is customary in practice not to use safety-valves of greater diameter than 4 in. If a greater diameter is called for by the rule that is adopted, then two or more valves are used instead of one.

Spring-loaded Safety-valves.—Instead of weights, springs are sometimes employed to hold down safety-valves. The calculations are similar to those for lever safety-valves, the tension of the spring corresponding to a given rise being first found by experiment (see Springs, page 317).

The rules of the U. S. Supervisors allow an area of 1 sq. in. of the valve to 3 sq. ft. of grate, in the case of spring-loaded valves, except in water-tube, coil, or sectional boilers, in which 1 sq. in. to 6 sq. ft. of grate is allowed.

Spring-loaded safety-valves are usually of the reactionary or "pop" type, in which the escape of the steam is opposed by a lip above the valve-seat, against which the escaping steam reacts, causing the valve to lift higher than the ordinary valve.

A. G. Brown gives the following for the rise, effective area, and quality of steam discharged per hour for the "pop" or Richardson type. The effective is taken at only 50% of the actual area due to the rise, on account of the obstruction which the lip of the valve offers to the escape of steam.

Dia. valve, in	1	1½	2	2½	3	3½	4	4½	5	6
Lift, inches125	.150	.175	.200	.225	.250	.275	.300	.325	.350
Area, sq. in.196	.354	.550	.785	1.061	1.375	1.728	2.121	2.553	3.020

Gauge-pres.,	Steam discharged per hour, lbs.									
30 lbs.	474	856	1330	1897	2563	3325	4178	5128	6173	8278
50	669	1209	1878	2680	3620	4695	5901	7242	8718	10500
70	861	1556	2417	3450	4660	6144	7906	9924	11220	13000
90	1050	1897	2947	4207	5680	7370	9260	11365	13663	16000
100	1144	2065	3208	4580	6185	8222	10080	12375	14895	17500
120	1332	2405	3736	5332	7262	9342	11735	14410	17340	20000
140	1516	2738	4254	6070	8200	10635	13365	16405	19745	22700
160	1696	3064	4760	6794	9175	11900	14955	18355	22025	25000
180	1883	3400	5283	7540	10180	13250	16595	20370	24520	28000
200	2062	3724	5786	8258	11150	14465	18175	22310	26855	30000

If we take 30 lbs. of steam per hour, at 100 lbs. gauge-pressure = 1 H.P., we have from the above table:

Diameter, inches	1	1½	2	2½	3	3½	4	4½	5	6
Horse-power	38	69	107	153	206	277	336	412	496	637

A safety-valve should be capable of discharging a much greater quantity of steam than that corresponding to the rated horse-power of a boiler, since a boiler having ample grate surface and strong draught may generate more than double the quantity of steam its rating calls for.

The Consolidated Safety-valve Co.'s circular gives the following rated capacity of its nickel-seat "pop" safety-valves:

Size, in	1	1½	1½	2	2½	3	3½	4	4½	5	5½
Boiler } from 8	10	30	35	60	75	100	125	150	175	200	250
H.P. } to 10	15	30	50	75	100	125	150	175	200	275	

The figures in the lower line from 2 inch to 5 inch, inclusive, correspond to the formula H.P. = 50(diameter - 1 inch).

rule by Rankine is $1/150$ to $1/180$ of the number of pounds of water ated per hour, equals for the above case 27 to 20 sq. in. A communi-
Power, July, 1890, gives two other rules:

1 sq. in. disk area for 3 sq. ft. grate, which would give 13.3 sq. in.
1 sq. in. disk area for 1 sq. ft. grate, which would give 30 sq. in.; but
grate-surface were reduced to 30 sq. ft. on account of increased
at, these rules would make the disk area only 10 and 22.5 sq. in.,
tively.

Philadelphia rule for 100 lbs. gauge pressure gives a disk area of 0.21
for each sq. ft. of grate area, which would give an area of 8.4 sq. in.
sq. ft. grate, and only 6.3 sq. in. if the grate is reduced to 30 sq. ft.
ording to the rule this aggregate area would have to be divided between
alves. But if the boiler was driven by forced draught, then the in-
or "must estimate the area of grate at 1 sq. ft. for each 16 lbs. of fuel
d per hour."

er this condition the actual grate-surface might be cut down to 400 ÷
25 sq. ft., and by the rule the combined area of the two safety-valves
be only $25 \times 0.21 = 5.25$ sq. in.

strom's Pocket-book, edition of 1891, gives $3/4$ sq. in. for 1 sq. ft. grate;
quoting from Weisbach, vol. ii, $1/3000$ of the heating-surface. This in
ase considered is $1200/3000 = .4$ sq. ft. or 57.6 sq. in.

thus have rules which give for the area of safety-valve of the same 100-
power boiler results ranging all the way from 5.25 to 57.6 sq. in.

of the rules above quoted give the area of the disk of the valve as the
to be ascertained, and it is this area which is supposed to bear some
ratio to the grate-surface, to the heating-surface, to the water evap-
d, etc. It is difficult to see why this area has been considered even
oximately proportional to these quantities, for with small lifts the area
tual opening bears a direct ratio, not to the area of disk, but to the
ference.

sa for various diameters of valve :

Diameter	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
meter
.....	.785	3.14	7.07	12.57	19.64	28.27	38.48
ference
.....	3.14	6.28	9.42	12.57	15.71	18.85	21.99
mm. x lift of 0.1 in.
.....	.31	.63	.94	1.26	1.57	1.89	2.30
to area
.....	.4	.2	.13	.1	.08	.067	.057

apertures, therefore, are therefore directly proportional to the diam-
to the circumference, but their relation to the area is a varying one.
the lift = $1/4$ diameter, then the opening would be equal to the area of
disk, for circumference $\times 1/4$ diameter = area, but such a lift is far
nd the actual lift of an ordinary safety-valve.

correct rule for size of safety-valves should make the product of the
eter and the lift proportional to the weight of steam to be discharged.

"logical" method for calculating the size of safety-valve is given in
Locomotive, July, 1892, based on the assumption that the actual opening
ld be sufficient to discharge all the steam generated by the boiler.
er's rule for flow of steam is taken, viz., flow through aperture of one
n. in lbs. per second = absolute pressure ÷ 70, or in lbs. per hour = 51.43
bsolute pressure.

the angle of the seat is 45° , as specified in the rules of the U. S. Super-
rs, the area of opening in sq. in. = circumference of the disk \times the lift
, .71 being the cosine of 45° ; or diameter of disk \times lift $\times 2.23$.

G. Brown in his book on The Indicator and its Practical Working
on, 1894) gives the following as the lift of the ordinary lever safety-
s for 100 lbs. gauge-pressure:

Diam. of valve	2	2 1/4	3	3 1/2	4	4 1/2	5	6 inches.		
ise of valve	.0583	.0523	.0507	.0492	.0478	.0462	.0446	.0430 inch.		
ift decreases with increase of steam-pressure; thus for a 4-inch valve										
ressure, lbs.	45	65	85	105	115	135	155	175	195	215
e-press., lbs.	30	50	70	90	100	120	140	160	180	200
ch	.1034	.0775	.0630	.0517	.0478	.0413	.0365	.0327	.0296	.027

effective area of opening Mr. Brown takes at 70% of the rise multiple
e circumference.

approximate formula corresponding to Mr. Brown's figures for diam-
between $2 1/4$ and 6 in. and gauge-pressures between 70 and 200 lbs. is

$$= (.0603 - .0031d) \times \frac{115}{\text{abs. pressure}}, \text{ in which } d = \text{diam.}$$

If we combine this formula with the formula
 Flow in lbs. per hour = area of opening in sq. in. \times 51.43 \times abs. press.
 Area = diameter of valve \times lift \times 2.33, we obtain the following, which author suggests as probably a more correct formula for the discharge capacity of the ordinary lever safety-valve than either of those above.
 Flow in lbs. per hour = $d(.0603 - .0031d) \times 115 \times 2.33 \times 51.43 = 676$
 From which we obtain:

Diameter, inches....	1	1½	2	2½	3	3½	4	5	6
Flow, lbs. per hour..	754	1100	1426	1793	2016	2282	2524	2960	34
Horse-power.....	25	37	47	58	67	76	84	98	11

the horse-power being taken as an evaporation of 30 lbs. of water per hour. If we solve the example, above given, of the boiler evaporating 300 lbs. of water per hour by this table, we find it requires one 7-inch valve, or a 3-inch valve combined. The 7-inch valve has an area of 38.3 and the two smaller valves taken together have an area of only 12.7, another evidence of the absurdity of considering the area of discharge which determined the capacity of the valve.

It is customary in practice not to use safety-valves of greater diameter than 4 in. If a greater diameter is called for by the rule that is as often as then two or more valves are used instead of one.

Spring-loaded Safety-valves.—Instead of weights, springs are sometimes employed to hold down safety-valves. The calculation is similar to those for lever safety-valves, the tension of the spring corresponding to a given rise being first found by experiment (see Springs, page 700).

The rules of the U. S. Supervisors allow an area of 1 sq. in. of grate to 3 sq. ft. of grate, in the case of spring-loaded valves, except in water-coil, or sectional boilers, in which 1 sq. in. to 6 sq. ft. of grate is allowed.

Spring-loaded safety-valves are usually of the reactionary or "pop" type, in which the escape of the steam is opposed by a lip above the valve against which the escaping steam reacts, causing the valve to lift more than the ordinary valve.

A. G. Brown gives the following for the rise, effective area, and quantity of steam discharged per hour by valves of the "pop" or Richardson type. The effective is taken at only 50% of the actual area due to the rise, on account of the obstruction which the lip of the valve offers to the escape of steam.

Dia. valve, in.	1	1½	2	2½	3	3½	4	4½	5
Lift, inches.	.125	.150	.175	.200	.225	.250	.275	.300	.325
Area, sq. in.	.196	.354	.550	.785	1.061	1.375	1.798	2.121	2.450

Gauge-pres.,	Steam discharged per hour, lbs.									
20 lbs.	474	856	1330	1897	2503	3325	4178	5128	6171	7307
50	669	1209	1878	2680	3630	4695	5901	7242	8721	10337
70	861	1556	2417	3450	4660	6144	7896	9824	11937	14235
90	1050	1897	2947	4307	5680	7370	9260	11365	13695	16250
100	1144	2065	3208	4580	6185	8322	10680	13275	16107	19175
120	1332	2405	3736	5332	7202	9342	11735	14410	17377	20635
140	1516	2738	4254	6070	8200	10635	13365	16405	19857	23715
160	1696	3064	4760	6794	9175	11900	14955	18325	22027	26095
180	1883	3400	5283	7540	10180	13250	16596	20370	24527	29100
200	2063	3724	5786	8258	11160	14465	18175	22310	26880	31900

If we take 30 lbs. of steam per hour, at 100 lbs. gauge-pressure = we find from the above table:

Diameter, inches....	1	1½	2	2½	3	3½	4	4½	5
Horse-power.....	38	69	107	153	206	277	336	412	496

A safety-valve should be capable of discharging a much greater quantity of steam than that corresponding to the rated horse-power of a boiler having ample grate surface and strong draught may generate than double the quantity of steam its rating calls for.

The Consolidated Safety-valve Co.'s circular gives the following capacity of its nickel-seat "pop" safety-valves:

Size, in....	1	1½	1½	2	2½	3	3½	4	4½	5
Boiler $\frac{1}{2}$ from	8	10	20	35	60	75	100	125	150	175
H.P. $\frac{1}{2}$ to	10	15	30	50	75	100	125	150	175	200

The figures are for a 2-inch rise from 2 inch to 3 inch, inclusive, of the boiler diameter - 1 inch).

THE INJECTOR.

Equation of the Injector.

- the number of pounds of steam used;
- number of pounds of water lifted and forced into the boiler;
- height in feet of a column of water, equivalent to the absolute pressure in the boiler;
- height in feet the water is lifted to the injector;
- temperature of the water before it enters the injector;
- temperature of the water after leaving the injector;
- total heat above 32° F. in one pound of steam in the boiler, in heat-units;
- lost work in friction and the equivalent lost work due to radiation and lost heat;
- mechanical equivalent of heat.

$$[H - (t_2 - 32^\circ)] = W(t_2 - t_1) + \frac{(W + S)h + Wh_0 + L}{778}$$

Equivalent formula, neglecting $Wh_0 + L$ as small, is

$$S = \left[W(t_2 - t_1) + \frac{W + S}{d} \cdot P \cdot \frac{144}{778} \right] \frac{1}{H - (t_2 - 32^\circ)}$$

or $S = \frac{W[(t_2 - t_1)d + .1851p]}{H - (t_2 - 32^\circ)d - .1851p}$

d = weight of 1 cu. ft. of water at temperature t_2 ; p = absolute pressure of steam, lbs. per sq. in.

Rules for finding the proper sectional area for the narrowest part of the nozzle are given as follows by Rankine, S. E. p. 477:

Area in square inches = $\frac{\text{cubic feet per hour gross feed-water}}{800 \sqrt{\text{pressure in atmospheres}}}$

An important condition which must be fulfilled in order that the injector will operate is that the supply of water must be sufficient to condense the steam at the temperature of the supply or feed-water is higher, the amount of water required for condensing purposes will be greater.

The table below gives the calculated value of the maximum ratio of water to steam, and the values obtained on actual trial, also the highest admission temperature of the feed-water as shown by theory and the highest temperature found by trial with several injectors.

MAXIMUM RATIO WATER TO STEAM.				Gauge-pressure, pounds per sq. in.	MAXIMUM TEMPERATURE OF FEED-WATER.					
Calculated from Theory.	Actual Experiment.				Theoretical.		Experimental Results.			
	H.	P.	M.		Temp. discharge 180°	Temp. discharge 212°	H.	P.	M.	S.
36.5	30.9	10	132°
25.6	22.5	19.9	21.5	20	142°	173°	132°	130°	130°	134
30.9	19.0	17.2	19.0	30	132	162	134
17.87	15.8	15.0	15.86	40	125	156	140	113	125	132
16.2	13.3	14.0	13.3	50	120	150	131
14.7	11.2	11.2	12.6	60	114	143	115	123	130
13.7	12.3	11.7	12.9	70	109	139	141*	123	130
12.9	11.4	11.2	80	105	134	141*	118	122	131
12.1	90	99	129	132*
11.5	100	95	125	132*
				120	87	117	134*
				150	77	107	121*

Temperature of delivery above 212°. Waste-valve closed.
 H, Park injector; P, Park injector; M, Metronolitan injector.

STEAM SEPARATORS.

If moist steam flowing at a high velocity in a pipe has its direction suddenly changed, the particles of water are by their momentum thrown their original direction against the bend in the pipe or wall of the pipe in which the change of direction takes place. By making proper provision for drawing off the water thus separated the steam may be dried to a greater or less extent.

For long steam-pipes a large drum should be provided near the end for trapping the water condensed in the pipe. A drum 3 feet diameter and 4 feet high, has given good results in separating the water of condensation from a steam-pipe 10 inches diameter and 800 feet long.

Efficiency of Steam Separators.—Prof. R. C. Carpenter has made a series of tests of six steam separators, furnishing them with containing different percentages of moisture, and testing the quality of the steam before entering and after passing the separator. A condensed list of the principal results is given below.

Make of Separator.	Test with Steam of about 10% of Moisture.			Tests with Varying Moisture.	
	Quality of Steam before.	Quality of Steam after.	Efficiency per cent.	Quality of Steam before.	Quality of Steam after.
B	87.0%	98.8%	90.8	66.1 to 97.5%	97.5 to 99%
A	90.1	98.0	80.0	51.9 " 98	97.9 " 99.1
D	89.6	95.8	59.6	72.2 " 96.1	95.5 " 98.2
C	90.6	93.7	33.0	67.1 " 96.8	93.7 " 98.4
E	88.4	90.2	15.5	68.6 " 98.1	79.3 " 98.5
F	88.9	92.1	38.8	70.4 " 97.7	84.1 " 97.9

Conclusions from the tests were: 1. That no relation existed between the volume of the several separators and their efficiency.

2. No marked decrease in pressure was shown by any of the separators, the most being 1.7 lbs. in E.

3. Although changed direction, reduced velocity, and perhaps centrifugal force are necessary for good separation, still some means must be provided to lead the water out of the current of the steam.

The high efficiency obtained from B and A was largely due to this fact. In B the interior surfaces are corrugated and thus catch the water out of the steam and readily lead it to the bottom.

In A, as soon as the water falls or is precipitated from the steam, it is in contact with the perforated diaphragm through which it runs in a space below, where it is not subjected to the action of the steam.

In D, the next in efficiency, this is accomplished by means of a second diaphragm which throws the water back into the corners out of the current of steam.

DETERMINATION OF THE MOISTURE IN STEAM BY STEAM CALORIMETERS.

In all boiler-tests it is important to ascertain the quality of the steam, i. e., 1st, whether the steam is "saturated" or contains the quantity of heat due to the pressure according to standard experiments; 2d, whether the quantity of heat is deficient, so that the steam is wet; and 3d, whether the heat is in excess and the steam superheated. The best method of ascertaining the quality of the steam is undoubtedly that employed by the committee which tested the boilers at the American Institute Exhibition of 1871-2, of which Prof. Thurston was chairman, i. e., condensing all the steam evaporated by the boiler by means of a surface condenser, weighing the condensing water, and taking its temperature as it enters and as it leaves the condenser; but this plan cannot always be adopted.

A substitute for this method is the barrel calorimeter, which, with proper operation and fairly accurate instruments may generally be relied upon to give results within two per cent of accuracy (that is, a sample of steam which gives the apparent result of 2% of moisture may contain any amount between 0 and 4%). This calorimeter is described as follows: A sample of steam is taken by inserting a perforated $\frac{1}{4}$ inch pipe into and through the main pipe near the boiler, and led by a hose, thoroughly tested, to a glass sliding pipe of water, which is set upon a plate

with a cock or valve for allowing the water to flow to waste, and a propeller for stirring the water.

In the calorimeter the barrel is filled with water, the weight and temperature ascertained, steam blown through the hose outside the barrel and the propeller operated until the temperature of the water is to the desired point, say about 110° usually. The hose is then quickly, the temperature noted, and the weight again taken.

An error of 1/10 of a pound in weighing the condensed steam, or an error of 1% in the temperature, will cause an error of over 1% in the calculation of moisture. See Trans. A. S. M. E., vi. 293.

The calculation of the percentage of moisture is made as below:

$$Q = \frac{1}{H - T} \left[\frac{W}{w} (h_1 - h) - (T - h_1) \right].$$

Quality of the steam, dry saturated steam being unity.

Latent heat of 1 lb. of steam at the observed pressure.

Weight of water at the temperature of steam of the observed pressure.

Weight of condensing water, original.

Weight of condensing water, corrected for water-equivalent of the apparatus.

Weight of the steam condensed.

Percentage of moisture = $1 - Q$.

If the steam is superheated, and the degrees of superheat = $2.0833 (H - T) (Q - 1)$.

Greater than unity, the steam is superheated, and the degrees of superheat = $2.0833 (H - T) (Q - 1)$.

Quality of Obtaining a Correct Sample.—Recent experiments by D. S. Jacobus, Trans. A. S. M. E., xvi. 1017, show that it is practically possible to obtain a true average sample of the steam flowing in a boiler or accurate determinations all the steam made by the boiler should pass through a separator, the water separated should be weighed, and a meter test made of the steam just after it has passed the separator.

Calorimeters.—Instead of the open barrel in which the steam is condensed, a coil acting as a surface-condenser may be used, which is placed in the barrel, the water in coil and barrel being weighed separately. A description of an apparatus of this kind designed by the author, which is found to give results with a probable error not exceeding 1/2 per cent, is given in Trans. A. S. M. E., vi. 294. This calorimeter may be used continuously, if desired, instead of intermittently. In this case a continuous flow of condensing water into and out of the barrel must be established, and the temperature of inflow and outflow and of the condensed steam noted at short intervals of time.

Throttling Calorimeter.—For percentages of moisture not exceeding 3 per cent the throttling calorimeter is most useful and convenient and remarkably accurate. In this instrument the steam which reaches the measuring pipe is throttled by an orifice 1/16 inch diameter, opening into a chamber which has an outlet to the atmosphere. The steam in this chamber has its pressure reduced nearly or quite to the pressure of the atmosphere. The total heat in the steam before throttling causes the steam in the chamber to be superheated more or less according to whether the steam before throttling was dry or contained moisture. The only observations required are those of the temperature and pressure of the steam on either side of the orifice.

The author's formula for reducing the observations of the throttling calorimeter is as follows (Experiments on Throttling Calorimeters, *Am. Eng. & Nav. Mag.*, 1892):

$$w = 100 \times \frac{H - h - K(T - t)}{L},$$

in which w = percentage of moisture in the steam; H = total heat, and L = latent heat of steam at atmospheric pressure; h = total heat due the pressure in the discharge side of the calorimeter; $h = 1146.6$ at atmospheric pressure; K = specific heat of superheated steam; T = temperature of the throttled and superheated steam at atmospheric pressure; t = temperature due the pressure in the calorimeter at atmospheric pressure.

When K at 0.48 and the pressure in the discharge side of the calorimeter is atmospheric pressure, the formula becomes

$$w = 100 \times \frac{H - 1146.6 - 0.48(T - 212^\circ)}{L}.$$

From the following table is calculated :

MOISTURE IN STEAM—DETERMINATIONS BY THROTTLING CALORIMETER

Degree of Super-heating $T - 212^{\circ}$.	Gauge-pressures.										
	5	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	75	80	85
	Per Cent of Moisture in Steam.										
0°	0.51	0.90	1.54	2.06	2.50	2.90	3.24	3.56	3.71	3.85	3.9
10°	0.01	0.39	1.02	1.54	1.97	2.36	2.71	3.02	3.17	3.32	3.4
20°51	1.02	1.45	1.83	2.17	2.48	2.63	2.77	2.9
30°00	.50	.92	1.30	1.64	1.94	2.09	2.23	2.3
40°39	.77	1.10	1.40	1.55	1.69	1.8
50°24	.57	.87	1.01	1.15	1.2
60°08	.33	.47	.60	.7
70°06	.1
Dif. p. deg.	.0503	.0507	.0515	.0521	.0526	.0531	.0535	.0539	.0541	.0542	.054
Degree of Super-heating $T - 212^{\circ}$.	Gauge-pressures.										
	100	110	120	130	140	150	160	170	180	190	200
	Per Cent of Moisture in Steam.										
0°	4.39	4.63	4.85	5.08	5.29	5.49	5.68	5.87	6.05	6.22	6.3
10°	3.84	4.08	4.29	4.52	4.73	4.93	5.12	5.30	5.48	5.65	5.8
20°	3.29	3.52	3.74	3.96	4.17	4.37	4.56	4.74	4.91	5.08	5.2
30°	2.74	2.97	3.18	3.41	3.61	3.80	3.99	4.17	4.34	4.51	4.6
40°	2.19	2.42	2.63	2.85	3.05	3.24	3.43	3.61	3.78	3.94	4.1
50°	1.64	1.87	2.08	2.29	2.49	2.68	2.87	3.04	3.21	3.37	3.5
60°	1.09	1.32	1.52	1.74	1.93	2.12	2.30	2.48	2.64	2.80	2.9
70°	.55	.77	.97	1.18	1.38	1.56	1.74	1.91	2.07	2.23	2.3
80°	.00	.22	.42	.63	.82	1.00	1.18	1.34	1.50	1.66	1.8
90°07	.26	.44	.61	.78	.94	1.09	1.2
100°05	.21	.37	.52	.6
110°
Dif. p. deg.	.0549	.0551	.0554	.0556	.0559	.0561	.0564	.0566	.0568	.0570	.057

Separating Calorimeters.—For percentages of moisture the range of the throttling calorimeter the separating calorimeter which is simply a steam separator on a small scale. An improved this calorimeter is described by Prof. Carpenter in *Power*, Feb. 1884. For fuller information on various kinds of calorimeters, see Prof. Peabody, Prof. Carpenter, and Mr. Barrus in *Trans. A. S. M. E.* x, xi, xii, 1880 to 1891; Appendix to Report of Com. on Boiling A. S. M. E., vol. vi, 1884; Circular of Schaeffer & Budenberg, N. Y. rimeters, Throttling and Separating," 1894.

Identification of Dry Steam by Appearance of a Prof. Denton (*Trans. A. S. M. E.*, vol. x.) found that jets of steam a mistakable change of appearance to the eye when steam varies less from the condition of saturation either in the direction of wetness or heating.

If a jet of steam flow from a boiler into the atmosphere under circumstances that very little loss of heat occurs through radiation, etc., a transparent close to the orifice, or be even a grayish-white column may be assumed to be so nearly dry that no portable calorimeter will be capable of measuring the amount of water in it. If it be strongly white, the amount of water may be roughly estimated, but beyond this a calorimeter only can determine the moisture.

common brass pet-cock may be used as an orifice, but it should, if possible, be set into the steam-drum of the boiler and never be placed further from the latter than 4 feet, and then only when the intermediate reserve pipe is well covered.

Usual Amount of Moisture in Steam Escaping from a boiler.—In the common forms of horizontal tubular land boilers and vertical-tube boilers with ample horizontal drums, and supplied with water from substances likely to cause foaming, the moisture in the steam does not generally exceed 2% unless the boiler is overdriven or the water is carried too high.

CHIMNEYS.

Chimney Draught Theory.—The commonly accepted theory of chimney draught, based on Peclet's and Rankine's hypotheses (see Rankine, *loc. cit.*), is discussed by Prof. De Volson Wood in *Trans. A. S. M. E.*, vol. xi. It is here represented the law of draught by the formula

$$h = \frac{v^2}{2g} \left(1 + G + \frac{fl}{m} \right),$$

in which h is the "head," defined as such a height of hot gases as, if added to the column of gases in the chimney, would produce the same pressure at the furnace as a column of outside air, of the same area of base, and a height equal to that of the chimney;

v is the required velocity of gases in the chimney;

G a constant to represent the resistance to the passage of air through the coal;

l the length of the flues and chimney;

m the mean hydraulic depth or the area of a cross-section divided by the perimeter;

f a constant depending upon the nature of the surfaces over which the gases pass, whether smooth, or sooty and rough.

Rankine's formula (*Steam Engine*, p. 288), derived by giving certain values to the constants (so-called) in Peclet's formula, is

$$h = \frac{\tau_0}{\tau_2} \left(\frac{0.0807}{\tau_1} \right) H - H = \left(0.96 \frac{\tau_1}{\tau_2} - 1 \right) H;$$

in which H = the height of the chimney in feet;

τ_0 = 493° F., absolute (temperature of melting ice);

τ_1 = absolute temperature of the gases in the chimney;

τ_2 = absolute temperature of the external air.

Prof. Wood derives from this a still more complex formula which gives the height of chimney required for burning a given quantity of coal per sq. ft., and from it he calculates the following table, showing the height of chimney required to burn respectively 24, 30, and 16 lbs. of coal per square foot of grate per hour, for the several temperatures of the chimney gases

Outside Air, τ_2	Chimney Gas.		Coal per sq. ft. of grate per hour, lbs.		
	τ_1 Absolute.	Temp. Fahr.	24	30	16
			Height H , feet.		
320°	700	239	250.9	157.6	67.8
320° or 60° F.	800	339	173.4	115.8	55.7
	1000	539	149.1	100.0	48.7
	1100	639	148.8	98.9	48.2
	1200	739	152.0	100.9	49.1
	1400	939	159.9	105.7	51.2
	1600	1139	168.8	111.0	
	1800	1339	178.8	117.0	
	2000	1539	188.8	123.0	

Rankine's formula gives a maximum draught when $\tau = 21/2h$, or 60° when the outside temperature is 60°. Prof. Wood says: "This result is a fixed value, but departures from theory in practice do not affect the result largely. There is, then, in a properly constructed chimney, properly regulated, a temperature giving a maximum draught,* and that temperature far from the value given by Rankine, although in special cases it may be 75° more or less."

All attempts to base a practical formula for chimneys upon the theoretical formula of Peclet and Rankine have failed on account of the impossibility of assigning correct values to the so-called "constants" G and A . (See Trans. A. S. M. E., xi, 984.)

Force or Intensity of Draught.—The force of the draught is due to the difference between the weight of the column of hot gases inside the chimney and the weight of a column of the external air of the same height. It is measured by a draught-gauge, usually a U-tube partly filled with water, one leg connected by a pipe to the interior of the flue, and the other to the external air.

If D is the density of the air outside, d the density of the hot gases in lbs. per cubic foot, h the height of the chimney in feet, and $.192$ the factor for converting pressure in lbs. per sq. ft. into inches of water column, the formula for the force of draught expressed in inches of water is,

$$F = .192h(D - d).$$

The density varies with the absolute temperature (see Rankine).

$$d = \frac{\tau_0}{\tau_1} 0.084; \quad D = 0.0807 \frac{\tau_0}{\tau_2}$$

where τ_0 is the absolute temperature at 32° F., = 493., τ_1 the absolute temperature of the chimney gases and τ_2 that of the external air. Substituting these values the formula for force of draught becomes

$$F = .192h \left(\frac{39.79}{\tau_1} - \frac{41.41}{\tau_2} \right) = h \left(\frac{7.64}{\tau_2} - \frac{7.93}{\tau_1} \right).$$

To find the maximum intensity of draught for any given chimney heated column being 600° F., and the external air 60°, multiply the above grade in feet by .0073, and the product is the draught in inches of water.

Height of Water Column Due to Unbalanced Pressure Chimney 100 Feet High. (The Locomotive, 1884.)

Temp. in the Chimney.	Temperature of the External Air—Barometer, 34.7 lbs. per sq. in.									
	0°	10°	20°	30°	40°	50°	60°	70°	80°	90°
200	.453	.419	.384	.353	.321	.292	.268	.244	.209	.182
220	.488	.453	.419	.388	.355	.326	.298	.269	.244	.217
240	.520	.488	.451	.421	.388	.359	.330	.301	.276	.250
260	.555	.528	.484	.453	.420	.392	.363	.334	.309	.284
280	.584	.549	.515	.482	.451	.422	.394	.365	.340	.313
300	.611	.576	.541	.511	.478	.449	.420	.392	.367	.340
320	.637	.603	.568	.538	.505	.476	.447	.419	.394	.367
340	.662	.628	.593	.563	.530	.501	.472	.443	.419	.390
360	.687	.653	.618	.588	.555	.526	.497	.468	.444	.417
380	.710	.676	.641	.611	.578	.549	.520	.492	.467	.440
400	.732	.697	.662	.632	.598	.570	.541	.513	.488	.461
420	.753	.718	.684	.653	.620	.591	.563	.534	.509	.482
440	.774	.739	.705	.674	.641	.612	.583	.555	.530	.503
460	.795	.758	.724	.694	.660	.632	.603	.574	.549	.522
480	.810	.776	.741	.710	.678	.649	.620	.591	.566	.539
500	.829	.791	.760	.730	.697	.669	.639	.610	.585	.558

* Much confusion to students of the theory of chimneys has resulted from their understanding the words maximum draught to mean maximum intensity or pressure of draught, as measured by a draught-gauge. It bears no relation to the maximum quantity or weight of gases passed up the chimney. The maximum intensity is found only with maximum temperature, and this temperature reaches about 622° F. the density of the gas decreases rapidly than its velocity increases, so that the weight is a maximum, as shown by Rankine.—W. K.

any other height of chimney than 100 ft. the height of water-column and by simple proportion, the height of water column being directly related to the height of chimney.

Calculations have been made for a chimney 100 ft. high, with various draughts outside and inside of the flue, and on the supposition that the draught of the chimney is uniform from top to bottom. This is the basis on which all calculations respecting the draught-power of chimneys have been made by Rankine and other writers, but it is very far from the truth in most cases. The difference will be shown by comparing the readings of the draught-gauge with the table given. In one case a chimney 123 ft. showed a temperature at the base of 330°, and at the top of 330°, and in his "Treatise on Heat," gives the following table:

DRAGHT POWERS OF CHIMNEYS, ETC., WITH THE INTERNAL AIR AT 552°, AND THE EXTERNAL AIR AT 62°, AND WITH THE DAMPER NEARLY CLOSED.

Draught Power in lbs. of water.	Theoretical Velocity in feet per second.		Height of Chimney in feet.	Draught Power in lbs. of water.	Theoretical Velocity in feet per second.	
	Cold Air Entering.	Hot Air at Exit.			Cold Air Entering.	Hot Air at Exit.
.073	17.8	35.6	80	.585	50.6	101.2
.146	25.3	50.6	90	.657	53.7	107.4
.219	31.0	62.0	100	.730	56.5	113.0
.292	35.7	71.4	120	.876	62.0	124.0
.365	40.0	80.0	150	1.095	69.3	138.6
.438	43.8	87.6	175	1.277	74.3	149.6
.511	47.3	94.6	200	1.460	80.0	160.0

Rate of Combustion Due to Height of Chimney.—Trowbridge's "Heat and Heat Engines" gives the following table showing draughts of chimney for producing certain rates of combustion per sq. section of the chimney. It may be approximately true for anthracite grate and large sizes, but greater heights than are given in the table are needed to secure the given rates of combustion with small sizes of grate, and for bituminous coal smaller heights will suffice if the coal is reasonably free from ash—5% or less.

Heights	Lbs. of Coal Burned per Hour per Sq. Ft. of Section of Chimney.	Lbs. of Coal Burned per Sq. Ft. of Grate, the Ratio of Grate to Section of Chimney being 8 to 1.	Heights in feet.	Lbs. of Coal Burned per Hour per Sq. Ft. of Section of Chimney.	Lbs. of Coal Burned per Sq. Ft. of Grate, the Ratio of Grate to Section of Chimney being 8 to 1.
	60	7.5	70	126	15.8
	68	8.5	75	131	16.4
	76	9.5	80	135	16.9
	84	10.5	85	139	17.4
	93	11.6	90	144	18.0
	99	12.4	95	148	18.5
	105	13.1	100	152	19.0
	111	13.8	105	156	19.5
	116	14.5	110	160	20.0
	121	15.1			

Trowbridge's rule for rate of combustion effected by a given height of chimney. (Trans. A. S. M. E., xi. 991) is: Subtract 1 from twice the square root of height, and the result is the rate of combustion in pounds per square foot per hour, for anthracite. Or rate = $2\sqrt{h} - 1$, in which h is the height in feet. This rule gives the following:

$h = 50 \quad 60 \quad 70 \quad 80 \quad 90 \quad 100 \quad 110 \quad 125 \quad 150 \quad 175 \quad 200$
 rate = 13.14 14.49 15.73 16.89 17.97 19 19.97 21.36 23.49 25.45 27.2

These rates agree closely with Trowbridge's table given above. In

tice the high rates of combustion for high chimneys given by the formula are not generally obtained, for the reason that with high chimneys there are usually long horizontal flues, serving many boilers, and the friction and the interference of currents from the several boilers are apt to cause the intensity of draught in the branch flues leading to each boiler to be much less than that at the base of the chimney. The draught of each boiler is also usually restricted by a damper and by bends in the gas-passages. In a battery of several boilers connected to a chimney 150 ft. high, the author found a draught of $\frac{3}{4}$ -inch water-column at the boiler nearest the chimney, and only $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch at the boiler farthest away. The first boiler was wasting fuel from too high temperature of the chimney-gases, 900°, having too large a grate-surface for the draught, and the last boiler was working below its rated capacity and with poor economy, on account of insufficient draught.

The effect of changing the length of the flue leading into a chimney 60 ft. high and 3 ft. 9 in. square is given in the following table, from Box of "Heat":

Length of Flue in feet.	Horse-power.	Length of Flue in feet.	Horse-power.
50	107.6	800	56.1
100	100.0	1,000	51.4
200	85.3	1,500	43.3
400	70.8	2,000	38.2
600	63.5	3,000	31.7

The temperature of the gases in this chimney was assumed to be 350° F., and that of the atmosphere 63°.

High Chimneys not Necessary.—Chimneys above 150 ft. in height are very costly, and their increased cost is rarely justified by increased efficiency. In recent practice it has become somewhat common to build two or three smaller chimneys instead of one large one. A notable example is the Spreckels Sugar Refinery in Philadelphia, where three separate chimneys are used for one boiler-plant of 7500 H.P. The three chimneys are said to have cost several thousand dollars less than a single chimney of their combined capacity would have cost. Very tall chimneys have been characterized by one writer as "monuments to the folly of their builders."

Heights of Chimney required for Different Fuels.—The minimum height necessary varies with the fuel, wood requiring the least, then good bituminous coal, and fine sizes of anthracite the greatest. It also varies with the character of the boiler—the smaller and more circuitous the gas-passages the higher the stack required; also with the number of boilers, a single boiler requiring less height than several that discharge into a horizontal flue. No general rule can be given.

SIZE OF CHIMNEYS.

The formula given below, and the table calculated therefrom for chimneys up to 96 in. diameter and 300 ft. high, were first published by the author in 1884 (Trans. A. S. M. E. vi., 81). They have met with much approval since that date by engineers who have used them, and have been frequently published in boiler-makers' catalogues and elsewhere. The table is now extended to cover chimneys up to 12 ft. diameter and 300 ft. high. The sizes corresponding to the given commercial horse-powers are believed to be ample for all cases in which the draught areas through the boiler-flues and connections are sufficient, say not less than 20% greater than the area of the chimney, and in which the draught between the boilers and chimney is not checked by long horizontal passages and right-angled bends.

Note that the figures in the table correspond to a coal consumption of 5 lbs. of coal per horse-power per hour. This liberal allowance is made to cover the contingencies of poor coal being used, and of the boilers being driven beyond their rated capacity. In large plants, with economical boilers and engines, good fuel and other favorable conditions, which will reduce the maximum rate of coal consumption at any one time to less than 5 lbs. per H. P. per hour, the figures in the table may be multiplied by the ratio of 5 to the maximum expected coal consumption per H.P. per hour. Thus, with conditions which make the maximum coal consumption only 2.5 lbs. per hour, the chimney 300 ft. high \times 12 ft. diameter should be sufficient for $6130 \times 2 = 12,260$ horse-power. The formula is based on the following data:

1. The draught power of the chimney varies as the square root height.

2. The retarding of the ascending gases by friction may be considered equivalent to a diminution of the area of the chimney, or to a lining chimney by a layer of gas which has no velocity. The thickness of lining is assumed to be $\frac{1}{2}$ inches for all chimneys, or the thickness equal to the perimeter $\times \frac{1}{2}$ inches (neglecting the overlapping of the of the lining). Let D = diameter in feet, A = area, and E = effect in square feet.

$$\text{For square chimneys, } E = D^2 - \frac{8D}{12} = A - \frac{2}{3} \sqrt{A}.$$

$$\text{For round chimneys, } E = \frac{\pi}{4} \left(D^2 - \frac{8D}{12} \right) = A - 0.591 \sqrt{A}.$$

For simplifying calculations, the coefficient of \sqrt{A} may be taken for both square and round chimneys, and the formula becomes

$$E = A - 0.6 \sqrt{A}.$$

3. The power varies directly as this effective area E .

4. A chimney should be proportioned so as to be capable of giving draught to cause the boiler to develop much more than its rated power in case of emergencies, or to cause the combustion of 5 lbs. of fuel per horse-power of boiler per hour.

5. The power of the chimney varying directly as the effective area as the square root of the height, H , the formula for horse-power of a given size of chimney will take the form $H.P. = CE \sqrt{H}$, in which constant, the average value of which, obtained by plotting the obtained from numerous examples in practice, the author finds to be

The formula for horse-power then is

$$H.P. = 3.33E \sqrt{H}, \text{ or } H.P. = 3.33(A - .6 \sqrt{A}) \sqrt{H}.$$

If the horse-power of boiler is given, to find the size of chimney, the being assumed,

$$E = \frac{0.3 H.P.}{\sqrt{H}}; = A - 0.6 \sqrt{A}.$$

For round chimneys, diameter of chimney = diam. of $E + 4''$.

For square chimneys, side of chimney = $\sqrt{E} + 4''$.

If effective area E is taken in square feet, the diameter in inches is $13.54 \sqrt{E} + 4''$, and the side of a square chimney in inches is $s = 12 \sqrt{E} + 4''$.

If horse-power is given and area assumed, the height $H = \left(\frac{0.3 H.P.}{E} \right)^2$.

In proportioning chimneys the height is generally first assumed, consideration to the heights of surrounding buildings or hills near proposed chimney, the length of horizontal flues, the character of fuel used, etc., and then the diameter required for the assumed height and horse-power is calculated by the formula or taken from the table.

The Protection of Tall Chimney-shafts from Lightning

—C. Molyneux and J. M. Wood (*Industries*, March 28, 1890) recommend tall chimneys the use of a coronal or heavy band at the top of the shaft with copper points 1 ft. in height at intervals of 2 ft. throughout the circumference. The points should be gilded to prevent oxidation. The improved form of conductor is a copper tape about $\frac{3}{4}$ in. by $\frac{1}{4}$ in. weighing 6 ozs. per ft. If iron is used it should weigh not less than 10 lbs. per ft. There must be no insulation, and the copper tape should be fastened to the chimney with holdfasts of the same material, to prevent vibration. An allowance for expansion and contraction should be made in 40 ft. Slight bends in the tape, not too abrupt, answer the purpose. For an earth terminal a plate of metal at least 3 ft. sq. and 1/8 in. thick should be buried as deep as possible in a damp spot. The plate should be the same metal as the conductor, to which it should be soldered. If the earth terminal is water, and when a deep well or other large body of water is at hand, the conductor should be carried down into it. No sharp bends in the conductor should be avoided. No bend in it shall

Some Tall Brick Chimneys.

	Height.	Internal Diam.	Outside Diameter.		Capacity by the Author's Formula.	
			Base.	Top.	H. P.	Pounds Coal per hour.
Hütte, Sax.	460	15.7'	33'	16'	19,221	66,105
Glasgow.....	454	32			
Glasgow.....	435	18' 6"	40		9,795	48,975
Low, Bolton.	367½	18' 2"	33' 10"		8,245	41,225
.....	350	11	30	21	5,553	27,790
.....	335	11	38' 6"	14	5,435	27,175
.....	282' 9"	12			5,980	29,900
.....	250	10			3,839	19,195
.....	250	10			3,839	19,195
.....	238	14			7,515	37,575
.....	214	8			2,248	11,240
.....	200	9			2,771	13,855
.....	150	50" x 130"		each	1,541	7,705

ABOVE CHIMNEYS.—1. This chimney is situated near right bank of the Mulde, at an elevation of 219 feet above dry works, so that its total height above the sea will be 711½ feet. The furnaces are situated on the bank of the river, and the furnace-aces across the river to the chimney on a bridge, through a length. It is built throughout of brick, and will cost about £100,000.

The fact that it was struck by lightning, and somewhat as a precautionary measure a copper extension subsequently was added to its entire height 488 feet.

They were built of these great heights to remove deleterious fumes from the neighborhood, as well as for draught for boilers.

The chimney rests on a solid granite foundation, 55 x 30 feet, and for its construction there were used 1,700,000 bricks, 2000 tons of mortar, 1000 loads of sand, 1000 barrels of Portland cement. Its estimated cost is \$40,000. It is arranged for two flues, 9 feet 6 inches wide, connecting with 40 boilers, which are to be run in four triple-expansion engines of 1350 horse-power each.

The chimney tapers from a diameter of 30 feet at the base to 16 feet at the top, forming a conical form batter of 2.85 inches to every 10 feet. Designed to carry 200 H. P. each. It is surmounted by a cast-iron cap weighing six tons, and is composed of thirty-two sections, joined together by inside flanges, so as to present a smooth exterior surface.

The foundation is in concrete, composed of crushed lime and 3 parts, and Portland cement 1 part. It is 40 feet deep. Two qualities of brick were used; the outer is the first quality North River, and the backing up was of New Jersey brick. Every twenty feet in vertical measurement the diameter is reduced 1 inch.

The thickness of the brickwork is 12 inches wide and ¾ to 1½ inch thick, placed edgewise, was all about 8 inches from the outer circle. As the chimney rises the thickness of the brickwork is gradually reduced until it is diminished to 8 inches. At 165 feet it is 8 inches thick.

The outer wall is 5 feet 2 inches in thickness. This is a second wall 20 inches thick and spaced off about 2 inches from the main wall. From the interior surface of the main wall eight feet from the top, nearly touching this inner or main flue wall in line should it tend to sag. The interior wall, starting from the top, is gradually reduced until a height of 6 feet when it is diminished to 8 inches. At 165 feet it is 8 inches thick.

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and the rest of the chimney is without lining. The total weight of the chimney and foundation is 5000 tons. It was completed in September, 1886.

7. Connected to 12 boilers, with 1200 square feet of grate surface. Diameter 19 1/16 inches.

8. Connected to 8 boilers, 6' 8" diameter \times 18 feet. Grate surface 1000 square feet.

9. Connected to 64 Manning vertical boilers, total grate surface 1000. Designed to burn 18,000 lbs. anthracite per hour.

10. Designed for 12,000 H.P. of engines; (compound condensing).

11. Grate surface 434 square feet; H.P. of boilers (Galloway) about 2000.

13. Eight boilers (water-tube) each 450 H.P.; 12 engines, each 200 H.P., designed for 36,000 incandescent lights. For the first 60 feet the exterior wall is 28 inches thick, then 24 inches for 20 feet, 20 inches for 20 feet, 16 inches for 20 feet, and 12 inches for 20 feet. The interior wall is 12 inches thick of fire-brick for 50 feet, and then 8 inches thick of red brick for the next 30 feet. Illustrated in *Iron Age*, January 2, 1890.

A number of the above chimneys are illustrated in *Power*, Dec. 1886. Chimney at Knoxville, Tenn., illustrated in *Eng'g News*, Nov. 4, 1886. 6 feet diameter, 120 feet high, double wall:

Exterior wall, height	30 feet, 30 feet, 30 feet, 40 feet;
" " thickness	21 1/4 in., 17 in., 13 in., 8 1/4 in.;
Interior wall, height	85 ft., 35 ft., 29 ft., 21 ft.;
" " thickness	13 1/4 in., 8 1/2 in., 4 in., 0.

Exterior diameter, 15' 6" at bottom; batter, 7/16 inch in 12 inches from top to 8 feet from top. Interior diameter of inside wall, 6 feet from top of interior wall. Space between walls, 16 inches at bottom, diminishing to 0 at top of interior wall. The interior wall is of red brick except for 4 inches of fire-brick for 20 feet from bottom.

Stability of Chimneys.—Chimneys must be designed to resist the maximum force of the wind in the locality in which they are built (see Weak Chimneys, below). A general rule for diameter of base of chimneys, approved by many years of practice in England and the United States, is to make the diameter of the base one tenth of the height. If the chimney is square or rectangular, make the diameter of the inscribed circle of the base one tenth of the height. The "batter" or taper of a chimney should be from 1/16 to 1/4 inch to the foot on each side. The brickwork should be one brick (8 or 9 inches) thick for the first 25 feet from the base, then 1 1/2 brick (4 or 4 1/2 inches) for each 25 feet from the top down. If the inside diameter exceed 5 feet, the top length should be 1 1/2 brick if under 3 feet, it may be 1 1/4 brick for ten feet.

(From *The Locomotive*, 1884 and 1886.) For chimneys of four feet diameter and one hundred feet high, and upwards, the best form is circular with a straight batter on the outside. A circular chimney of this size is said to be cheaper than any other form, is lighter, stronger, and looks better and more shapely.

Chimneys of any considerable height are not built up of uniform thickness from top to bottom, nor with a uniformly varying thickness of wall. The wall, heaviest of course at the base, is reduced by a series of steps.

Where practicable the load on a chimney foundation should not exceed one ton per square foot in compact sand, gravel, or loam. Where a solid bottom is available for foundation, the load may be greatly increased. If the rock is sloping, all unsound portions should be removed, and the surface dressed to a series of horizontal steps, so that there shall be no tendency to slide after the structure is finished.

All boiler-chimneys of any considerable size should consist of an inner stack of sufficient strength to give stability to the structure, and an outer stack or core independent of the outer one. This core is by many cases extended up to a height of but 50 or 60 feet from the base of the chimney, but the better practice is to run it up the whole height of the chimney, and may be stopped off, say, a couple feet below the top, and the outer stack contracted to the area of the core, but the better way is to run it up to the top or 12 inches of the top and not contract the outer shell. But under all circumstances should the core at its upper end be built into or connected with the outer stack. This has been done in several instances by bracing the core to the outer stack. The result has been the expansion of the inner core which tilted the outer stack squarely up and cracked the brickwork.

For a height of 100 feet we would make the outer shell in three parts: first 20 feet high, 16 inches thick, the second 20 feet high, 14 inches

50 feet high and 8 inches thick. These are the minimum thicknesses suitable for chimneys of this height, and the latter should be not less than 36 to give stability. The core should also be built in three steps of which may be about one third the height of the chimney, the lowest step, the middle 8 inches, and the upper step 4 inches thick. This will be a good sound core. The top of a chimney may be protected by a iron cap; or perhaps a cheaper and equally good plan is to lay the principal part in some good cement, and plaster the top with the same material.

Brick Chimneys.—James B. Francis, in a report to the Lawrence Co. in 1873 (*Eng'g News*, Aug. 28, 1880), gives some calculations concerning the probable effects of wind on that company's chimney as then constructed. Its outer shell is octagonal. The inner shell is cylindrical, an air-space between it and the outer shell; the two shells not being joined together, except at the openings at the base, but with projections in brickwork, at intervals of about 30 ft. in height, to afford lateral support contact of the two shells. The principal dimensions of the chimney are as follows:

Height above the surface of the ground,	211 ft.
Radius of the inscribed circle of the octagon near the ground,	15 "
Radius of the inscribed circle of the octagon near the top,	10 ft. 1 1/2 in.
Thickness of the outer shell near the base, 6 bricks, or,	23 1/2 in.
Thickness of the outer shell near the top, 3 bricks, or,	11 1/2 "
Thickness of the inner shell near the base, 4 bricks, or,	15 "
Thickness of the inner shell near the top, 1 brick, or,	3 3/4 "

One-tenth of the height for the diameter of the base is the rule commonly used. The diameter of the inscribed circle of the base of the Lawrence Manufacturing Company's chimney being 15 ft., it is evidently much less than usual in a chimney of that height.

Soon after the chimney was built, and before the mortar had hardened, it was found that the top had swayed over about 29 in. toward the east. This was evidently due to a strong westerly wind which occurred at that time, and was soon brought back to the perpendicular by sawing into some of the bricks, and other means.

The stability of the chimney to resist the force of the wind depends mainly on the weight of its outer shell, and the width of its base. The cohesion of the mortar may add considerably to its strength; but it is too uncertain to rely upon. The inner shell will add a little to the stability, but it may be cracked by the heat, and its beneficial effect, if any, is too uncertain to be taken into account.

The effect of the joint action of the vertical pressure due to the weight of the chimney, and the horizontal pressure due to the force of the wind is to produce the centre of pressure at the base of the chimney, from the axis toward the windward side, the extent of the shifting depending on the relative magnitude of the two forces. If the centre of pressure is brought too near the base of the chimney, it will crush the brickwork on that side, and the chimney will fall. A line drawn through the centre of pressure, perpendicular to the direction of the wind, must leave an area of brickwork between it and the windward side of the chimney, sufficient to support half the weight of the chimney, the other half of the weight being supported by the brickwork on the windward side of the line.

Recent experiments on the strength of brickwork give very different results. Kirkaldy found the weights which caused several kinds of bricks, in hydraulic lime mortar and in Roman and Portland cements, to fail under a pressure, to vary from 19 to 60 tons (of 2000 lbs.) per sq. ft. If we take in this case 25 tons per sq. ft., as the weight that would cause it to begin to fail, we do not err greatly. To support half the weight of the outer shell of the chimney, or 32 tons, at this rate, requires an area of 12.88 sq. ft. of brickwork. From these data and the drawings of the chimney, Mr. Francis calculates that the area of 12.88 sq. ft. is contained in a portion of the chimney extending 2.428 ft. from one of its octagonal sides, and that the limit to which the centre of pressure may be shifted is therefore 5.073 ft. from the windward side. If shifted beyond this, he says, on the assumption of the strength of the brickwork, it will crush and the chimney will fall. In concluding that the wind-pressure can affect only the upper 141 ft. of the chimney, the lower 70 ft. being protected by buildings, he calculates that a wind-pressure of 44.02 lbs. per sq. ft. would blow the chimney down.

This is a paper printed in the transactions of the Institution of Civil Engineers.

neers, in Scotland, for 1867-68, says: "It had previously been ascertained by observation of the success and failure of actual chimneys, and especially of those which respectively stood and fell during the violent storms of that year, in order that a round chimney may be sufficiently stable, its thickness should be such that a pressure of wind, of about 55 lbs. per sq. ft. of surface, directly facing the wind, or $27\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. per sq. ft. of the plane of a cylindrical surface, . . . shall not cause the resultant pressure at any bed-joint to deviate from the axis of the chimney by more than one-quarter of the outside diameter at that joint."

According to Rankine's rule, the Lawrence Mfg. Co.'s chimney is a square to a maximum pressure of wind on a plane acting on the whole height of 18.80 lbs. per sq. ft., or of a pressure of 21.70 lbs. per sq. ft. acting on the uppermost 141 ft. of the chimney.

Steel Chimneys are largely coming into use, especially for tall chimneys of iron-works, from 150 to 300 feet in height. The advantages of them are: greater strength and safety; smaller space required; smaller cost, 30 to 50 per cent, as compared with brick chimneys; avoidance of the leakage of air and consequent checking of the draught, common in brick chimneys. They are usually made cylindrical in shape, with a wide curve for 10 to 25 feet at the bottom. A heavy cast-iron base-plate is provided which the chimney is riveted, and the plate is secured to a massive foundation by holding-down bolts. No guys are used. F. W. Gordon, of the Engineering Works, gives the following method of calculating their resistance to wind pressure (*Power*, Oct. 1893):

In tests by Sir William Fairbairn we find four experiments to determine the strength of thin hollow tubes. In the table will be found their diameters, their breaking strain. These tubes were placed upon hollow supports, and the weights suspended at the centre from a block fitted to the inside of the tube.

	Clear Span, ft. in.	Thickness Iron, in.	Outside Diameter, in.	Sectional Area, in.	Breaking Weight, lbs.	Breaking lbs. by Ed. Clarke's Formula Constant
I.	17	.037	12	1.3901	2,704	2,667
II.	15 $7\frac{1}{2}$.113	12.4	4.3869	11,440	9,718
III.	23 5	.0631	17.68	3.487	6,400	7,303
IV.	23 5	.119	18.18	6.74	14,240	13,291

Edwin Clarke has formulated a rule from experiments conducted by him during his investigations into the use of iron and steel for hollow bridges, which is as follows:

$$\text{Center break- ing load, in tons.} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Area of material in sq. in.} \times \text{Mean depth in in.} \times \text{Constant} \\ \text{Clear span in feet.} \end{array} \right.$$

When the constant used is 1.2, the calculation for the tubes experimented upon by Mr. Fairbairn are given in the last column of the table. Mr. Clarke's "Rules, Tables, and Data," page 513, gives a rule for hollow tubes as follows: $W = 3.14D^2TS \rightarrow L$. W = breaking weight in pounds in a span of L feet; D = extreme diameter in inches; T = thickness in inches; L = length between supports in inches; S = ultimate tensile strength in pounds per sq. in.

Taking S , the strength of a square inch of a riveted joint, at 20,000 lbs. per sq. in., this rule figures as follows for the different examples experimented upon by Mr. Fairbairn: I, 2870; II, 10,190; III, 7700; IV, 12,280.

This shows a close approximation to the breaking weight obtained in experiments and that derived from Edwin Clarke's and D. K. Clark's rule. We therefore assume that this system of calculation is practically correct and that it is eminently safe when a large factor of safety is provided, from the fact that a chimney may be standing for many years without receiving anything like the strain taken as the basis of the calculation. Fifty pounds per square foot. Wind pressure at fifty pounds per square foot may be assumed to be travelling in a horizontal direction, and to be of the same velocity from the top to the bottom of the stack. This is a conservative assumption. If, however, the chimney is round, its effective area is only half of its diameter plane. We assume that the entire load is applied at the centre of the height of the section of the chimney under consideration.

For example a 125-foot iron chimney at Poughkeepsie, N. Y., the diameter of which is 90 inches, the effective surface in square feet the force of the wind may play will therefore be 734 times 125 which multiplied by 50 gives a total wind force of 23,437. The resistance of the chimney to breaking across the top of the pile will be 3.14×168^2 (that is, diameter of base) $\times .25 \times 35,000 + 486$, or 10.6 times the entire force of the wind. We multiply it above the joint in inches, 750, by 4, because the chimney is fixed beam with a load suspended on one end. In calculating all way up, we have a beam of the same character. It is a line half way up the chimney, where it is 90 inches in diameter thick. Taking the diametrical section above this line, as concentrated in the centre of it, or half way up from the consideration, its breaking strength is: $3.14 \times 90^2 \times .187 \times 35,000$ 69,220; and the force of the wind to tear it apart through its $734 \times 6\frac{3}{4} \times 50 + 2 = 11,352$, or a little more than one tenth of the force.

The book & Wilcox Co.'s book "Steam" illustrates a steel chimney of the Maryland Steel Co., Sparrow's Point, Md. It is 235 feet high, with the base, with internal brick lining 13' 9" uniform inside diameter shell is 35 ft. diam. at the base, tapering in a curve to 17 ft. at the top. The base, thence tapering almost imperceptibly to 14' 8" at the top. The lower 40 feet is of $\frac{3}{4}$ -inch plates, the next four sections of 40 feet respectively $\frac{9}{32}$, $\frac{5}{16}$, $\frac{11}{32}$, and $\frac{3}{8}$ inch.

Weights of Foundations for Steel Chimneys.

(Selected from circular of Phila. Engineering Works.)

HALF-LINED CHIMNEYS.

Height, feet.....	3	4	5	6	7	9	11
Weight of foundation..	15'9"	16'4"	20'4"	21'10"	22'7"	23'8"	24'8"
Weight of foundation.....	6'	6'	9'	8'	9'	10'	10'
Weight of foundation.....	125	200	200	250	275	300	300
Weight of foundation.....	18'5"	23'8"	25'	29'8"	33'6"	36'	36'
Weight of foundation.....	7'	10'	10'	12'	12'	14'	14'

Weight of Sheet-iron Smoke-stacks per Foot.

(Porter Mfg. Co.)

Height, feet.	Weight per ft.	Diam., inches.	Thickness W. G.	Weight per ft.	Diam., inches.	Thickness W. G.	Weight per ft.
6	7.90	26	No. 16	17.50	30	No. 14	18.33
	8.66	28	"	18.75	22	"	20.00
	9.58	30	"	20.00	24	"	21.66
	11.68	10	No. 14	9.40	26	"	23.33
	13.75	12	"	11.11	28	"	25.00
	15.00	14	"	13.69	30	"	26.66
	16.35	16	"	15.00			

Sheet-iron Chimneys. (Columbus Machine Co.)

Height chimney, feet.	Thickness Iron.	Weight, lbs.	Diameter Chimney, inches.	Length Chimney, feet.	Thickness Iron.	Weight, lbs.
	B. W. G.				B. W. G.	
20	No. 16	160	30	40	No. 15	960
20	" 16	240	32	40	" 15	1,020
20	" 16	320	34	40	" 14	1,170
20	" 16	350	36	40	" 14	1,240
20	" 16	760	38	40	" 12	1,800
20	" 16	826	40	40	" 12	1,890
20	" 15	900				

THE STEAM-ENGINE.

Expansion of Steam. Isothermal and Adiabatic. According to Mariotte's law, the volume of a perfect gas, the temperature kept constant, varies inversely as its pressure, or $p \propto \frac{1}{v}$; $pv = a$.

The curve constructed from this formula is called the *isothermal* curve of equal temperatures, and is a common or rectangular hyperbola. The relation of the pressure and volume of saturated steam, as found by Regnault's experiments, and as given in Steam tables, is approximately, according to Rankine (S. E., p. 403), for pressures not exceeding 100 lbs., $p \propto \frac{1}{v^{1.0635}}$, or $p \propto v^{-1.0635}$, or $pv^{1.0635} = pv^{1.0635} = a$ constant. Zeuner found that the exponent 1.0646 gives a closer approximation.

When steam expands in a closed cylinder, as in an engine, according to Rankine (S. E., p. 385), the approximate law of the expansion is

$p \propto v^{-1.1}$, or $pv^{1.1} = a$ constant. The curve constructed from this formula is called the *adiabatic* curve, or curve of no transmission of heat.

Peabody (Therm., p. 112) says: "It is probable that this equation is obtained by comparing the expansion lines on a large number of indicator diagrams. . . . There does not appear to be any good reason for an exponential equation in this connection, . . . and the action of a large engine cylinder is far from being adiabatic. . . . For general purposes a hyperbola is the best curve for comparison with the expansion curve on an indicator card. . . ." Wolff and Denton, Trans. A. S. M. E., ii, p. 203, says he doubts if the actual expansion line varies between an isothermal curve and the Mariotte curve.

Prof. Thurston (A. S. M. E., ii, 203), says he doubts if the expansion becomes the same in any two engines, or even in the same engine at different times of the day and under varying conditions of the day.

Expansion of Steam according to Mariotte's Law. (Trans. A. S. M. E., ii, 186.)—Mean

$pv = p_1 v_1$; values calculated from formula $\frac{P_m}{R} = \frac{1}{R} (1 + \text{hyp log } R)$.
 $R = v_2 + v_1$, p_1 = absolute initial pressure, P_m = absolute mean pressure, v_1 = initial volume of steam in cylinder at pressure p_1 , v_2 = final volume of steam at final pressure. Adiabatic law: $pv^{1.1} = p_1 v_1^{1.1}$; values calculated from formula $\frac{P_m}{p_1} = 10R^{-1} - 9R^{-1.1}$.

Ratio of Expansion R.	Ratio of Mean to Initial Pressure.		Ratio of Expansion R.	Ratio of Mean to Initial Pressure.		Ratio of Expansion R.	Ratio to 1 Prev.
	Mar.	Adiab.		Mar.	Adiab.		
1.00	1.000	1.000	3.7	.624	.600	6.	.465
1.25	.978	.976	3.8	.614	.590	6.25	.453
1.50	.957	.951	3.9	.605	.580	6.5	.442
1.75	.939	.931	4.	.597	.571	6.75	.431
2.	.924	.924	4.1	.588	.562	7.	.421
2.2	.913	.908	4.2	.580	.554	7.25	.411
2.4	.901	.905	4.3	.572	.546	7.5	.402
2.5	.896	.908	4.4	.564	.538	7.75	.393
2.6	.892	.923	4.5	.556	.530	8.	.385
2.8	.882	.934	4.6	.549	.523	8.25	.377
3.	.874	.945	4.7	.542	.516	8.5	.369
3.1	.868	.956	4.8	.535	.509	8.75	.362
3.2	.862	.967	4.9	.528	.502	9.	.355
3.3	.856	.978	5.05	.522	.495	9.25	.348
3.4	.851	.989	5.2	.516	.479	9.5	.341
3.5	.846	.999	5.5	.492	.464	9.75	.334
	.841	.999	5.75	.478	.450	10.	.327

sure of Expanded Steam.—For calculations of usually assumed that steam expands according to Mariotte's law, the expansion line being a hyperbola. The mean pressure, P_m , vacuum, is then obtained from the formula

$$P_m = p_1 \frac{1 + \text{hyp log } R}{R}$$

where p_1 is the absolute initial pressure, p_1 the absolute initial pressure up to the point of cut-off, and R the ratio of expansion. If L is the stroke, L = total stroke,

$$p_1 \frac{L}{L} \text{hyp log } \frac{L}{L}; \text{ and if } R = \frac{L}{L}, P_m = p_1 \frac{1 + \text{hyp log } R}{R}$$

Terminal Absolute Pressures.—**Mariotte's** values in the following table are based on Mariotte's law, the last column, which give the mean pressure of superheated steam according to Rankine, expands in a cylinder according to the law $P \cdot V = \text{const}$. These latter values are calculated from the formula $P = P_1 \cdot R^{-1/n}$. $R^{-1/n}$ may be found by extracting the square root of $\frac{1}{R}$. From the mean absolute pressures given deduct the mean back pressure to obtain the mean effective pressure.

Ratio of Mean to Initial Pressure.	Ratio of Mean to Terminal Pressure.	Ratio of Terminal to Mean Pressure.	Ratio of Initial to Mean Pressure.	Ratio of Initial to Mean to Dry Steam.
0.1467	4.40	0.227	6.82	0.136
0.1547	4.37	0.231	6.46
0.1638	4.26	0.235	6.11
0.1741	4.18	0.239	5.75
0.1860	4.09	0.244	5.38
0.1998	4.00	0.250	5.00	0.186
0.2161	3.89	0.256	4.63
0.2358	3.77	0.265	4.24
0.2472	3.71	0.269	4.05
0.2599	3.64	0.275	3.85
0.2620	3.59	0.279	3.72	0.254
0.2742	3.56	0.280	3.65
0.2904	3.48	0.287	3.44
0.3089	3.40	0.294	3.24
0.3308	3.30	0.303	3.03	0.314
0.3552	3.20	0.312	2.81
0.3849	3.08	0.321	2.60	0.370
0.4210	2.95	0.339	2.37
0.4347	2.90	0.345	2.30	0.417
0.4653	2.79	0.360	2.15
0.4807	2.74	0.364	2.08
0.5218	2.61	0.383	1.92	0.506
0.5608	2.50	0.400	1.78
0.5965	2.39	0.419	1.68	0.582
0.6308	2.29	0.437	1.58
0.6615	2.20	0.454	1.51	0.648
0.6995	2.10	0.476	1.43
0.7171	2.05	0.488	1.39	0.707
0.7440	1.98	0.505	1.34
0.7664	1.91	0.523	1.31	0.756
0.8095	1.80	0.556	1.24	0.800
0.8465	1.69	0.591	1.18	0.840
0.8782	1.60	0.626	1.14	0.874
0.9066	1.51	0.662	1.10	0.900
0.9187	1.47	0.680	1.09
0.9292	1.43	0.699	1.07	0.926
0.9405	1.39	0.718	1.06

Calculation of Mean Effective Pressure, Clearance Compression Considered.

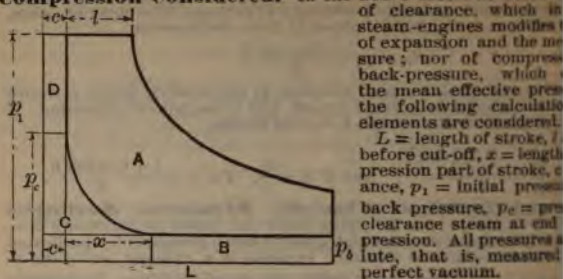


FIG. 137.

$$\text{Area of ABCD} = p_1(l+c) \left(1 + \text{hyp log } \frac{L+c}{l+c}\right);$$

$$B = p_b(L-x);$$

$$C = p_c \left(1 + \text{hyp log } \frac{x+c}{c}\right) = p_b(x+c) \left(1 + \text{hyp log } \frac{x+c}{c}\right);$$

$$D = (p_1 - p_c)c = p_1c - p_b(x+c).$$

$$\text{Area of A} = \text{ABCD} - (B + C + D)$$

$$= p_1(l+c) \left(1 + \text{hyp log } \frac{L+c}{l+c}\right)$$

$$- [p_b(L-x) + p_b(x+c) \left(1 + \text{hyp log } \frac{x+c}{c}\right) + p_1c - p_b(x+c)]$$

$$= p_1(l+c) \left(1 + \text{hyp log } \frac{L+c}{l+c}\right)$$

$$- p_b \left[(L-x) + (x+c) \text{hyp log } \frac{x+c}{c} \right]$$

$$\text{Mean effective pressure} = \frac{\text{area of A}}{L}$$

EXAMPLE.—Let $L = 1$, $l = 0.25$, $x = 0.25$, $c = 0.1$, $p_1 = 60$ lbs., p_b

$$\text{Area A} = 60(.25 + .1) \left(1 + \text{hyp log } \frac{1.1}{.35}\right)$$

$$- 2 \left[(1 - .25) + .35 \text{hyp log } \frac{.35}{.1} \right] - 60$$

$$= 21(1 + 1.145) - 2[.75 + .35 \times 1.253] - 60$$

$$= 45.045 - 2.377 - 60 = 36.668 = \text{mean effective pressure}$$

The actual indicator-diagram generally shows a mean pressure appreciably less than that due to the initial pressure and the rate of expansion. The causes of loss of pressure are: 1. Friction in the stop-valves and pipes. 2. Friction or wire-drawing of the steam during admission. 3. Liquefaction during expansion. 4. Exhausting before the stroke is completed. 5. Compression due to early closure of the valve. 6. Friction in the exhaust-ports, passages, and pipes.

Re-evaporation during expansion of the steam condensed during expansion, and valve-leakage after cut-off, tend to elevate the expansion curve and increase the mean pressure.

If the theoretical mean pressure be calculated from the indicator-diagram on the supposition that the expansion is perfect

riotte's law, $pv = a$ constant, and the necessary corrections are for clearance and compression, the expected mean pressure in practice found by multiplying the calculated results by the factor in the following table, according to Seaton.

Particulars of Engine.	Factor.
Condensing engine, special valve-gear, or with a separate cut-off valve, cylinder jacketed	0.94
Condensing engine having large ports, etc., and good ordinary valves, cylinders jacketed	0.9 to 0.92
Condensing engines with the ordinary valves and gear as in general practice, and unjacketed	0.8 to 0.85
Compound engines, with expansion valve to h.p. cylinder; cylinders jacketed, and with large ports, etc.	0.9 to 0.92
Compound engines, with ordinary slide-valves, cylinders jacketed, and good ports, etc.	0.8 to 0.85
Compound engines as in general practice in the merchant service, with early cut-off in both cylinders, without expansion-valves	0.7 to 0.8
High-speed running engines of the type and design usually fitted to war-ships	0.6 to 0.8

A correction should be made for clearance and compression, and the engine performance with general modern practice, the theoretical mean pressure may be multiplied by 0.96, and the product by the proper factor in the above table to obtain the expected mean pressure.

To find the Initial Pressure and the Average Pressure, to find the Ratio of Expansion and the Period of Admission.

P = initial absolute pressure in lbs. per sq. in.;
 p = average total pressure during stroke in lbs. per sq. in.;
 L = length of stroke in inches;
 l = period of admission measured from beginning of stroke;
 c = clearance in inches;

$$R = \text{actual ratio of expansion} = \frac{L+c}{l+c} \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

$$p = \frac{P(1 + \text{hyp log } R)}{R}$$

To find the average pressure p , taking account of clearance,

$$p = \frac{P(l+c) + P(l+c) \text{ hyp log } R - Pc}{L} \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

$$pL + Pc = P(l+c)(1 + \text{hyp log } R);$$

$$\text{hyp log } R = \frac{pL + Pc}{Pl + Pc} - 1 = \frac{\frac{p}{P}L + c}{l+c} - 1 \dots \dots \dots (3)$$

To find R and l (by trial and error)—There being two unknown quantities R and l , assume one of them, viz., the period of admission into it in equation (3) and solve for R . Substitute this value of R in formula (1), or $l = \frac{L+c}{R} - c$, obtained from formula (1), and find l . If l is greater than the assumed value of l , then the assumed value of R is too small; if less, the assumed value is too short. Take a new value of l , substitute it in formula (3) as before, and continue the method of trial and error till the required values of R and l are found.

EXAMPLE.— $P = 70$, $p = 42.78$, $L = 60''$, $c = 3''$, to find l . Assume $l = 21$ in.

$$\log R = \frac{\frac{p}{P}L + c}{l+c} - 1 = \frac{42.78 \times 60 + 3}{21 + 3} - 1 = 1.653 - 1 = .653;$$

whence $R = 1.92$.

$$l = \frac{L+c}{R} - c = \frac{63}{1.92} - 3 = 29.8,$$

which is greater than the assumed value, 21 inches.

Now assume $l = 15$ inches :

$$\text{hyp log } R = \frac{42.78}{70} \times 60 + 3 - 1 = 1.304, \text{ whence } R = 3.5;$$

$$l = \frac{L+c}{R} - c = \frac{63}{3.5} - 3 = 18 - 3 = 15 \text{ inches, the value assumed.}$$

Therefore $R = 3.5$, and $l = 15$ inches.

Period of Admission Required for a Given Actual Ratio of Expansion

$$l = \frac{L+c}{R} - c, \text{ in inches}$$

In percentage of stroke, $l = \frac{100 + \text{p.ct. clearance}}{R} - \text{p. ct. clearance.}$

$$\text{Terminal pressure} = \frac{P(l+c)}{L+c} = \frac{P}{R}$$

Pressure at any other Point of the Expansion.—Let L_1 = length of stroke up to the given point.

$$\text{Pressure at the given point} = \frac{P(l+c)}{L_1+c}$$

WORK OF STEAM IN A SINGLE CYLINDER.

To facilitate calculations of steam expanded in cylinders the table on next page is abridged from Clark on the Steam-engine. The actual ratio of expansion, column 1, range from 1.0 to 8.0, for which the hypotenuse logarithms are given in column 2. The 3d column contains the period of admission relative to the actual ratios of expansion, as percentages of stroke, calculated by formula (5) above. The 4th column gives the ratio of the mean pressures relative to the initial pressures, the latter being assumed as 1, calculated by formula (2). In the calculation of columns 3 and 4 clearance is taken into account, and its amount is assumed at 7% of the stroke. The final pressures, in the 5th column, are such as would be arrived at if the continued expansion of the whole of the steam to the end of the stroke, the initial pressure being equal to 1. They are the reciprocals of the ratios of expansion, column 1. The 6th column contains the relative total performances of equal weights of steam worked with the several actual ratios of expansion; the total performance, when steam is admitted for the whole of the stroke, without expansion, being equal to 1. They are obtained by dividing the figures in column 4 by those in column 5.

The pressures have been calculated on the supposition that the pressure of steam, during its admission into the cylinder, is uniform up to the point of cutting off, and that the expansion is continued regularly to the end of the stroke. The relative performances have been calculated without any allowance for the effect of compressive action.

The calculations have been made for periods of admission ranging from 100% of the whole of the stroke, to 6.4%, or 1/16 of the stroke. And though nominally, the expansion is 16 times in the last instance, it is actually only 8 times, as given in the first column. The great difference between the nominal and the actual ratios of expansion is caused by the clearance, which is equal to 7% of the stroke, and causes the nominal volume of steam admitted, namely, 6.4%, to be augmented to 6.4 + 7 = 12.4% of the stroke, or, say, double, for expansion. When the steam is cut off at 1/16, the actual expansion is only 6 times; when cut off at 1/8, the expansion is 4 times; when cut off at 1/4, the expansion is 2 2/3 times; and to effect an actual expansion to twice the initial volume, the steam is cut off at 4 2/3% of the stroke, not at half stroke.

Forking of Steam—Actual Ratios of Expansion and the Relative Periods of Admission, Pressure-Performance.

100 lbs. absolute. Clearance at each end of the cylinder $\frac{7}{8}$

(SINGLE CYLINDER.)

3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Period of Admission or Cut-off, $\frac{7}{8}$ Clearance.	Average Total Pressure, Initial Pressure = 1.	Total Final Pressure, Initial Pressure = 1.	Ratio of Total Performance of Equal Weights of Steam, (Col. 4 \div Col. 5.)	Actual Work done by 1 lb. of 100 lbs. Steam, Ft.-lbs.	Quantity of Steam Consumed per Ft. of Actual Work done per hour	Net Capacity of Cylinder per lb. of 100 lbs. Steam admitted in 1 stroke, Cubic feet.
100	1.000	1.000	1.000	58,273	34.0	4.05
90.3	.996	.909	1.096	63,850	31.0	4.45
83.3	.986	.847	1.164	67,836	29.2	4.78
80	.980	.813	1.206	70,246	28.2	4.98
75.3	.969	.769	1.261	73,513	26.9	5.26
70	.953	.719	1.325	77,242	25.6	5.63
66.8	.942	.690	1.365	79,555	24.9	5.87
62.5	.925	.649	1.425	83,055	23.8	6.23
59.9	.913	.625	1.461	85,125	23.3	6.47
54.1	.883	.571	1.546	90,115	22.0	7.08
50	.860	.532	1.616	94,300	21.0	7.61
46.5	.836	.5	1.672	97,432	20.3	8.09
40	.787	.459	1.793	104,466	19.0	9.23
37.6	.766	.417	1.837	107,050	18.5	9.71
33.3	.726	.377	1.925	112,210	17.7	10.72
29.9	.692	.345	2.006	116,88	16.9	11.74
26.4	.652	.313	2.083	121,386	16.3	12.95
25	.637	.298	2.129	124,066	16.0	13.56
22.7	.608	.278	2.187	127,450	15.5	14.57
21.2	.589	.263	2.240	130,532	15.2	15.28
19.7	.569	.250	2.278	132,770	14.9	16.19
18.5	.551	.238	2.315	134,000	14.7	17.00
16.8	.526	.222	2.370	138,130	14.34	18.21
15.3	.503	.208	2.418	140,920	14.05	19.43
14.4	.488	.200	2.440	142,180	13.92	20.23
13.6	.476	.193	2.466	143,730	13.78	21.04
12.5	.457	.182	2.511	146,325	13.53	22.25
11.4	.438	.172	2.547	148,390	13.34	23.47
11.1	.432	.169	2.556	148,940	13.29	23.87
10.3	.419	.161	2.585	150,630	13.14	25.09
10	.413	.159	2.597	151,370	13.08	25.49
9.2	.398	.152	2.619	152,595	12.98	26.71
8.3	.381	.143	2.664	155,200	12.75	28.33
7.7	.369	.137	2.693	156,960	12.61	29.54
7.1	.357	.132	2.711	157,975	12.53	30.76
6.7	.348	.128	2.719	158,414	12.50	31.57
6.4	.342	.125	2.736	159,433	11.83	32.38

OF THE TABLE.—That the initial pressure is uniform; that complete to the end of the stroke; that the pressure in expansion is inversely as the volume; that there is no back-pressure of compression, and that clearance is $\frac{7}{8}$ of the stroke at each end. No allowance has been made for loss of steam by cylinder or leakage.

steam of 100 lbs. pressure per sq. in., or 14,400
 pressure and volume..... 4.33 cu. ft.
 62,352 ft

ciency of 1 lb. of Steam with and without
pressure and compression not considered.

$$\text{ressure} = p = \frac{P(l+c) + P(l+c) \text{ hyp. log. } R - Pc}{L}$$

00; $l = 25$; $c = 7$.

$$2 \text{ hyp. log. } \frac{107}{32} - 7 \\ \frac{100}{100} = \frac{32 + 32 \times 1.309 - 7}{100} = .637.$$

be added to the stroke, so that clearance becomes zero,
of steam being used, admission l being then $= l + c =$
 $c = 107$.

$$+ 33 \text{ hyp. log. } \frac{107}{32} - 0 \\ \frac{107}{107} = \frac{32 + 32 \times 1.309}{107} = .707.$$

clearance be reduced to 0, the amount of the clearance 7
th the admission and the stroke, the same quantity of
e work than when the clearance is 7 in the ratio 707 : 637,

are Considered.—If back pressure = .10 of P , this
subtracted from p and p_1 , giving $p = .537$, $p_1 = .607$, the
quantity of steam used without clearance being greater
ce is 7 per cent in the ratio of 607 : 537, or 13% more.

ompression.—By early closure of the exhaust, so that a
all the steam is compressed into the clearance-space, much
clearance may be avoided. If expansion is continued
pressure, if the back pressure is uniform throughout the
d if compression begins at such point that the exhaust-
n the cylinder is compressed to the initial pressure at the
roke, then the work of compression of the exhaust steam
one during expansion by the clearance-steam. The clear-
lled by the exhaust steam thus compressed, no new steam
he clearance-space for the next forward stroke, and the
y of the steam used in the cylinder are just the same as if
rance and no compression. When, however, there is a
rom the final pressure of the expansion, or the terminal
haust or back pressure (the usual case), the work of com-
dial pressure is greater than the work done by the expan-
nce-steam, so that a loss of efficiency results. In this
ciency can be attained by inclosing for compression a less
than that needed to fill the clearance-space with steam of
e. (See Clark, S. E., p. 309, *et seq.*; also F. H. Ball, Trans.
67.) It is shown by Clark that a somewhat greater effi-
fined whether or not the pressure of the steam be carried
to the back exhaust-pressure. As a result of calcula-
e the most efficient periods of compression for various
k pressure, and for various periods of admission, he gives
xt page:

a Low- and High-speed Engines. (Harris
Sept. 17, 1891.)—The construction of the high-speed
h its relatively short stroke, that the clearance must be
in the releasing-valve type. The short-stroke engine is,
ngine with large clearance, which is aggravated when a
ion is a feature. Conversely, the releasing-valve gear is,
n engine of slow rotative speed, where great power is
ng stroke, and small clearance is a feature in its construc-
the clearance will vary from 8% to 12% of the piston-dis-
the other from 2% to 3%. In the case of an engine with a
g 10% of the piston-displacement the waste room becomes
sidered in connection with an early cut-off. The system of
es the waste due to clearance in proportion as the steam
ver pressure. The farther expansion is carried through
the greater will be the reduction of waste due to
from the fact that the high-speed engine, etc.

steam much less than the Corliss, will show a greater gain when cut off from simple to compound than its rival under similar conditions.

COMPRESSION OF STEAM IN THE CYLINDER.

Best Periods of Compression; Clearance $\frac{1}{7}$ per cent.

Cut-off in Percentages of the Stroke.	Total Back Pressure, in percentages of the total initial pressure.						
	2½	5	10	15	20	25	30
	Periods of Compression, in parts of the stroke.						
10%	65%	57%	44%	32%	23%	17%	14%
15	58	52	40	29	23%	17%	14%
20	52	47	37	27	22	16	14%
25	47	42	34	26	21	17%	13
30	42	39	32	25	20	16	14%
35	39	35	29	23	19	15	13
40	36	32	27	21	18	14	13
45	33	30	25	20	17	14	12
50	30	27	23	18	16	13	12
55	27	24	21	17	15	13	11
60	24	22	19	15	14	12	11
65	22	20	17	15	14	12	10
70	19	17	16	14	14	12	10
75	17	16	14	13	12	11	9

NOTES TO TABLE.—1. For periods of admission, or percentages of pressure, other than those given, the periods of compression may be found by interpolation.

2. For any other clearance, the values of the tabulated periods of compression are to be altered in the ratio of 7 to the given percent clearance.

Cylinder-condensation may have considerable effect upon the loss of compression, but it has not yet (1893) been determined by experiment (Trans. A. S. M. E., xiv, 1078.)

Cylinder-condensation.—Rankine, S. E., p. 421, says: Condensation of heat to and from the metal of the cylinder, or to and from liquid contained in the cylinder, has the effect of lowering the pressure at beginning and raising it at the end of the stroke, the lowering effect being the whole greater than the raising effect. In some experiments the quantity of steam wasted through alternate liquefaction and evaporation in the cylinder has been found to be greater than the quantity which per cent of the work.

Percentage of Loss by Cylinder-condensation, taken

Cut-off. (From circular of the Ashcroft Mfg. Co. on the Indicator, 1889.)

Percentage of Stroke completed at Cut-off.	Percent. of Feed-water accounted for by the Indicator diagram.			Percent. of Feed-water Consumption due to Cylinder-condensation.		
	Simple Engines.	Compound Engines, h.p. cyl.	Triple-expansion Engines, h.p. cyl.	Simple Engines.	Compound Engines, h.p. cyl.	Triple-expansion Engines, h.p. cyl.
5	58	74	78	42	26	22
10	66	74	78	34	26	22
15	71	76	78	29	24	22
20	74	78	80	26	22	20
30	78	82	84	22	18	18
40	82	85	87	18	15	15
50	85	88	90	14	12	12

Theoretical Compared with Actual Water-consumption, Single-cylinder Automatic Cut-off Engines. (From the catalogue of the Buckeye Engine Co.)—The following table has been prepared on the basis of the pressures that result in practice with a constant boiler-pressure of 80 lbs. and different points of cut-off, with Buckeye engines and others with similar clearance. Fractions are omitted, except the percentage column, as the degree of accuracy their use would seem amply is not attained or aimed at.

Cut-off Part of Stroke.	Mean Effective Pressure.	Total Terminal Pressure.	Indicated Rate, lbs. Water, per I H.P. per hour.	Assumed.	
				Act'l Rate.	Per ct. Loss.
.10	18	11	20	32	58
.15	27	15	19	27	41
.20	35	20	19	25	31.5
.25	42	25	20	25	25
.30	48	30	20	24	21.8
.35	53	35	21	25	19
.40	57	38	22	26	16.7
.45	61	43	24	27	15
.50	64	48	24	27	13.6

It will be seen that while the best indicated economy is when the cut-off is about at .15 or .20 of the stroke, giving about 30 lbs. M.E.P., and a terminal 3 or 4 lbs. above atmosphere, when we come to add the percentages due to a constant amount of unindicated loss, as per sixth column, the most economical point of cut-off is found to be about .30 of the stroke, giving 48 lbs. E.P. and 30 lbs. terminal pressure. This showing agrees substantially with modern experience under automatic cut-off regulation.

Experiments on Cylinder-condensation.—Experiments by (for Thos. English (*Eng'g*, Oct. 7, 1887, p. 386) with an engine 10 × 14 in., jacketed in the sides but not on the ends, indicate that the net initial condensation (or excess of condensation over re-evaporation) by the clearance space varies directly as the initial density of the steam, and inversely as the square root of the number of revolutions per unit of time. The mean results gave for the net initial condensation by clearance-space per sq. ft. of space at one rev. per second 6.06 thermal units in the engine when run non-condensing and 5.75 units when condensing.

B. R. Bodmer (*Eng'g*, March 4, 1892, p. 399) says: Within the ordinary limits of expansion desirable in one cylinder the expansion ratio has practically no influence on the amount of condensation per stroke, which for simple engines can be expressed by the following formula for the weight of water condensed [per minute, probably; the original does not state]:

$$W = C \frac{S(T-t)}{L \sqrt{N^2}}, \text{ where } T \text{ denotes the mean admission temperature, } t \text{ the mean exhaust temperature, } S \text{ clearance-surface (square feet), } N \text{ the number of revolutions per second, } L \text{ latent heat of steam at the mean admission temperature, and } C \text{ a constant for any given type of engine.}$$

Mr. Bodmer found from experimental data that for high-pressure non-jacketed engines $C =$ about 0.11, for condensing non-jacketed engines 0.085 to 0.11, for condensing jacketed engines 0.085 to 0.053. The figures for jacketed engines apply to those jacketed in the usual way, and not at the ends. C varies for different engines of the same class, but is practically constant for any given engine. For simple high-pressure non-jacketed engines C was found to range from 0.1 to 0.112.

Applying Mr. Bodmer's formula to the case of a Corliss non-jacketed non-condensing engine, 4-ft. stroke, 24 in. diam., 60 revs. per min., initial pressure 90 lbs. gauge, exhaust pressure 2 lbs., we have $T - t = 112^\circ$, $N = 1$, $C = .880$, $S = 7$ sq. ft.; and, taking $C = .112$ and $W =$ lbs. water condensed per minute, $W = \frac{.112 \times 112 \times 7}{1 \times 880} = .09$ lb. per minute, or 5.4 lbs. per hour. The steam used per I.H.P. per hour according to the diagram is 20 lbs., and the total water consumption is 25.4 lbs., corresponding to a cylinder condensation of 27%.

INDICATOR-DIAGRAM OF A SINGLE-CYLINDER ENGINE.

Definitions.—*The Atmospheric Line, AB,* is a line drawn by the indicator when the connections with the engine are closed at sides of the piston are open to the atmosphere.

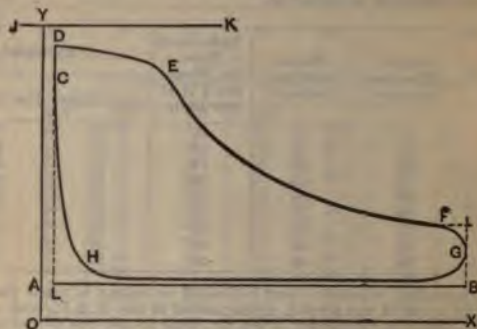


FIG. 138.

The Vacuum Line, OX, is a reference line usually drawn about pounds by scale below the atmospheric line.

The Clearance Line, OY, is a reference line drawn at a distance from end of the diagram equal to the same per cent of its length as the clearance and waste room is of the piston-displacement.

The Line of Boiler-pressure, JK, is drawn parallel to the atmospheric line, and at a distance from it by scale equal to the boiler-pressure by the gauge.

The Admission Line, CD, shows the rise of pressure due to the admission of steam to the cylinder by opening the steam-valve.

The Steam Line, DE, is drawn when the steam-valve is open and steam being admitted to the cylinder.

The Point of Cut-off, E, is the point where the admission of steam is stopped by the closing of the valve. It is often difficult to determine exact point at which the cut-off takes place. It is usually located where the outline of the diagram changes its curvature from convex to concave.

The Expansion Curve, EF, shows the fall in pressure as the steam cylinder expands doing work.

The Point of Release, F, shows when the exhaust-valve opens.

The Exhaust Line, FG, represents the change in pressure that takes place when the exhaust-valve opens.

The Back-pressure Line, GH, shows the pressure against which the steam acts during its return stroke.

The Point of Exhaust Closure, H, is the point where the exhaust-valve closes. It cannot be located definitely, as the change in pressure is due to the gradual closing of the valve.

The Compression Curve, HC, shows the rise in pressure due to the compression of the steam remaining in the cylinder after the exhaust-valve is closed.

The Mean Height of the Diagram equals its area divided by its length.

The Mean Effective Pressure is the mean net pressure urging the piston forward = the mean height \times the scale of the indicator-spring.

To find the Mean Effective Pressure from the Diagram.—Divide length, LB , into a number, say 10, equal parts, setting off half a part at B , and nine other parts between; erect ordinates perpendicular to the atmospheric line at the points of division of LB , cutting the upper and lower lines of the diagram and divide by their number.

height, which multiplied by the scale of the indicator-spring P . Or find the area by a planimeter, or other means (see p. 55), and divide by the length LB to obtain the mean height. P is the pressure acting on the piston at the beginning

P Pressure is the pressure above the line of perfect vacuum at the end of the stroke if the steam had not been released and by continuing the expansion-curve to the end of the

INDICATED HORSE-POWER OF ENGINES, SINGLE-CYLINDER.

$$\text{Indicated Horse-power I.H.P.} = \frac{PLan}{33,000}$$

mean effective pressure in lbs. per sq. in.; L = length of stroke in inches; a = area of piston in square inches. For accuracy, one half of the area of the piston-rod must be subtracted from the area of the piston if the rod passes through one head, or the whole area of the rod if it passes through both heads; n = No. of single strokes per min. = $2 \times$ No. of

$$= \frac{PaS}{33,000}, \text{ in which } S = \text{piston speed in feet per minute.}$$

$$= \frac{PLd^2n}{42,017} = \frac{Pd^2S}{42,017} = .000238PLd^2n = .000238Pd^2S,$$

d = diam. of cyl. in inches. (The figures 238 are exact, since $33,000$ is exactly $42,017 \times 2$.) If product of piston-speed \times mean effective pressure = $42,017$, then the horse-power would equal the square of the diameter.

Rule for Estimating the Horse-power of a Single-Cylinder Engine.—Square the diameter and divide by 2. This is the same as the product of the mean effective pressure and the piston-speed divided by $42,017$, or, say, $21,000$, viz., when M.E.P. = 30 and $S = 700$; when M.E.P. = 35 and $S = 600$; when M.E.P. = 38.3 and $S = 550$; and when M.E.P. = 42 and $S = 500$. These conditions correspond to those of ordinary Corliss engines and shaft-governor high-speed engines.

Rule for Estimating the Horse-power, Mean Effective Pressure, and Diameter, to find Size of Cylinder.—

$$\frac{33,000 \times \text{I.H.P.}}{PLn}, \quad \text{Diameter} = 205 \sqrt{\frac{\text{I.H.P.}}{PS}}. \text{ (Exact.)}$$

Net Horse-power is the actual horse-power of the engine as delivered by a friction-brake or dynamometer. It is the indicated horse-power minus the friction of the engine.

Rule for Roughly Approximating the Horse-power of a Single-Cylinder Engine from the Diameter of its Low-Pressure Cylinder.—The indicated horse-power of an engine being

P = mean effective pressure per sq. in., s = piston-speed in feet per min., and d = diam. of cylinder in inches; if $s = 600$ ft. per min., approximately the speed of modern stationary engines, and $P = 35$ lbs. per sq. in., an approximately average figure for the M.E.P. of single-cylinder and of compound engines referred to the low-pressure cylinder, I.H.P. = $\frac{1}{2}d^2$; hence the rough-and-ready rule for horse-power is to square the diameter in inches and divide by 2. This applies to simple expansion engines as well as to single cylinder and compound engines. For most economical loading, the M.E.P. referred to the low-pressure cylinder of compound engines is usually not greater than that of simple expansion engines; for the greater economy is obtained by a greater number of cylinders of higher pressures, and the greater the number of cylinders for a given initial pressure the lower the mean effective pressure. The following table gives approximately the figures of mean total and effective

tive pressures for the different types of engines, together with the factor which the square of the diameter $\frac{1}{2}$ is to be multiplied to obtain the horse power at most economical loading, for a piston-speed of 600 ft. per min.

Type of Engine.	Initial Absolute Steam-pressure.	Number of Expansions.	Terminal Absolute Press., lbs.	Ratio Mean Total to Initial Pressure.	Mean Total Pressure, lbs.	Total Back Pressure, Mean, lbs.	Mean Effective Pressure, lbs.	Piston-ft. per min.	Horse.
Non-condensing.									
Single Cylinder.	100	5.	30	.522	52.2	15.5	36.7	600	1
Compound	120	7.5	16	.402	45.2	15.5	32.7	"	"
Triple.....	160	10.	16	.330	52.8	15.5	37.3	"	"
Quadruple.....	200	12.5	16	.282	56.4	15.5	40.9	"	"
Condensing Engines.									
Single Cylinder.	100	10.	10	.330	33.0	2	31.0	600	1
Compound.....	120	15.	8	.247	29.6	2	27.6	"	"
Triple.....	160	20.	8	.300	32.0	2	30.0	"	"
Quadruple.....	200	25.	8	.169	33.8	2	31.8	"	"

For any other piston-speed than 600 ft. per min., multiply the figure in the last column by the ratio of the piston-speed to 600 ft.

Nominal Horse-power.—The term "nominal horse-power" is named in the time of Watt, and was used to express approximately the power of an engine as calculated from its diameter, estimating the mean pressure in the cylinder at 7 lbs. above the atmosphere. It has long been obsolete in America, and is nearly obsolete in England.

Horse-power Constant of a given Engine for a Piston Speed = product of its area of piston in square inches, length of stroke in feet, and number of single strokes per minute divided by 33,000, or $\frac{1}{33000} = C$. The product of the mean effective pressure as found by the diagram and this constant is the indicated horse-power.

Horse-power Constant of a given Engine for Various Piston Speeds = product of its area of piston and length of stroke divided by 33,000. This multiplied by the mean effective pressure and by the number of single strokes per minute is the indicated horse-power.

Horse-power Constant of any Engine of a given Diameter of Cylinder, whatever the length of stroke = area of piston $\div 28$ = square of the diameter of piston in inches $\times .000238$. A table of constants derived from this formula is given below.

The constant multiplied by the piston-speed in feet per minute and the M.E.P. gives the I.H.P.

Errors of Indicators.—The most common error is that of the spring which may vary from its normal rating; the error may be determined by proper testing apparatus and allowed for. But after making this correction even with the best work, the results are liable to variable errors which amount to 2 or 3 per cent. See Barrus, Trans. A. S. M. E., v. 310; Deane, A. S. M. E., xi. 329; David Smith, U. S. N., Proc. Eng'g Congress, Marine Division.

Indicator "Rigs," or Reducing-motions; Interpretation of Diagrams Errors of Steam-distribution, etc. For these see circulars of manufacturers of Indicators; also works on the Indicator.

Table of Engine Constants for Use in Figuring Horse-power.—"Horse-power constant" for cylinders from 1 inch to 60 inch diameter, advancing by 8ths, for one foot of piston-speed per minute and one pound of M.E.P. Find the diameter of the cylinder in the column at the side. If the diameter contains no fraction the constant will be found in the column headed Even inches. If the diameter is not in even inches, follow the line horizontally to the column corresponding to the required fraction

INDICATED HORSE-POWER OF ENGINES.

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constants multiplied by the piston-speed and by the M.E.P. give the power.

Order	Even Inches.	+ 1/8 or .125.	+ 1/4 or .25.	+ 3/8 or .375.	+ 1/2 or .5.	+ 5/8 or .625.	+ 3/4 or .75.	+ 7/8 or .875.
1	.000238	.000301	.000372	.000450	.000535	.000628	.000729	.000837
2	.000952	.001074	.001205	.001342	.001487	.001640	.001800	.001967
3	.002142	.002324	.002514	.002711	.002915	.003127	.003347	.003574
4	.003808	.004050	.004299	.004554	.004819	.005091	.005370	.005656
5	.005950	.006251	.006560	.006876	.007199	.007530	.007869	.008215
6	.008568	.008929	.009297	.009672	.010055	.010445	.010844	.011249
7	.011662	.012082	.012510	.012944	.013387	.013837	.014295	.014759
8	.015232	.015711	.016198	.016693	.017195	.017705	.018222	.018746
9	.019278	.019817	.020363	.020916	.021479	.022048	.022625	.023209
10	.023800	.024398	.025004	.025618	.026239	.026867	.027502	.028147
11	.028798	.029456	.030121	.030794	.031475	.032163	.032859	.033561
12	.034272	.034990	.035714	.036447	.037187	.037934	.038680	.039432
13	.040222	.040999	.041783	.042576	.043375	.044182	.044997	.045819
14	.046648	.047484	.048338	.049181	.050039	.050906	.051780	.052661
15	.053550	.054446	.055349	.056261	.057179	.058105	.059039	.059979
16	.060928	.061884	.062847	.063817	.064795	.065780	.066774	.067774
17	.068782	.069797	.0707819	.071850	.072887	.073932	.074985	.076044
18	.077112	.078187	.079268	.080360	.081452	.082550	.083652	.084791
19	.085913	.087052	.088198	.089343	.090499	.091663	.092835	.094013
20	.095200	.096393	.097594	.098803	.100019	.101243	.102474	.103712
21	.104958	.106211	.107472	.108739	.110015	.111299	.112589	.113886
22	.115192	.116505	.117825	.119152	.120487	.121830	.123179	.124537
23	.125902	.127274	.128654	.130040	.131435	.132837	.134247	.135664
24	.137098	.138519	.139959	.141405	.142859	.144321	.145789	.147266
25	.148750	.150241	.151739	.153246	.154759	.156280	.157809	.159345
26	.160888	.162439	.163997	.165563	.167135	.168716	.170304	.171899
27	.173502	.175112	.176729	.178355	.179988	.181627	.183275	.184929
28	.186592	.188262	.189939	.191624	.193310	.195015	.196722	.198436
29	.200158	.201887	.203624	.205365	.207119	.208879	.210645	.212418
30	.214300	.215988	.217785	.219588	.221399	.223218	.225044	.226877
31	.228712	.229566	.232422	.234285	.236155	.238033	.239919	.241812
32	.243712	.245619	.247535	.249457	.251387	.253325	.255269	.257222
33	.259182	.261149	.263124	.265106	.267095	.269092	.271097	.273109
34	.275128	.277155	.279189	.281231	.283279	.285336	.287399	.289471
35	.291550	.293636	.295729	.297831	.299939	.302056	.304179	.306309
36	.308448	.310594	.312747	.314908	.317075	.319251	.321434	.323624
37	.325822	.328027	.330239	.332460	.334689	.336922	.339165	.341415
38	.343672	.345937	.348209	.350489	.352777	.355070	.357372	.359681
39	.361998	.364322	.366654	.368993	.371339	.373694	.376055	.378424
40	.380800	.383184	.385575	.387973	.390379	.392793	.395214	.397642
41	.400078	.402521	.404972	.407430	.409895	.412368	.414849	.417337
42	.419892	.422335	.424784	.427232	.429689	.432150	.434619	.437097
43	.440062	.442624	.445194	.447771	.450355	.452947	.455547	.458154
44	.460768	.463389	.466019	.468655	.471299	.473951	.476609	.479276
45	.481950	.484631	.487320	.490016	.492719	.495439	.498169	.500875
46	.503668	.506349	.509097	.511853	.514615	.517386	.520164	.522949
47	.525742	.528542	.531349	.534165	.536988	.539818	.542655	.545499
48	.548352	.551212	.554079	.556953	.559835	.562725	.565622	.568526
49	.571428	.574357	.577284	.580218	.583159	.586109	.589065	.592029
50	.595000	.597979	.600965	.603959	.606959	.609969	.612984	.616007
51	.619038	.622076	.625122	.628175	.631235	.634304	.637379	.640462
52	.643552	.646649	.649753	.652867	.655987	.659115	.662250	.665392
53	.668542	.671699	.674864	.678036	.681215	.684402	.687597	.690799
54	.693908	.697225	.700449	.703681	.706929	.710166	.713419	.716681
55	.719950	.723226	.726510	.729801	.733099	.736406	.739719	.743039
56	.746368	.749704	.753047	.756398	.759756	.763120	.766489	.769864
57	.773302	.776657	.780009	.783347	.786687	.790031	.793374	.796718
58	.800068	.804087	.808074	.812119	.816146	.820179	.824214	.828247
59	.832286	.836392	.840494	.844604	.848719	.852834	.856947	.861062
60	.865000	.869074	.873155	.877243	.881337	.885436	.889534	.893634

INDICATOR-DIAGRAM OF A SINGLE-CYLINDER ENGINE.

Definitions.—*The Atmospheric Line, AB,* is a line drawn by the end of the indicator when the connections with the engine are closed and the sides of the piston are open to the atmosphere.

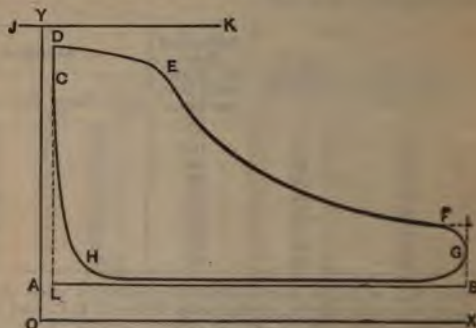


FIG. 133.

The Vacuum Line, OX, is a reference line usually drawn about 14 pounds by scale below the atmospheric line.

The Clearance Line, OY, is a reference line drawn at a distance from the end of the diagram equal to the same per cent of its length as the clearance and waste room is of the piston-displacement.

The Line of Boiler-pressure, JK, is drawn parallel to the atmospheric line, and at a distance from it by scale equal to the boiler-pressure shown by the gauge.

The Admission Line, CD, shows the rise of pressure due to the admission of steam to the cylinder by opening the steam-valve.

The Steam Line, DE, is drawn when the steam-valve is open and steam being admitted to the cylinder.

The Point of Cut-off, E, is the point where the admission of steam is stopped by the closing of the valve. It is often difficult to determine the exact point at which the cut-off takes place. It is usually located where the outline of the diagram changes its curvature from convex to concave.

The Expansion Curve, EF, shows the fall in pressure as the steam in the cylinder expands doing work.

The Point of Release, F, shows when the exhaust-valve opens.

The Exhaust Line, FG, represents the change in pressure that takes place when the exhaust-valve opens.

The Back-pressure Line, GH, shows the pressure against which the piston acts during its return stroke.

The Point of Exhaust Closure, H, is the point where the exhaust-valve closes. It cannot be located definitely, as the change in pressure is due to the gradual closing of the valve.

The Compression Curve, HC, shows the rise in pressure due to the re-pression of the steam remaining in the cylinder after the exhaust-valve is closed.

The Mean Height of the Diagram equals its area divided by its length.

The Mean Effective Pressure is the mean net pressure urging the piston forward = the mean height \times the scale of the indicator-spring.

To find the Mean Effective Pressure from the Diagram.—Divide the length, *LB,* into a number, say 10, equal parts, setting off each a part, half a part at *B,* and nine other parts between; erect ordinates perpendicular to the atmospheric line at the points of division of *LB,* cutting the curve; add the lengths of these ordinates, measured from the atmospheric line, and divide by their number.

ean height, which multiplied by the scale of the indicator-spring M.E.P. Or find the area by a planimeter, or other means (see n, p. 55), and divide by the length LB to obtain the mean height. P Pressure is the pressure acting on the piston at the beginning of the stroke.

Initial Pressure is the pressure above the line of perfect vacuum exist at the end of the stroke if the steam had not been released is found by continuing the expansion-curve to the end of the stroke.

INDICATED HORSE-POWER OF ENGINES, SINGLE-CYLINDER.

$$\text{Indicated Horse-power I.H.P.} = \frac{PLan}{33,000}$$

P = mean effective pressure in lbs. per sq. in.; L = length of stroke in inches; A = area of piston in square inches. For accuracy, one half of the area of the piston-rod must be subtracted from the area of the piston if the rod passes through one head, or the whole area of the rod if it passes through both heads; n = No. of single strokes per min. = $2 \times$ No. of revolutions per min.

$$I.H.P. = \frac{PaS}{33,000} \text{ in which } S = \text{piston speed in feet per minute.}$$

$$I.H.P. = \frac{PLd^2n}{42,017} = \frac{Pd^2S}{42,017} = .000238PLd^2n = .000238Pd^2S,$$

d = diam. of cyl. in inches. (The figures 238 are exact, since $33,000 \div 42,017 = .7854$ exactly.) If product of piston-speed \times mean effective pressure = 42,017, then the horse-power would equal the square of the diameter in inches.

Rule for Estimating the Horse-power of a Single-Cylinder Engine.—Square the diameter and divide by 2. This gives the product of the mean effective pressure and the piston-speed of 42,017, or, say, 21,000, viz., when M.E.P. = 30 and S = 700; or, P = 35 and S = 600; when M.E.P. = 38.2 and S = 550; and when P = 35 and S = 500. These conditions correspond to those of ordinary Corliss engines and shaft-governor high-speed engines.

Horse-power, Mean Effective Pressure, and Piston-Speed, to find Size of Cylinder.—

$$\text{Diameter} = \sqrt{\frac{33,000 \times \text{I.H.P.}}{PLn}} = 205 \sqrt{\frac{\text{I.H.P.}}{PS}} \text{ (Exact.)}$$

Horse-power is the actual horse-power of the engine as measured at the fly-wheel by a friction-brake or dynamometer. It is the indicated horse-power minus the friction of the engine.

For Roughly Approximating the Horse-power of a Single-Cylinder Engine from the Diameter of its Low-Pressure Cylinder.—The indicated horse-power of an engine being

in which P = mean effective pressure per sq. in., s = piston-speed in feet per min., and d = diam. of cylinder in inches; if s = 600 ft. per min.,

P is an approximately average figure for the M.E.P. of single-cylinder engines, and of compound engines referred to the low-pressure cylinder, I.H.P. = $\frac{1}{2}d^2s$; hence the rough-and-ready rule for horse-power is: Square the diameter in inches and divide by 2. This applies to simple and quadruple expansion engines as well as to single cylinder and compound engines.

For most economical loading, the M.E.P. referred to the low-pressure cylinder of compound engines is usually not greater than that of simple engines; for the greater economy is obtained by a greater number of cylinders of higher pressures, and the greater the number of cylinders for a given initial pressure the lower the mean effective pressure. The following table gives approximately the figures of mean total and effective

tive pressures for the different types of engines, together with the factor which the square of the diameter $\frac{1}{16}$ s to be multiplied to obtain the horse power at most economical loading, for a piston-speed of 600 ft. per min.

Type of Engine.	Initial Absolute Steam-pressure.	Number of Expansions.	Terminal Absolute Press., lbs.	Ratio Mean Total to Initial Pressure.	Mean Total Pressure, lbs.	Total Back Pressure, Mean, lbs.	Mean Effective Pressure, lbs.	Piston-speed, ft. per min.
Non-condensing.								
Single Cylinder.	100	5.	20	.522	52.2	15.5	36.7	600
Compound.....	120	7.5	16	.402	40.2	15.5	24.7	"
Triple.....	160	10.	16	.330	33.0	15.5	17.5	"
Quadruple.....	200	12.5	16	.282	28.2	15.5	12.7	"
Condensing Engines.								
Single Cylinder.	100	10.	10	.330	33.0	2	31.0	600
Compound.....	120	15.	8	.247	24.7	2	22.7	"
Triple.....	160	20.	8	.200	20.0	2	18.0	"
Quadruple.....	200	25.	8	.169	16.9	2	14.9	"

For any other piston-speed than 600 ft. per min., multiply the figure in the last column by the ratio of the piston-speed to 600 ft.

Nominal Horse-power.—The term "nominal horse-power" originated in the time of Watt, and was used to express approximately the power of an engine as calculated from its diameter, estimating the mean pressure in the cylinder at 7 lbs. above the atmosphere. It has long been obsolete in America, and is nearly obsolete in England.

Horse-power Constant of a given Engine for a given Speed = product of its area of piston in square inches, length of stroke in feet, and number of single strokes per minute divided by 33,000, or C . The product of the mean effective pressure as found by the diagram and this constant is the indicated horse-power.

Horse-power Constant of a given Engine for Various Speeds = product of its area of piston and length of stroke divided by 33,000. This multiplied by the mean effective pressure and by the number of single strokes per minute is the indicated horse-power.

Horse-power Constant of any Engine of a given Diameter of Cylinder, whatever the length of stroke = area of piston in square inches \times .0000238. A table of constants derived from this formula is given below.

The constant multiplied by the piston-speed in feet per minute is the M.E.P. gives the I.H.P.

Errors of Indicators.—The most common error is that of the indicator which may vary from its normal rating; the error may be determined by proper testing apparatus and allowed for. But after making this correction even with the best work, the results are liable to variable errors which amount to 2 or 3 per cent. See Barus, Trans. A. S. M. E., v. 22; and A. S. M. E., xi. 329; David Smith, U. S. N., Proc. Eng'g Congress, Marine Division.

Indicator "Rigs," or Reducing-motions; Interpretation of Diagrams; Errors of Steam-distribution, etc. For these see circulars of manufacture of indicators; also works on the Indicator.

Table of Engine Constants for Use in Figuring Horse-power.—"Horse-power constant" for cylinders from 1 in. to 16 in. diameter, advancing by 8ths, for one foot of piston-speed, gives values a pound of M.E.P. Find the diameter of the cylinder in the column headed "D." If the diameter contains no fraction the constant will be the value in the column headed "Even inches." If the diameter is not in even inches draw a horizontal line to the column corresponding to the regular

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constants multiplied by the piston-speed and by the M.E.P. give the I.P.

meter # Inches.	Even Inches.	+ 1/8 or .125.	+ 1/4 or .25.	+ 3/8 or .375.	+ 1/2 or .5.	+ 5/8 or .625.	+ 3/4 or .75.	+ 7/8 or .875.
1	.0000328	.0000301	.0000372	.0000450	.0000535	.0000628	.0000729	.0000837
2	.0000652	.0001074	.0001205	.0001342	.0001487	.0001640	.0001800	.0001967
3	.0001142	.0002324	.0002514	.0002711	.0002915	.0003127	.0003347	.0003574
4	.0003808	.0004050	.0004299	.0004554	.0004819	.0005091	.0005370	.0005656
5	.0005950	.0006251	.0006560	.0006876	.0007199	.0007530	.0007869	.0008215
6	.0008568	.0008929	.0009297	.0009672	.0010055	.0010445	.0010844	.0011249
7	.0011662	.0012082	.0012510	.0012944	.0013387	.0013837	.0014295	.0014759
8	.0015232	.0015711	.0016198	.0016693	.0017195	.0017705	.0018222	.0018746
9	.0019278	.0019817	.0020363	.0020916	.0021479	.0022048	.0022625	.0023209
0	.0023800	.0024398	.0025004	.0025618	.0026239	.0026867	.0027502	.0028144
1	.0028790	.0029456	.0030121	.0030794	.0031475	.0032163	.0032859	.0033561
2	.0034272	.0034990	.0035714	.0036447	.0037187	.0037934	.0038680	.0039432
3	.0040222	.0040999	.0041783	.0042576	.0043375	.0044182	.0044997	.0045819
4	.0046648	.0047484	.0048328	.0049181	.0050039	.0050906	.0051780	.0052661
5	.0053550	.0054446	.0055349	.0056261	.0057179	.0058105	.0059039	.0059979
6	.0060928	.0061884	.0062847	.0063817	.0064795	.0065780	.0066774	.0067774
7	.0068782	.0069797	.0070819	.0071850	.0072887	.0073932	.0074985	.0076044
8	.0077112	.0078187	.0079268	.0080360	.0081452	.0082550	.0083652	.0084791
9	.0085918	.0087052	.0088193	.0089343	.0090499	.0091663	.0092835	.0094013
0	.0095200	.0096393	.0097594	.0098803	.0100019	.0101243	.0102474	.0103712
1	.0104958	.0106211	.0107472	.0108739	.0110015	.0111299	.0112589	.0113886
2	.0115192	.0116505	.0117825	.0119152	.0120487	.0121830	.0123179	.0124537
3	.0125902	.0127274	.0128654	.0130040	.0131435	.0132837	.0134247	.0135664
4	.0137088	.0138519	.0139959	.0141405	.0142859	.0144321	.0145780	.0147246
5	.0148750	.0150241	.0151739	.0153246	.0154759	.0156280	.0157809	.0159345
6	.0160888	.0162439	.0163997	.0165563	.0167135	.0168716	.0170304	.0171899
7	.0173502	.0175112	.0176729	.0178355	.0179988	.0181627	.0183275	.0184929
8	.0186592	.0188262	.0189939	.0191624	.0193316	.0195015	.0196722	.0198436
9	.0200158	.0201887	.0203624	.0205369	.0207119	.0208879	.0210645	.0212418
0	.0214300	.0215988	.0217785	.0219588	.0221399	.0223218	.0225044	.0226877
1	.0228712	.0230566	.0232422	.0234285	.0236155	.0238033	.0239919	.0241812
2	.0243712	.0245619	.0247535	.0249457	.0251387	.0253325	.0255269	.0257222
3	.0259182	.0261149	.0263124	.0265106	.0267095	.0269092	.0271097	.0273109
4	.0275128	.0277155	.0279189	.0281231	.0283279	.0285336	.0287399	.0289471
5	.0291550	.0293636	.0295729	.0297831	.0299939	.0302056	.0304179	.0306309
6	.0308448	.0310594	.0312747	.0314908	.0317075	.0319251	.0321434	.0323624
7	.0325822	.0328027	.0330239	.0332460	.0334687	.0336922	.0339165	.0341415
8	.0343672	.0345937	.0348209	.0350489	.0352775	.0355070	.0357372	.0359681
9	.0361998	.0364322	.0366654	.0368993	.0371339	.0373694	.0376055	.0378424
0	.0380800	.0383184	.0385575	.0387973	.0390379	.0392793	.0395214	.0397642
1	.0400078	.0402521	.0404972	.0407430	.0409895	.0412368	.0414849	.0417337
2	.0419892	.0422335	.0424784	.0427238	.0429698	.0432160	.0434629	.0437107
3	.0440062	.0442624	.0445194	.0447771	.0450355	.0452947	.0455547	.0458154
4	.0460768	.0463389	.0466019	.0468655	.0471299	.0473951	.0476609	.0479276
5	.0481950	.0484631	.0487320	.0490016	.0492719	.0495430	.0498149	.0500875
6	.0503608	.0506349	.0509097	.0511853	.0514615	.0517386	.0520164	.0522949
7	.0525742	.0528542	.0531349	.0534165	.0536988	.0539818	.0542655	.0545499
8	.0548352	.0551212	.0554079	.0556953	.0559835	.0562725	.0565622	.0568526
9	.0571428	.0574357	.0577284	.0580218	.0583159	.0586109	.0589065	.0592029
0	.0595000	.0597979	.0600965	.0603959	.0606959	.0609969	.0612984	.0616007
1	.0619088	.0622076	.0625122	.0628175	.0631235	.0634304	.0637379	.0640460
2	.0643552	.0646649	.0649753	.0652867	.0655985	.0659115	.0662255	.0665399
3	.0668342	.0671699	.0674964	.0678306	.0681612	.0684902	.0688297	.0691697
4	.0694905	.0698225	.0701449	.0704668	.0707893	.0711126	.0714319	.0718161
5	.0719950	.0724226	.0728510	.0732801	.0737099	.0741366	.0745694	.0749983
6	.0746365	.0750707	.0755047	.0759395	.0763750	.0768113	.0772484	.0776864
7	.0773262	.0778657	.0783060	.0787476	.0791897	.0796312	.0800745	.0805185
8	.0800622	.0804087	.0807549	.0811019	.0814495	.0817950	.0821457	.0824967
9	.0828478	.0831992	.0835514	.0839043	.0842579	.0846123	.0849687	.0853251
0	.0856800	.0860374	.0863955	.0867543	.0871139	.0874743	.0878357	.0881971

Horse-power per Pound Mean Effective Press

Formula, $\frac{\text{Area in sq. in.} \times \text{piston-speed}}{33,000}$

Diam. of Cylinder, inches.	Speed of Piston in feet per minute.							
	100	200	300	400	500	600	700	800
4	.0841	.0762	.1142	.1523	.1904	.2285	.2666	.3047
4½	.0482	.0664	.1446	.1928	.2410	.2892	.3374	.3856
5	.0595	.1190	.1785	.2380	.2975	.3570	.4165	.4760
5½	.0730	.1440	.2160	.2880	.3600	.4320	.5040	.5760
6	.0857	.1714	.2570	.3427	.4284	.5141	.5998	.6855
6½	.1006	.2011	.3017	.4022	.5028	.6033	.7039	.8044
7	.1166	.2332	.3499	.4665	.5831	.6997	.8163	.9329
7½	.1339	.2678	.4016	.5355	.6694	.8033	.9371	1.0710
8	.1523	.3046	.4570	.6093	.7616	.9139	1.0662	1.2185
8½	.1720	.3439	.5159	.6878	.8598	1.0317	1.2037	1.3757
9	.1928	.3856	.5783	.7711	.9639	1.1567	1.3495	1.5423
9½	.2148	.4296	.6444	.8592	1.0740	1.2888	1.5036	1.7184
10	.2380	.4760	.7140	.9520	1.1900	1.4280	1.6660	1.9040
11	.2880	.5760	.8639	1.1519	1.4399	1.7279	2.0159	2.3039
12	.3427	.6854	1.0282	1.3709	1.7136	2.0563	2.3990	2.7417
13	.4022	.8044	1.2067	1.6089	2.0111	2.4133	2.8105	3.2077
14	.4665	.9330	1.3994	1.8659	2.3324	2.7689	3.2654	3.7211
15	.5355	1.0710	1.6065	2.1420	2.6775	3.2130	3.7485	4.2844
16	.6093	1.2186	1.8278	2.4371	3.0464	3.6537	4.2670	4.8474
17	.6878	1.3756	1.9935	2.6513	3.3391	4.0269	4.6147	5.4022
18	.7711	1.5422	2.3134	3.0845	3.8556	4.6267	5.2978	6.1099
19	.8592	1.7184	2.5775	3.4367	4.2959	5.1551	6.0143	6.8733
20	.9520	1.9040	2.8590	3.8080	4.7600	5.7120	6.6610	7.6020
21	1.0496	2.0992	3.1488	4.1983	5.2479	6.2975	7.3471	8.3084
22	1.1519	2.3038	3.4558	4.6077	5.7590	6.9115	8.0634	9.2123
23	1.2590	2.5180	3.7771	5.0361	6.2951	7.5541	8.8131	10.0757
24	1.3709	2.7418	4.1126	5.4835	6.8544	8.2275	9.5969	10.9690
25	1.4875	2.9760	4.4625	5.9500	7.4375	8.9250	10.4173	11.9037
26	1.6089	3.2178	4.8266	6.4355	8.0444	9.6314	11.2642	12.8787
27	1.7350	3.4700	5.2051	6.9401	8.6751	10.410	12.1453	13.8938
28	1.8659	3.7318	5.5978	7.4637	9.3296	11.196	13.0614	14.9492
29	2.0016	4.0032	6.0047	8.0063	10.008	12.009	14.0116	16.0170
30	2.1420	4.2840	6.4290	8.5680	10.710	12.852	14.9947	17.1310
31	2.2872	4.5744	6.8615	9.1487	11.436	13.723	16.010	18.2910
32	2.4371	4.8742	7.3114	9.7485	12.186	14.633	17.060	19.4970
33	2.5918	5.1836	7.7755	10.367	12.959	15.551	18.143	20.7500
34	2.7513	5.5026	8.2538	11.005	13.756	16.508	19.259	22.0500
35	2.9155	5.8310	8.7465	11.662	14.578	17.493	20.409	23.3980
36	3.0845	6.1690	9.2531	12.338	15.422	18.507	21.591	24.7930
37	3.2582	6.5164	9.7747	13.033	16.291	19.549	22.808	26.2360
38	3.4367	6.8734	10.310	13.747	17.184	20.620	24.057	27.7290
39	3.6200	7.2400	10.860	14.480	18.100	21.720	25.340	29.2720
40	3.8080	7.6160	11.424	15.232	19.040	22.848	26.656	30.8660
41	4.0008	8.0016	12.002	16.003	20.004	24.005	28.005	32.0000
42	4.1983	8.3866	12.585	16.783	20.982	25.180	29.378	33.5330
43	4.4006	8.8012	13.202	17.602	22.003	26.404	30.804	35.1100
44	4.6077	9.2154	13.823	18.431	23.038	27.646	32.254	36.7360
45	4.8195	9.6390	14.459	19.278	24.098	28.917	33.737	38.4140
46	5.0361	10.072	15.108	20.144	25.180	30.216	35.253	40.1380
47	5.2574	10.515	15.772	21.030	26.287	31.545	36.802	41.9100
48	5.4835	10.967	16.451	21.934	27.418	32.901	38.382	43.7330
49	5.7144	11.429	17.143	22.858	28.572	34.286	40.001	45.6080
50	5.9500	11.900	17.850	23.800	29.750	35.700	41.650	47.5360
51	6.1904	12.381	18.571	24.762	30.952	37.142	43.335	49.5170
52	6.4355	12.871	19.307	25.742	32.178	38.613	45.049	51.4520
53	6.6854	13.371	20.066	26.742	33.427	40.133	46.798	53.4430
54	6.9401	13.880	20.830	27.760	34.700	41.640	48.581	55.4890
55	7.1995	14.399	21.599	28.798	35.998	43.167	50.397	57.5910
56	7.4637	14.927	22.391	29.855	37.318	44.732	52.246	59.7500
57	7.7326	15.465	23.198	30.930	38.663	46.336	54.129	61.9660
58	8.0061	16.013	24.019	32.025	40.022	48.000	56.045	64.2390
59	8.2841	16.570	24.884	33.139	41.424	49.739	57.993	66.5690
60	8.5666	17.136	25.704	34.272	42.840	51.538	59.976	68.9560

By the Clearance-line on the Indicator-diagram, clearance not being known.—The clearance-line may be obtained by drawing a straight line, $cbad$, across the compression curve having drawn OX parallel to the atmospheric line and 14.7 lbs. pressure from a the distance ad , equal to cb , and draw YO perpendicular through d ; then will TB divided by AT be the percentage of

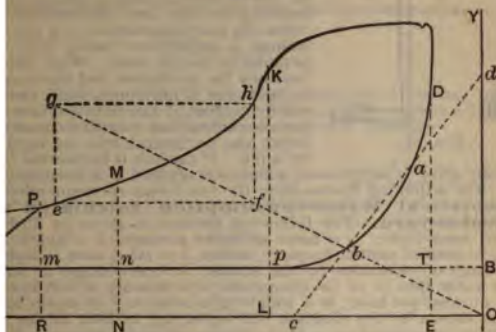


FIG. 139.

The clearance may also be found from the expansion-line by erecting a rectangle $efhg$, and drawing a diagonal af to intersect the horizontal line OX at the point O , and by erecting a perpendicular to XO the clearance-line OY .

These methods for finding the clearance require that the expansion and compression curves be hyperbolas. Prof. Carpenter (*Power*, Sept. 1893) says that with good diagrams the methods are usually very accurate, but that with poor diagrams the results usually check substantially.

Some engineers, however, say that, as the results obtained are not very accurate, being sometimes too little, but more frequently too much, the indications from the two curves seldom agree, the operation has no real value, though when a clearly defined and apparently undistorted expansion curve exists of sufficient extent to admit of the application of these methods, it may be relied on to give much more correct results than the usual methods of finding the clearance.

By the Hyperbolic Curve on the Indicator-diagram.—Select any point I in the actual curve, and from this point draw a perpendicular to the line JB , meeting it in the point J . The line JB is the line of boiler-pressure, or material; it may be drawn at any convenient height near the top of the diagram parallel to the atmospheric line. From J draw a diagonal to K , the point of intersection of the expansion curve and clearance lines; from I draw a line parallel with the atmospheric line to meet the vertical line JK at the point of intersection L . The theoretical point of cut-off, and LM the cut-off line. Fix

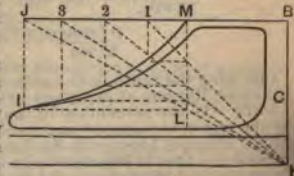


FIG. 140.

the number of points 1, 2, 3, etc., on the line JB , and from these points draw vertical lines to K . From the intersection of these diagonal lines, and from 1, 2, 3, etc., vertical lines, draw horizontal lines to the hyperbolic curve.

By the Indicator Rig.—*Power* (Feb. 1893) gives the following table of the errors in indicator-diagrams, caused by

correct form of the pendulum rigging. It is shown that the best pulley on the pendulum, to which the cord is attached, does not

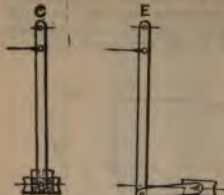


FIG. 141.

a serious error is introduced, which is magnified if a brumbo pulley is used. The adjoining figures show the two forms recommended.

Theoretical Water-consumption calculated from Indicator-card.—The following method is given by Prof. (Power, Sept. 1893): p = mean effective pressure, l = length of feet, a = area of piston in square inches, $a + 144$ = area in square percentage of clearance to the stroke, b = percentage of stroke where water rate is to be computed, c = percentage of stroke $60n$ = number per hour, w = weight of a cubic foot of steam having pressure as shown by the diagram corresponding to that at the water rate is required, w' = that corresponding to pressure at exhaust pressure.

$$\text{Number of cubic feet per stroke} = l \left(\frac{b+c}{100} \right) \frac{a}{144}$$

$$\text{Corresponding weight of steam per stroke in lbs.} = l \left(\frac{b+c}{100} \right) p$$

$$\text{Volume of clearance} = \frac{lca}{14,400}$$

$$\text{Weight of steam in clearance} = \frac{lcaw'}{14,400}$$

$$\text{Total weight of steam per stroke} = l \left(\frac{b+c}{100} \right) \frac{wa}{144} - \frac{lcaw'}{14,400} = \frac{la}{14,400} [(b+c)w - cw']$$

$$\text{Total weight of steam from diagram per hour} = \frac{60na}{14,400} [(b+c)w - cw']$$

The indicated horse-power is $p l a n \div 33,000$. Hence the steam rate per indicated horse-power is

$$= \frac{60na}{14,400} [(b+c)w - cw'] \div \frac{p l a n}{33,000} = \frac{137.50}{p} [(b+c)w - cw']$$

Changing the formula to a rule, we have: To find the water rate indicator diagram at any point in the stroke.

RULE.—To the percentage of the entire stroke which has been used by the piston at the point under consideration add the percentage clearance. Multiply this result by the weight of a cubic foot of steam having pressure of that at the required point. Subtract from this the percentage of clearance multiplied by weight of a cubic foot of steam having a pressure equal to that at the end of the compression. The result by 137.50 divided by the mean effective pressure.

NOTE.—This method only applies to points in the expansion curve when cut-off and release.

For triple-expansion engines read: divided by pressure, on the supposition that all work

beneficial effect of compression in reducing the water-consumption of the engine is clearly shown by the formula. If the compression is carried to a point that it produces a pressure equal to that at the point under consideration, the weight of steam per cubic foot is equal, and $w = w'$. In this case the effect of clearance entirely disappears, and the formula becomes $\frac{137.5}{p}(bw)$.

In the case of no compression, w' becomes zero, and the water-rate =

$$\frac{137.5}{p}[(b + c)w].$$

Denton (Trans. A. S. M. E., xiv, 1863) gives the following table of theoretical water-consumption for a perfect Mariotte expansion with steam at 15 lbs. above atmosphere, and 2 lbs. absolute back pressure:

of Expansion, r .	M.E.P., lbs. per sq. in.	Lbs. of Water per hour per horse-power, W .
10	52.4	9.68
15	38.7	8.74
20	30.9	8.30
25	25.9	7.84
30	22.2	7.63
35	19.5	7.45

The difference between the theoretical water-consumption found by the above formula and the actual consumption as found by test represents "water not indicated for by the indicator," due to cylinder condensation, leakage at ports, radiation, etc.

Leakage of Steam.—Leakage of steam, except in rare instances, has a marked effect upon the lines of the diagram that it can scarcely be detected. A satisfactory way to determine the tightness of an engine is to take the engine not in motion, apply a full boiler-pressure to the valve, placed in a position, and to the piston as well, which is blocked for the purpose at the cut-off point away from the end of the stroke, and see by the eye whether any leakage occurs. The indicator-cocks provide means for bringing into view the steam which leaks through the steam-valves, and in most cases that which leaks through the piston, and an opening made in the exhaust-pipe or observation-pipe at the atmospheric escape-pipe, are generally sufficient to determine the amount of leakage with regard to the exhaust-valves.

The amount of steam accounted for by the indicator should be computed for both the expansion and the release points of the diagram. If the expansion-line deviates from the hyperbolic curve a very different result is shown at the cut-off than that shown at the other. In such cases the extent of the deviation is caused by cylinder condensation and leakage is indicated in a much more useful manner at the cut-off than at the release. (Tabor Indicator.)

COMPOUND ENGINES.

Compound, Triple- and Quadruple-expansion Engines.—A compound engine is one having two or more cylinders, and in which the steam, after doing work in the first or high-pressure cylinder, completely expands in the other cylinder or cylinders.

The term "compound" is commonly restricted, however, to engines in which the expansion takes place in two stages only—high and low pressure. In triple-expansion and quadruple-expansion engines being used with steam, the expansion takes place respectively in three and four stages. The number of cylinders may be greater than the number of stages of expansion for various reasons; thus in the compound or two-stage expansion engine, the high-pressure stage may be effected in two cylinders so as to give a pair of cylinders of nearly equal sizes of cylinders and of three cranks. In triple-expansion engines there are frequently two cylinders of high pressure, one of them being placed tandem with the high-pressure cylinder, and the intermediate cylinder, as in mill engines with four cylinders. In triple-expansion engines of the steamers *Campania*, the

Werner, $\sqrt[4]{r}$; and Rankine, $\sqrt[4]{r^2}$, r being the ratio of expansion. Buder makes the ratio dependent on the boiler-pressure thus:

Lbs. per sq. in.	60	90	105	130
$\sqrt[4]{r} + c$	= 3	4	4.5	5

(See *Seaton's Manual*, p. 95, etc., for analytical method; *Sennet*, p. 46, etc.; *Clark's Steam-engine*, p. 443, etc.; *Clark, Rules, Tables, Data*, p. 369, etc.)

Mr. J. McFarlane Gray states that he finds the mean effective pressure in the compound engine reduced to the low-pressure cylinder to be approximately the square root of 8 times the boiler-pressure.

Approximate Horse-power of a Modern Compound Marine-engine. (*Seaton*.)—The following rule will give approximately the horse-power developed by a compound engine made in accordance with

modern marine practice. Estimated H.P. = $\frac{D^2 \times \sqrt[4]{p} \times R \times S}{8500}$.

D = diameter of l.p. cylinder; p = boiler-pressure by gauge;
 R = revs. per min.; S = stroke of piston in feet.

Ratio of Cylinder Capacity in Compound Marine Engines. (*Seaton*.)—The low-pressure cylinder is the measure of the power of a compound engine, for so long as the initial steam-pressure and rate of expansion are the same, it signifies very little, so far as total power only is concerned, whether the ratio between the low and high-pressure cylinders is 3 or 4; but as the power developed should be nearly equally divided between the two cylinders, in order to get a good and steady working engine, there is a necessity for exercising a considerable amount of discretion in fixing on the ratio.

In choosing a particular ratio the objects are to divide the power evenly and to avoid as much as possible "drop" and high initial strain.

If increased economy is to be obtained by increased boiler pressures, the rate of expansion should vary with the initial pressure, so that the pressure at which the steam enters the condenser should remain constant. In this case, with the ratio of cylinders constant, the cut-off in the high-pressure cylinder will vary inversely as the initial pressure.

Let R be the ratio of the cylinders; r , the rate of expansion; p_1 the initial pressure; then cut-off in high-pressure cylinder = $R \div r$; r varies with p_1 , so that the terminal pressure p_n is constant, and consequently $r = p_1 \div p_n$, therefore, cut-off in high-pressure cylinder = $R \times p_n \div p_1$.

Ratios of Cylinders as Found in Marine Practice.—The rate of expansion may be taken at one-tenth of the boiler-pressure (or about one-twelfth the absolute pressure), to work economically at full speed. Therefore, when the diameter of the low-pressure cylinder does not exceed 100 inches, and the boiler-pressure 70 lbs., the ratio of the low-pressure to the high-pressure cylinder should be 3.5; for a boiler-pressure of 80 lbs., 4.0; for 90 lbs., 4.0; for 100 lbs., 4.5. If these proportions are adhered to, there will be no need of an expansion-valve to either cylinder. If, however, to avoid "drop," the ratio be reduced, an expansion-valve should be fitted to the high-pressure cylinder.

Where economy of steam is not of first importance, but rather a large power, the ratio of cylinder capacities may with advantage be decreased, so that with a boiler-pressure of 100 lbs. it may be 3.75 to 4.

In tandem engines there is no necessity to divide the work equally. The ratio is generally 4, but when the steam-pressure exceeds 90 lbs. absolute it is better, and for 100 lbs. 5.0.

When the power requires that the l. p. cylinder shall be more than 100 in. diameter, it should be divided in two cylinders. In this case the ratio of the combined capacity of the two l. p. cylinders to that of the h. p. may be 3.0 for 80 lbs. absolute, 3.4 for 90 lbs., 3.7 for 105 lbs., and 4.0 for 115 lbs.

Receiver Space in Compound Engines should be from 1 to 1.5 times the capacity of the high-pressure cylinder, when the cranks are at all angles of from 90° to 130°. When the cranks are at 180° or nearly that the space may be very much reduced. In the case of triple-compound engines, with cranks at 75°, and the intermediate cylinder leading the high-pressure, a very small receiver will do. The pressure in the receiver should never exceed half the boiler-pressure. (*Seaton*.)

erbolic curve of expansion in the first cylinder, and gh the con-
sion-line of back pressure
stroke of the first piston,
e pressure for the steam-
cond piston. At the point
f the stroke of the second
am is exhausted into the
the pressure falls to the
vacuum, mi .

of the second cylinder,
racterized by the absence
period of admission; the
eam-line gh being expan-
y of steam contained in
er into the second. When
roke is completed, the
steam transferred from
at into the second cylin-
pressure and volume of
e second cylinder are the
whole of the initial steam
had been admitted at once into
r, and then expanded to the end of the stroke in the manner
nder engine.

of the steam is also the same, according to both distributions,
engine, without Clearance - Ideal Diagrams. -
ceiver-engine the pistons of the two cylinders are con-
ks at right angles to each other on the same shaft. The
the steam exhausted from the first cylinder and supplies it to
which the steam is cut off and then expanded to the end of
the assumption that the initial pressure in the second cylin-
the final pressure in the first, and of course equal to the pres-
ceiver, the volume cut off in the second cylinder must be
lume of the first cylinder, for the second cylinder must admit
at each stroke as is discharged from the first cylinder.

fg is the line of admission and hg the exhaust-line for the first

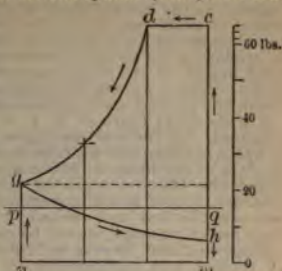
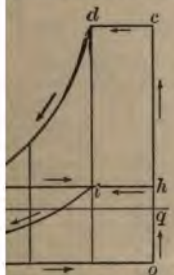


FIG. 142.—WOOLF ENGINE—IDEAL INDICATOR-DIAGRAMS.



RECEIVER-ENGINE, IDEAL INDICATOR-DIAGRAMS.

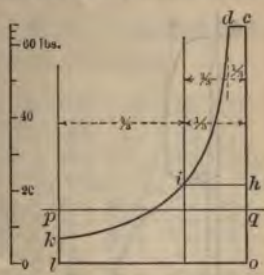


FIG. 144.—RECEIVER ENGINE, IDEAL DIAGRAMS REDUCED AND COMBINED.

fg is the expansion-curve and pg the atmospheric line. In
ow the exhaust-line of the first cylinder, between it and the
vacuum, ol , the diagram of the second cylinder is formed; hi ,
of admission, coincides with the exhaust-line hg of the first
 ng in the ideal diagram no intermediate fall of pressure, and
sion-curve. The arrows indicate the order in which
ed.

of the receiver-engine, the expansive working of
divided into two consecutive stages, is, as in
y continuous from the point of cut-off in the
stroke of the second cylinder, where it is del
e first and second diagrams may be placed

combined to form a continuous diagram. For this purpose take the diagram as the basis of the combined diagram, namely, *hiklo*, Fig. 143. The period of admission, *hi*, is one third of the stroke, and as the ratio of cylinders are as 1 to 3, *hi* is also the proportional length of the first cylinder as applied to the second. Produce *oh* upwards, and set off *oc* equal to the total height of the first diagram above the vacuum-line; and, in the second cylinder, shorten the base *hi*, and the height *hc*, complete the first diagram by the steam-line *cd*, and the expansion-line *di*.

It is shown by Clark (S. E., p. 432, *et seq.*) in a series of arithmetical calculations, that the receiver-engine is an elastic system of compound in which considerable latitude is afforded for adapting the pressure in the receiver to the demands of the second cylinder, without considerably diminishing the effective work of the engine. In the Woolf engine, on the contrary, it is of much importance that the intermediate volume of steam between the first and second cylinders, which is the cause of an undue fall of pressure, should be reduced to the lowest practicable amount.

Supposing that there is no loss of steam in passing through the receiver, by cooling and condensation, it is obvious that whatever steam passes through the first cylinder must also find its way through the second. By varying, therefore, in the receiver-engine, the period of admission in the second cylinder, and thus also the volume of steam admitted to the second cylinder, the steam will be measured into it at a higher pressure and of a smaller bulk, or at a lower pressure and of a greater bulk; the pressure and volume naturally adjusting themselves to the volume that the steam from the first cylinder is permitted to occupy in the second cylinder. With a sufficiently restricted admission, the pressure in the receiver may be maintained equal to the pressure of the steam as exhausted from the first cylinder. On the contrary, with a wider admission, the pressure in the receiver may be "dropped" to three fourths or even one half of the pressure of the steam from the first cylinder.

(For a more complete discussion of the action of steam in the Woolf receiver engines, see Clark on the Steam-engine.)

Combined Diagrams of Compound Engines.—The object of making a correct combined diagram from the indicator-diagrams of several cylinders in a compound engine is to set off all the diagrams on the same horizontal scale of volumes, adding the clearances to the cylinders

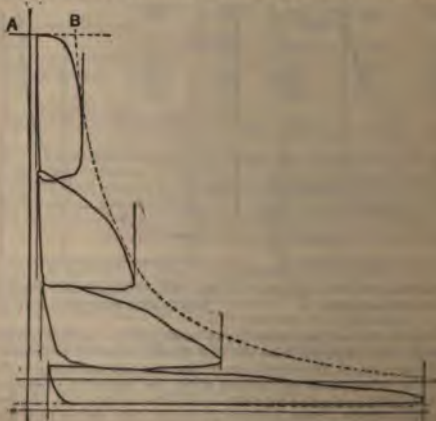


FIG. 143.

...ities proper. When this is attended to, the successive diagrams may be set off into their right places relatively to one another, and used as a basis for comparison with any theoretical expansion-curve. (Prof. A. B. W. Clark, S. E., Oct. 1886.)

of combining diagrams is commonly adopted, but there are inaccuracies, since the whole quantity of steam consumed is due at the end of the stroke is not carried forward to the start of it in the first cylinder for compression. For combining diagrams in which compression is taken account of, as by Thomas Maudslott and others, in Proc. Inst. M. E. Feb., a usual method of combining diagrams is also criticized by J. E. in *Locomotive and Machinery* (Am. Mach., April 22, 1894; J. E., xv, 146, and p. 438).

Shows a combined diagram of a quadruple-expansion engine, according to the usual method, that is, the diagrams are first reduced to relative scales that correspond with the relative piston-displacements in the cylinders. Then the diagrams are placed at such distances from the line of the proposed combined diagram as to correctly clearance in each cylinder.

Expansions and Pressures in Two-cylinder Engines. (James Tribe, Am. Mach., Sept. 2 Oct. 1894.)

TWO-CYLINDER COMPOUND NON-CONDENSING.

re 14 lb. above atmosphere.

Pressure	100	110	120	130	140	150	160	170	175
Temperature	115	125	135	145	155	165	175	185	190
Volume	7.39	7.84	8.41	9	9.61	10.24	10.99	11.76	11.9
Force	2.7	2.8	2.9	3	3.19	3.2	3.3	3.4	3.45
Work	1.923	2.029	2.064	2.078	2.110	2.142	2.180	2.221	2.228
Gas	84.8	90.5	96	101.4	106.5	111.5	116.3	120.9	125.2
Water	31.3	31.3	33.1	33.7	34.3	34.8	35.2	35.6	35.7
Weight	42.5	44.6	46.5	48.3	50	51.5	53	54.4	55
Volume	15.5	15.5	15.5	15.5	15.5	15.5	15.5	15.5	15.5
Gas	42.3	45.9	49.5	53.1	56.5	60	63.3	66.5	68.2
Water	15.8	16.8	17.6	18.2	18.8	19.3	19.7	20.1	20.2
Energy	2.67	2.73	2.81	2.91	3	3.11	3.21	3.31	3.37

TWO-CYLINDER COMPOUND CONDENSING.

re, 6.5 lbs. above vacuum.

Pressures	90	100	110	120	130	140	150
Pressures	105	115	125	135	145	155	163
Percent of loss	2.6	2.9	3.3	3.6	3.8	4.0	4.5
Volume	15.7	17	18.5	20	21.5	22.7	24.2
Cylinder	3.96	4.13	4.3	4.47	4.64	4.77	4.92
Work	2.376	2.418	2.458	2.497	2.534	2.562	2.593
High	62.9	67.3	71.4	75.4	79.3	83.2	87
Low	15.25	15.55	15.9	16.2	16.5	16.75	17.05
High	26.5	27.8	29	30.2	31.4	32.4	33.5
Low	4.3	4.3	4.3	4.3	4.3	4.3	4.3
Gas	30.4	30.5	32.4	35.2	37.9	40.5	43.5
Water	10.95	11.25	11.6	11.9	12.2	12.45	12.75
Gas	36.5	37.8	39.0	39.2	31.4	32.4	33.5
Water	6.4	6.45	6.45	6.5	6.55	6.55	6.6
in l. p. cyl.	25.3	26.6	27.8	29	30.2	31.4	32.4
Energy	3.32	3.51	3.66	3.8	3.92	4.08	4.19

The percentage of loss, line 8, is thus explained: There is always a loss due to condensation, and which increases with the pressure of the steam. The exact percentage cannot be predetermined, as it depends on the quality of the non-conducting covering used on the cylinder pipes, etc., but will probably be about as shown.

of Cylinders in Compound Engines.—Author gives the proportions by volume of the high and low pressure cylinders.

Thus Grashof gives $V + v = 0.85 \sqrt{r}$; Hirabak, 0.99 \sqrt{r} .

Werner, \sqrt{r} ; and Rankine, $\sqrt[3]{r^2}$, r being the ratio of expansion makes the ratio dependent on the boiler-pressure thus:

Lbs. per sq. in.	60	90	105
\sqrt{r}	3	4	4.3

(See *Seaton's Manual*, p. 95, etc., for analytical method; *Seaton*, etc.; *Clark's Steam-engine*, p. 445, etc.; *Clark, Rules, Tables, Data*.)

Mr. J. McFarlane Gray states that he finds the mean effective pressure of the compound engine reduced to the low-pressure cylinder to be nearly the square root of 6 times the boiler-pressure.

Approximate Horse-power of a Modern Compound Marine-engine. (*Seaton*.)—The following rule will give approximately the horse-power developed by a compound engine made in accordance

modern marine practice. Estimated H.P. = $\frac{D^2 \times \sqrt{p} \times R \times S}{8500}$

D = diameter of l.p. cylinder; p = boiler-pressure by gauge;
 R = revs. per min.; S = stroke of piston in feet.

Ratio of Cylinder Capacity in Compound Marine Engines. (*Seaton*.)—The low-pressure cylinder is the measure of the capacity of a compound engine, for so long as the initial steam-pressure and expansion are the same. It signifies very little, so far as total power concerned, whether the ratio between the low and high-pressure cylinders is 3 or 4; but as the power developed should be nearly equally divided between the two cylinders, in order to get a good and steady work there is a necessity for exercising a considerable amount of discretion in fixing on the ratio.

In choosing a particular ratio the objects are to divide the power and to avoid as much as possible "drop," and high initial strain.

If increased economy is to be obtained by increased boiler pressure, the rate of expansion should vary with the initial pressure, so that the cut-off in the steam enters the condenser should remain constant. If, with the ratio of cylinders constant, the cut-off in the high-pressure cylinder will vary inversely as the initial pressure.

Let R be the ratio of the cylinders; r , the rate of expansion; p_1 , boiler-pressure; then cut-off in high-pressure cylinder = $R + r$; r varies so that the terminal pressure p_n is constant, and consequently $r = \frac{p_1}{R}$; therefore, cut-off in high-pressure cylinder = $R + \frac{p_1}{R}$.

Ratio of Cylinders as Found in Marine Practice. The rate of expansion may be taken at one-tenth of the boiler-pressure (one-twelfth the absolute pressure), to work economically at full speed. Therefore, when the diameter of the low-pressure cylinder does not exceed 100 inches, and the boiler-pressure 70 lbs., the ratio of the low- to the high-pressure cylinder should be 3.5; for a boiler-pressure of 80 lbs., 4.0; for 100 lbs., 4.5. If these proportions are adhered to, there will be no need of an expansion-valve to either cylinder. If, to avoid "drop," the ratio be reduced, an expansion-valve should be fitted to the high-pressure cylinder.

Where economy of steam is not of first importance, but rather power, the ratio of cylinder capacities may with advantage be made so that with a boiler-pressure of 100 lbs. it may be 3.75 to 4.

In tandem engines there is no necessity to divide the work equally. The ratio is generally 4, but when the steam-pressure exceeds 90 lbs. it is better, and for 100 lbs. 5.0.

When the power requires that the l. p. cylinder shall be more than 100 inches diameter, it should be divided into two cylinders. In this case the combined capacity of the two l. p. cylinders to that of the h. p. cylinder for 85 lbs. absolute, 3.4 for 95 lbs., 3.7 for 105 lbs., and 4.0 for 115 lbs.

Receiver Space in Compound Engines should be 1.5 times the capacity of the high-pressure cylinder, when the crank angle is from 90° to 120°. When the cranks are at 180° or 0° the space may be very much reduced. In the case of triple-expansion engines, with cranks at 120° and the intermediate cylinder leading pressure, a very small receiver will do. The pressure in the receiver should never exceed half the boiler-pressure. (*Seaton*.)

of Calculating the Expansion and the Work of Steam in Compound Engines.

(Condensed from Clark on the "Steam-engine.")

the first cylinder in square inches;
 the second cylinder in square inches;
 the capacity of the second cylinder to that of the first;
 stroke in feet, supposed to be the same for both cylinders;
 admission to the first cylinder in feet, excluding clearance;
 at each end of the cylinders, in parts of the stroke, in feet;
 the stroke plus the clearance, in feet;
 admission plus the clearance, in feet;
 a given part of the stroke of the second cylinder, in feet;
 initial pressure in the first cylinder, in lbs. per square inch, sup-
 posed to be uniform during admission;
 pressure at the end of the given part of the stroke s ;
 total pressure for the whole stroke;
 ratio of expansion in the first cylinder, or $L + i$;
 ratio of expansion in the first cylinder, or $L' + F$;
 combined ratio of expansion, in the first and second cylinders;
 per;

the final pressure in the first cylinder to any intermediate
 pressure between the first and second cylinders;
 the volume of the intermediate space in the Woolf engine,
 added up to, and including the clearance of, the second piston,
 capacity of the first cylinder plus its clearance. The value
 is correctly expressed by the actual ratio of the volumes as
 1, on the assumption that the intermediate space is a vacuum
 it receives the exhaust-steam from the first cylinder. In point
 of fact, there is a residuum of un-exhausted steam in the interme-
 diate space, at low pressure, and the value of N is thereby prac-
 tically reduced below the ratio here stated. $N = \frac{n}{n-1} - 1$.

total work in one stroke, in foot-pounds.

expansion in the second cylinder:

$$\text{In the Woolf engine, } \frac{\left(r \frac{L}{L'}\right) + N}{1 + N};$$

$$\text{In the receiver-engine, } \frac{(n-1)r}{n}.$$

ratio of expansion = product of the ratios of the three con-
 densations, in the first cylinder, in the intermediate space, and
 in the second cylinder,

$$\text{In the Woolf engine, } R' \left(r \frac{L}{L'} + N\right);$$

$$\text{In the receiver-engine, } r \frac{L'}{V}, \text{ or } rR'.$$

$$\text{ratio of expansion behind the pistons} = \frac{n-1}{n} rR' = R''.$$

total work in the two cylinders for one stroke, with a given cut-off and a
 given actual ratio of expansion:

$$\text{Woolf engine, } w = aP \left[V'(1 + \text{hyp log } R'') - r \right];$$

$$\text{Receiver-engine, } w = aF \left[V'(1 + \text{hyp log } R'') - c \left(1 + \frac{r-1}{R'}\right) \right],$$

no intermediate fall of pressure.

with an intermediate fall, when the pressure falls to $\frac{3}{4}$, $\frac{2}{3}$, $\frac{1}{2}$ of
 the initial pressure in the 1st cylinder, the reduction of work is 0.2%, 1.0%, 3.0%
 and so on.

mon Rule for Proportioning the Cylinders of multiple engines is: for two-cylinder compound engines, the cylinder square root of the number of expansions, and for triple-expansion ratios of the high to the intermediate and of the intermediate are each equal to the cube root of the number of expansions, the high to the low being the product of the two ratios, that is, the cube root of the number of expansions. Applying this rule to the cases above given, assuming a terminal pressure (absolute) of 10 lbs. respectively, we have, for triple-expansion engines:

Terminal Pressure, 10 lbs.		Terminal Pressure, 8 lbs.	
No. of Expansions.	Cylinder Ratios, areas.	No. of Expansions.	Cylinder Ratios, areas.
13	1 to 2.35 to 5.53	16 $\frac{1}{4}$	1 to 2.53 to 6.42
14	1 to 2.41 to 5.81	17 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 to 2.60 to 6.74
15	1 to 2.47 to 6.08	18 $\frac{3}{4}$	1 to 2.66 to 7.06
16	1 to 2.52 to 6.35	20	1 to 2.71 to 7.37

of the diameters is the square root of the ratios of the areas, and the diameters of the first and third cylinders is the same as the areas of first and second.

In his *Marine Engineering*, says: When the pressure of steam exceeds 115 lbs. absolute, it is advisable to employ three cylinders, each of which the steam expands in turn. The ratio of the low-pressure cylinder in this system should be 5, when the pressure is 125 lbs. absolute; when 135 lbs. absolute, 5.4; when 145 lbs. absolute, 5.8; when 155 lbs. absolute, 6.2; when 165 lbs. absolute, 6.6. The ratio of the intermediate cylinder should be about one half the ratio of the high-pressure and high-pressure, as given above. That is, if the ratio of l. p. to h. p. is 6, that of l. p. to int. should be about 3, and consequently the ratio of int. to h. p. about 2. In practice the ratio of int. to h. p. is 1.5, so that the diameter of the int. cylinder is 1.5 that of the h. p. cylinder. The adoption of the triple-compound engine has admitted of ships being run at higher rates of speed than formerly obtained without exceeding the consumption of fuel of similar ships fitted with ordinary compound engines. In such cases the higher power to obtain the speed has been developed by increasing the rate of expansion, the low-pressure cylinder being made as large as the capacity of the high-pressure, with a working pressure of 10 lbs. absolute. It is now a very general practice to make the diameter of the low-pressure cylinder equal to the sum of the diameters of the h. p. and intermediate cylinders; hence,

diameter of int. cylinder = 1.5 diameter of h. p. cylinder;
diameter of l. p. cylinder = 2.5 diameter of h. p. cylinder.

When the ratio of l. p. to h. p. is 6.25; the ratio of int. to h. p. is 2.25; the ratio of l. p. to int. is 2.78.

Proportioning of Cylinders for Different Classes of Engines.

Eng. Mag., Feb. 1887, p. 36.—As to the best ratios for the cylinders of a triple-expansion engine there seems to be great difference of opinion. Considerable difference, however, is due to the requirements of the case, inasmuch as it is not to be expected that the same ratio would be suitable for an ocean-going engine, where the space occupied and the weight were of great importance, as in a war-ship, where the conditions were reversed. In the case of a war-ship, for example, a theoretical terminal pressure of about 7 lbs. absolute vacuum would probably be aimed at, which would give a ratio of capacity of high pressure to low pressure of 1 to 8 $\frac{1}{4}$ or 1 to 10. In a war-ship a terminal pressure would be required of 12 to 13 lbs. absolute, and would need a ratio of capacity of 1 to 5; yet in both these instances the cylinders are correctly proportioned and suitable to the requirements of the case. It is obviously unwise, therefore, to introduce any hard-and-

of Three-stage Expansion Engines.—1. Three cranks in tandem. 2. Two cranks with 1st and 2d cylinders tandem. 3. Two cranks with 1st and 3d cylinders tandem. The most common type is the first, in which the cylinders are arranged in the sequence high, intermediate, low.

Sequence of Cranks.—Mr. Wyllie (Proc. Inst. M. E., 1887) in sequence high, low, intermediate, while Mr. Mudd favors high, intermediate, low. The former sequence, high, low, intermediate, gave an approx horizontal exhaust-line, and thus minimizes the range of temper the initial load; the latter sequence, high, intermediate, low, intermediate, range and also the load.

Mr. Morrison, in discussing the question of sequence of cranks, p a diagram showing that with the cranks arranged in the sequence low, intermediate, the mean compression into the receiver was 3% of the stroke; with the sequence high, intermediate, low, it was 5%.

In the former case the compression was just what was required the receiver-pressure practically uniform; in the latter case the compression caused a variation in the receiver-pressure to the extent some 22½ lbs.

Velocity of Steam through Passages in Com Engines. (Proc. Inst. M. E., Feb. 1887.)—In the SS. *Para*, taking of the cylinder multiplied by the piston-speed in feet per sec, dividing by the area of the port the velocity of the initial steam the high-pressure cylinder port would be about 100 feet per second; exhaust would be about 90. In the intermediate cylinder the initial had a velocity of about 180, and the exhaust of 130. In the low-cylinder the initial steam entered through the port with a velocity, and in the exhaust-port the velocity was about 140 feet per second.

QUADRUPLE-EXPANSION ENGINES.

H. H. Supplee (Trans. A. S. M. E., x. 583) states that a study of 14 quadruple-expansion engines, nearly all intended to be operated at a pressure of 180 lbs. per sq. in., gave average cylinder ratios of 1 to 2, 3, 7.70, or nearly in the proportions 1, 2, 4, 8.

If we take the ratio of areas of any two adjoining cylinders as the root of the number of expansions, the ratio of the 1st to the 4th will be the fourth root. On this basis the ratios of areas for different pressures and rates of expansion will be as follows:

Gauge-pressures.	Absolute Pressures.	Terminal Pressures.	Ratio of Expansion.	Ratio of of Cyls
100	175	12	14.6	1 : 1.95 : 2.1
		10	17.5	1 : 2.05 : 2.2
		8	21.9	1 : 2.34 : 2.5
		12	16.2	1 : 2.07 : 2.2
180	195	10	19.5	1 : 2.19 : 2.3
		8	24.4	1 : 2.33 : 2.5
		12	17.9	1 : 2.06 : 2.2
		10	21.5	1 : 2.15 : 2.3
300	215	8	26.9	1 : 2.38 : 2.5
		12	19.6	1 : 2.16 : 2.3
		10	23.5	1 : 2.26 : 2.4
		8	29.4	1 : 2.53 : 2.7

Seaton says: When the pressure of steam employed exceeds 180 lbs. lute, four cylinders should be employed, with the steam expanding each successively; and the ratio of l. p. to h. p. should be at least if economy of fuel is of prime consideration it should be 8; then 6 of first intermediate to h. p. should be 1.8, that of second intermediate first int. 2, and that of l. p. to second int. 2.2.

In a paper read before the North East Coast Institution of Engine Shipbuilders, 1890, William Russell Cummins advocates the use of cylinder engine with four cranks as being more suitable for high than the three-cylinder three-crank engine. The cylinder ratios he should be designed so as to obtain equal initial loads in each cylinder ratios determined for the triple engine are 1, 2.04, 6.54, and for the ple 1, 2.08, 4.46, 10.47. He advocates long stroke, high piston velocities per minute, and 250 lbs. boiler-pressure, unjacketed cylinders, steam and exhaust valves.

Dimensions of Cylinders of Recent Triple-expansion Engines, Chiefly Marine.

Compiled from several sources, 1890-1893.

Notes: *H* = high pressure, *I* = intermediate, *L* = low pressure.

<i>L</i>	<i>H</i>	<i>I</i>	<i>L</i>	<i>H</i>	<i>I</i>	<i>L</i>	<i>H</i>	<i>I</i>	<i>L</i>
8	16	25.6	41		36	40	36	58	94
13	16½	23¾	38.5	22	36	40	38	61.5	100
12			31	23	38	61	28		
16.5	16.5	24.5	31	23.5	38	60	28		86
12.5	17	27	44	24	37	56	39	61	97
18.9	17	26.5	42	25	40	64	40	59	88
19	17	28	45	26	42	69	40	67	106
16	18	27	40	26	42.5	70	40	66	100
22.5	18	29	48	28	44	72	41	66	101
25.6	18	30.5	51	29¾	44	70	41½	67	106½
25	18.7	29.5	43.3	29.5	48	78	42	59	92
24	18¾	23.6	35.4	30	48	77	47	69	92
25	19.7	29.6	47.3	32	46	70	43	68	110
30	20	30	45	32	51	82	43½	67	106½
28.5	20	32.5	36	33	54	82	45	71	113
30.5			39	33	58	88	32.5	68	85.7
30.7	20	33	52	33.9	55.1	84.6	32.5		85.7
33.5	21	32	48	34	54	85		75	81.5
36	21	36	51	34	50	90	47		81.5
39	21.7	33.5	49.2	34.5	51	85	37	79	98
39	21.9	34	57	34.5	57	92	37		98
38	22	34	51						

Figures are bracketed there are two cylinders of a kind. Two 17", two 31" = one 43.8", two 32.5" = one 46.0", two 36" = one = one 52.3", two 40" = one 56.8", two 81.5" = one 115", two 11", two 98" = one 140". The average ratio of diameters of all the engines in the above table is nearly 1 to 1.60 to 2.56 and means nearly 1 to 2.56 to 6.55.

Progress in Steam-engines between 1876 and 1893 is shown by comparison of the Corliss engine at the Centennial Exhibition and the Allis-Corliss quadruple-expansion engine at the Chicago

	1893. { Quadruple- expansion. }	1876. Simple
Number.....	4	2
Diameter.....	24, 40, 60, 70 in.	40 in.
Stroke.....	72 in.	120 in.
Weight.....	30 ft.	30 ft.
Length of face.....	76 in.	24 in.
Weight per minute.....	136,000 lbs.	125,440 lbs.
Cost per minute.....	60	36
Indicated horsepower.....	2000 H.P.	1400 H.P.
Efficiency.....	3000 H.P.	2500 H.P.
Weight of shaft.....	650,000 lbs.	1,360,000 lbs.

The shaft body or wheel-seat of the Allis engine has a diameter of 19 inches, and crank bearings 18 inches, with a total length 24 inches. The crank-disks are of cast iron and are 8 feet in diameter plus are 9 inches in diameter by 9 inches long.

Tandem Triple-expansion Engine, built by Watts, Newark, N. J., is described in *Am. Mach.*, April 26, 1894. It consists of two 3-cylinder tandem engines coupled to one shaft, cranks at 90° and 48 by 60 in. stroke, 65 revolutions per minute, rated H.P. 2,885 feet diameter, 12 ft. face, weight 174,000 lbs.; main shaft at the swell; main journals 19 x 38 in.; crank-pins 9½ x 10 between centre lines of two engines 24 ft. 1½ in.; Corliss valve eccentrics for the exhaust-valves of the l.p. cylinder

ECONOMIC PERFORMANCE OF STEAM-ENGINES.
conomy of Expansive Working under Various Condi-
tions, Single Cylinder.

(Abridged from Clark on the Steam Engine.)

SINGLE CYLINDERS WITH SUPERHEATED STEAM, NONCONDENSING.—In-cylinder locomotive, cylinders and steam-pipes enveloped by the hot gases in the smoke-box. Net boiler pressure 100 lbs.; net maximum pressure in cylinders 80 lbs. per sq. in.

cut-off, per cent.	20	25	30	35	40	50	60	70	80
actual ratio of expansion	3.91	3.31	2.87	2.53	2.26	1.86	1.59	1.39	1.23
water per I.H.P. per hour,									
lbs.	18.5	19.4	20	21.2	22.2	24.5	27	30	33

SINGLE CYLINDERS WITH SUPERHEATED STEAM, CONDENSING.—The best results obtained by Hirn, with a cylinder $23\frac{3}{4} \times 67$ in. and steam superheated 150° F., expansion ratio $3\frac{3}{4}$ to $4\frac{1}{2}$, total maximum pressure in cylinders to 69 lbs. were 15.63 and 15.69 lbs. of water per I.H.P. per hour.

SINGLE CYLINDERS OF SMALL SIZE, 8 OR 9 IN. DIAM., JACKETED, NON-CONDENSING.—The best results are obtained at a cut-off of 20 per cent, with the maximum pressure in the cylinder; about 25 lbs. of water per I.H.P. per hour.

SINGLE CYLINDERS, NOT STEAM-JACKETED, CONDENSING.—Best results.

Engine.	Cylinder, Diam. and Stroke.	Cut-off.	Actual Expansion Ratio.	Total Maximum Pressure in Cylinder per sq. in.	Water as Steam per I.H.P. per hour.
	ins.	per cent.	ratio.	lbs.	lbs.
Hess and Wheelock...	18 x 48	12.5	6.95	104.4	19.58
... No. 6	$23\frac{3}{4} \times 67$	16.3	5.84	61.5	19.93
... M.	52 x 66	24.6	3.84	54.5	26.46
... he	25 x 24	15.5	5.32	87.7	26.25
... ter	26 x 36	18.3	4.46	80.4	23.86
... as	36 x 30	13.3	5.07	46.9	26.69
... latin	30.1×30	15.0	4.94	81.7	21.89

SAME ENGINES, AVERAGE RESULTS.

Long Stroke.	Inches.	Cut-off, Per cent.	Lbs.	Lbs.
Hess and Wheelock...	18 x 48	12.5	104.4	19.58
... ..	$23\frac{3}{4} \times 67$	16.3	61.5	19.93
Short Stroke.				
... he	25 x 24	15.5	87.7	26.25
... ter, Nos. 20, 21, 22, 23	26 x 36	{ 18.3 to 33.3 } average 25	{ 79.0 } { 24.05 }	
... las, Nos. 27, 28, 29	36 x 30	{ 13.3 to 26.4 } average 19.8	{ 46.8 } { 26.86 }	
... latin, Nos. 24, 25, 23, 26	30.1×30	{ 12.3 to 15.5 } average 15.8	{ 78.2 } { 23.50 }	

Feed-water Consumption of Different Types of Engines.

The following tables are taken from the circular of the *Tabor Indicator* (Corlett Mfg. Co., 1889). In the first of the two columns under Feed-water consumed, in the tables for simple engines, the figures are obtained by computation from nearly perfect indicator diagrams, with allowance for cylinder condensation according to the table on page 752, but without allowance for leakage, with back-pressure in the non-condensing table taken at 16 lbs. above zero, and in the condensing table at 3 lbs. above zero. The correction curve is supposed to be hyperbolic, and commences at 0.91 of the stroke, with a clearance of 3% of the piston-displacement. No. 2 gives the feed-water consumption for jacketed compound

densing engines of the best class. The water condensed in 1 included in the quantities given. The ratio of areas of the two as 1 to 4 for 120 lbs. pressure; the clearance of each cylinder 1 cut-off in the two cylinders occurs at the same point of stroke; pressure in the l. p. cylinder is 1 lb. per sq. in. below the back of h. p. cylinder. The average back pressure of the whole stroke cylinder is 4.5 lbs. for 10% cut-off; 4.75 lbs. for 20% cut-off; and cut-off. The steam accounted for by the indicator at cut-off cylinder (allowing a small amount for leakage) is .74 at 10% cut-off, .82 at 20% cut-off. The loss by condensation between the is such that the steam accounted for at cut-off in the l. p. cylinder is in proportion of that shown at release in the h. p. cylinder 10% cut-off, .87 at 20% cut-off, and .89 at 30% cut-off.

The data upon which table No. 3 is calculated are not given, but water consumption is somewhat lower than has yet been reached. The lowest steam consumption of a triple-exp. engine yet recorded is

TABLE No. 1.
FEED-WATER CONSUMPTION, SIMPLE ENGINES,
NON-CONDENSING ENGINES. CONDENSING ENGINES.

Per Cent Cut-off.	NON-CONDENSING ENGINES.				CONDENSING ENGINES.			
	Initial Pressure above Atmosphere, lbs.	Mean Effective Pressure, lbs.	Feed-water Required per I.H.P. per Hour.		Initial Pressure above Atmosphere, lbs.	Mean Effective Pressure, lbs.	Feed-water Required per I.H.P. per Hour.	
			Corresponding to Diagrams with no Leakage, lbs.	Corresponding to Actual Results Attained in Practice, assuming Slight Leakage.				Corresponding to Diagrams with no Leakage, lbs.
10	60	8.70	37.26	40.95	5	60	14.42	18.22
	70	12.39	30.99	33.68		70	16.96	17.36
	80	16.07	27.61	29.58		80	19.50	17.15
	90	19.76	25.43	27.43		90	22.04	17.37
	100	23.45	23.90	25.73		100	24.58	17.41
20	60	21.12	27.55	29.43	10	60	22.34	17.62
	70	26.57	25.44	27.04		70	25.03	17.47
	80	32.02	21.04	25.68		80	27.72	17.30
	90	37.47	23.00	24.57		90	33.41	17.15
	100	42.92	22.25	23.77		100	37.10	17.02
30	60	30.47	27.24	29.10	15	60	29.00	17.33
	70	37.21	25.76	27.43		70	33.08	17.23
	80	43.97	24.71	26.29		80	38.28	17.60
	90	50.73	23.91	25.38		90	42.22	17.43
	100	57.49	23.27	24.68		100	47.56	17.32
40	60	37.75	27.92	29.63	20	60	34.73	18.58
	70	45.50	26.66	25.18		70	40.18	18.49
	80	53.25	25.76	27.17		80	45.63	18.27
	90	61.01	25.03	26.35		90	51.08	18.14
	100	68.76	24.47	25.73		100	56.53	18.02
50	60	43.42	28.94	30.66	30	60	44.06	20.19
	70	51.94	27.79	29.31		70	50.81	20.04
	80	60.44	26.99	28.38		80	57.57	19.91
	90	68.96	26.32	27.62		90	64.32	19.78
	100	77.48	25.78	26.99		100	71.08	19.67
60	60	51.30	31.68	33.68	40	60	51.30	21.68
	70	59.10	30.43	32.43		70	59.10	21.43
	80	66.90	29.18	31.18		80	66.90	21.18
	90	74.70	28.17	30.17		90	74.70	20.91
	100	82.50	27.24	29.24		100	82.50	20.78

TABLE No. 2.

PERFORMANCES OF COMPOUND CONDENSING ENGINES.

Pressure above atmosphere.	Mean Effective Pressure.		Feed-water Required per I.H.P. per Hour, lbs.
	H.P. Cyl., lbs.	L.P. Cyl., lbs.	
4.0	11.67	2.65	15.92
7.3	15.33	3.57	15.00
11.0	18.54	5.23	13.86
4.3	26.73	5.48	14.60
8.1	33.13	7.56	13.67
12.1	39.29	9.74	13.09
4.6	37.61	7.48	14.09
8.5	46.41	10.10	14.21
11.7	56.00	12.26	13.87

TABLE No. 3.

PERFORMANCES OF TRIPLE-EXPANSION CONDENSING ENGINES.

Pressure above atmosphere.	Mean Effective Pressure.				Feed-water Required per I.H.P. per Hour, lbs.
	L.P. Cyl., lbs.	H.P. Cyl., lbs.	I. Cyl., lbs.	L.P. Cyl., lbs.	
7.8	1.3	38.5	17.1	6.5	12.05
14.3	2.8	46.5	18.6	7.1	11.4
19.3	3.8	55.0	20.0	8.0	10.75
28.8	2.8	51.5	22.8	8.6	11.65
45.8	3.9	59.5	23.7	9.1	11.4
51.3	5.3	70.0	25.5	10.0	10.85
39.8	3.7	60.5	20.7	10.1	12.2
46.8	4.8	70.5	28.0	10.8	11.6
52.8	6.3	82.5	39.0	11.8	11.15

Optimal Point of Cut-off in Steam-engines.

W. H. Denton, Trans. A. S. M. E., vol. ii. p. 147-281; also, W. H. Denton, *ibid.*, p. 128.)
 The best ratio of expansion is not one of economy of condensation and economy of cost of boiler alone. The question of economy of engine, depreciation of value of engine, repairs of engine, etc.; for as we increase the rate of expansion, and thus, its fixed by the back-pressure and condensation of steam, amount of fuel required and cost of boiler per unit of work, increase the dimensions of the cylinder and the size of the engine required power. We thus increase the cost of the engine, decrease the rate of expansion, while at the same time we decrease consumption, the cost of boiler, etc. So that there is in every engine a point of cut-off, determinable by calculation and graphically, which will secure the greatest efficiency for a given expenditure, taking into consideration the cost of fuel, wages of engineer, depreciation of value, repairs to and insurance on engine, and oil, waste, etc., used for engine. In case of freight engines the value of the room occupied by fuel should be considered in the cost of fuel.

Calculated Performances of Vertical High-Speed Engines.—The following tables are taken from a circular of the Lake Forks, Buffalo, N. Y. The engines are fair representatives of those now largely in use for driving dynamos directly where they were calculated by E. F. Williams, designer of the same, somewhat abridged to save space:

Simple Engines—Non-condensing.

Diam. of Cyl- inder, inches.	Stroke, inches.	Revs. per Min- ute.	H.P. when Cutting off at $\frac{1}{5}$ stroke.			H.P. when Cutting off at $\frac{1}{4}$ stroke.			H.P. when Cutting off at $\frac{1}{3}$ stroke.			Dimen- sions of Wheels.		Steam-pipe, in. diam. face	Exhaust-pipe.						
			70	80	90	70	80	90	70	80	90	ft.	in.								
			lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.										
7 $\frac{1}{2}$	10	370	20	25	30	26	31	36	32	37	43	4	4	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	1						
8 $\frac{1}{2}$	12	318	27	32	39	34	41	47	41	48	56	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	5	3 $\frac{3}{4}$	1 $\frac{1}{2}$						
10 $\frac{1}{2}$	14	277	41	49	60	52	62	71	63	74	85	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{3}{4}$	2						
12	16	246	53	64	77	67	81	93	82	96	111	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	9	4	2 $\frac{1}{2}$						
13 $\frac{1}{2}$	18	232	66	80	96	84	100	116	102	120	138	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	11	4	3						
16	30	181	95	115	138	120	144	166	146	172	198	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	15	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	3 $\frac{1}{2}$						
18	24	158	119	144	173	151	181	208	183	215	248	10	19	5	4						
22	28	138	179	216	261	227	272	313	276	324	373	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	28	6	5						
24 $\frac{1}{2}$	32	130	221	267	322	281	336	386	340	400	460	13 $\frac{1}{4}$	34	7	6						
27	34	112	269	325	392	342	409	470	414	487	560	14 $\frac{1}{2}$	41	8	7						
Mean eff. press. lb.			24	29	35	30.5	36.5	42	37	43.5	50										
Ratio of expans'n.			5			4			3			NOTE.—The nominal power rating of the engines is at 80 lbs. gauge pressure steam cut-off at $\frac{1}{4}$ stroke.									
Terminal pressure (about)..... lbs.			17.9	20	23.3	22.4	25	27.5	29.8	33.3	36.8										
Cyl. condensat'n. %			26	26	26	24	24	24	21	21	21										
Steam per I.H.P. per hour..... lbs.			32.9	30	27.4	31.2	29.0	27.9	32	31.4	30										

Compound Engines—Non-condensing—High-pressure Cylinder and Receiver Jacketed.

Diam. Cylinder, inches.			Stroke, inches.	Revolutions per Minute.	H.P. when cutting off at $\frac{1}{4}$ Stroke in h.p. Cylinder.				H.P. when cutting off at $\frac{1}{3}$ Stroke in h.p. Cylinder.				H.P. when cutting off at $\frac{1}{2}$ Stroke in h.p. Cylinder.				
H.P.	H.P.	L.P.			Cyl. Ratio, $\frac{3}{8}$: 1.		Cyl. Ratio, $\frac{4}{5}$: 1.		Cyl. Ratio, $\frac{3}{8}$: 1.		Cyl. Ratio, $\frac{4}{5}$: 1.		Cyl. Ratio, $\frac{3}{8}$: 1.		Cyl. Ratio, $\frac{4}{5}$: 1.		
					80 lbs.	90 lbs.	130 lbs.	150 lbs.	80 lbs.	90 lbs.	130 lbs.	150 lbs.	80 lbs.	90 lbs.	130 lbs.	150 lbs.	
53 $\frac{1}{2}$	63 $\frac{1}{2}$	12	10	370	7	15	19	32	23	31	35	46	44	55	64	73	
63 $\frac{1}{2}$	73 $\frac{1}{2}$	12	10	318	9	19	24	40	29	39	45	59	56	70	81	91	
73 $\frac{1}{2}$	83 $\frac{1}{2}$	14	10	277	14	28	36	60	43	58	67	87	83	104	121	139	
83 $\frac{1}{2}$	93 $\frac{1}{2}$	16	10	246	18	37	47	78	57	76	87	114	109	136	156	178	
10 $\frac{1}{2}$	12	18	10	232	26	53	68	112	81	109	125	164	156	195	226	258	
12	13 $\frac{1}{2}$	20	10	185	32	65	84	139	100	135	154	202	192	241	278	316	
13 $\frac{1}{2}$	15 $\frac{1}{2}$	24	10	158	43	88	112	186	135	181	206	271	258	323	374	427	
16	18 $\frac{1}{2}$	28	10	138	57	118	151	249	180	242	277	363	346	433	502	573	
18	20 $\frac{1}{2}$	32	10	120	74	152	194	321	232	312	357	468	446	558	647	737	
20	22 $\frac{1}{2}$	34	10	112	94	194	249	412	297	400	457	601	572	715	822	929	
24 $\frac{1}{2}$	28 $\frac{1}{2}$	52	10	93	138	285	365	603	436	587	670	880	838	1048	1211	1381	
28 $\frac{1}{2}$	33	80	10	80	180	374	477	789	570	767	877	1151	1096	1370	1589	1811	
Mean effec. press... lbs.				3.3	6.8	8.7		14.4	10.4		14.0	16	21	20	25	29	34
Ratio of expansion...				13 $\frac{1}{2}$		18 $\frac{1}{2}$		10 $\frac{1}{2}$		13 $\frac{1}{2}$		6 $\frac{1}{2}$		9 $\frac{1}{2}$		14 $\frac{1}{2}$	
Cyl. condensation, %				14	14	16	16	12	12	13	13	10	10	11	11	11	11
Ter. press. (about) lbs.				7.3	7.7	7.9	9	9	2	10.4	10.5	12	14	15.3	14	14	14
Loss from expanding below atmosphere, %				34	15	17	3	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
St. per I.H.P. p. hr. lbs.				55	42	47	29	33.3	27.7	28.7	25.4	30	26.2	21	21	21	21

The original table contains figures of horse-power, etc., for 110 and 120 lbs. cylinder ratio of 4 to 1; and 140 lbs., ratio $\frac{4}{5}$ to 1.

ind-engines—Condensing—Steam-jacketed.

CYLINDERS, INCHES.	Revolutions per Minute.	H.P. when cutting off at $\frac{1}{4}$ Stroke in h.p. Cylinder.				H.P. when cutting off at $\frac{1}{2}$ Stroke in h.p. Cylinder.				H.P. when cutting off at $\frac{3}{4}$ Stroke in h.p. Cylinder.			
		Cyl. Ratio, $3\frac{1}{2} : 1$.		Cyl. Ratio, $4 : 1$.		Cyl. Ratio, $3\frac{1}{2} : 1$.		Cyl. Ratio, $4 : 1$.		Cyl. Ratio, $3\frac{1}{2} : 1$.		Cyl. Ratio, $4 : 1$.	
		80 lbs.	110 lbs.	115 lbs.	125 lbs.	80 lbs.	110 lbs.	115 lbs.	125 lbs.	80 lbs.	110 lbs.	115 lbs.	125 lbs.
		80	110	115	125	80	110	115	125	80	110	115	125
0	370	44	59	53	62	55	70	68	75	70	97	95	106
2	318	56	76	67	78	70	90	87	95	90	123	120	134
4	277	83	112	100	116	104	133	129	141	133	183	179	200
6	246	109	147	131	152	136	174	169	185	174	239	234	261
8	222	156	210	187	218	195	250	242	265	250	343	325	374
10	185	192	260	231	269	241	308	298	327	308	423	414	462
14	158	358	348	310	361	323	413	400	439	412	568	555	619
18	138	346	467	415	484	433	554	536	588	554	761	744	830
22	120	446	602	535	624	558	714	691	758	714	981	959	1070
24	112	572	772	686	801	715	915	887	972	915	1258	1230	1373
28	93	838	1131	1006	1174	1048	1341	1299	1425	1341	1844	1801	2012
32	80	1006	1480	1316	1534	1370	1757	1699	1863	1757	2411	2356	2632
press...lbs.		20	27	24	28	25	32	31	34	32	44	43	48
ension...		13 $\frac{1}{4}$		16 $\frac{1}{4}$		10		13 $\frac{1}{4}$		6 $\frac{3}{4}$		8 $\frac{1}{4}$	
ion, %...		18	18	20	20	15	15	18	18	12	12	14	14
hr. lbs.		17.3	16.6	16.6	15.2	17.0	16.4	16.3	15.8	17.5	17.0	16.8	16.0

table contains figures for 95 lbs., cylinder ratio $3\frac{1}{2}$ to 1; and to 1.

ansion Engines, Non-condensing.—Receiver only Jacketed.

CYLINDERS, INCHES.	Stroke, inches.	Revolutions per Minute.	Horse-power when Cutting off at 42 per cent of Stroke in First Cylinder.		Horse-power when Cutting off at 50 per cent of Stroke in First Cylinder.		Horse-power when Cutting off at 67 per cent of Stroke in First Cylinder.	
			180 lbs.	200 lbs.	180 lbs.	200 lbs.	180 lbs.	200 lbs.
2	10	370	55	64	70	84	95	108
2 $\frac{1}{2}$	12	318	70	81	90	106	120	137
3	14	277	104	121	133	158	179	204
3 $\frac{1}{2}$	16	246	136	158	174	207	234	267
4	18	222	195	226	250	296	335	382
5	20	185	241	279	308	366	414	471
5 $\frac{1}{2}$	24	158	323	374	413	490	555	632
6	28	138	433	502	554	657	744	848
6 $\frac{1}{2}$	32	120	558	647	714	847	959	1093
7	34	112	715	829	915	1089	1230	1401
8	42	93	1048	1215	1341	1592	1801	2053
10	48	80	1370	1589	1754	2082	2356	2685
press, lbs.			25	29	32	38	43	49
ns.....			16		13		10	
dens....			14		12		10	
hr., lbs			20.76	19.36	19.25	17.00	17.89	
ap. lbs.			2.59	2.39	2.40	2.12	2.23	

Triple-expansion Engines—Condensing—St Jacketed.

Diameter Cylinders, inches.			Stroke, inches.	Revolutions per Minute.	Horse-power when Cut- ting off at $\frac{1}{4}$ Stroke in First Cylin- der.			Horse-power when Cut- ting off at $\frac{1}{2}$ Stroke in First Cylin- der.			Horse-power when Cut- ting off at $\frac{3}{4}$ Stroke in First Cylin- der.		
H.P.	I.P.	L.P.			120 lbs.	140 lbs.	160 lbs.	120 lbs.	140 lbs.	160 lbs.	120 lbs.	140 lbs.	160 lbs.
49 $\frac{1}{2}$	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	12	10	370	35	42	48	44	53	59	57	72	84
5 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	13 $\frac{1}{2}$	12	318	45	53	62	56	67	76	73	92	107
6 $\frac{1}{2}$	10 $\frac{1}{2}$	16 $\frac{1}{2}$	14	277	67	79	92	83	100	112	108	137	159
7 $\frac{1}{2}$	12	19	16	246	87	103	120	109	131	147	141	180	208
9	14 $\frac{1}{2}$	22 $\frac{1}{2}$	18	222	125	148	172	156	187	211	203	257	299
10	16	25	20	185	154	183	212	192	231	260	250	317	368
11 $\frac{1}{2}$	18	28 $\frac{1}{2}$	24	158	206	245	284	258	310	348	335	426	494
13	22	33 $\frac{1}{2}$	28	138	277	329	381	346	415	467	450	571	663
15	24 $\frac{1}{2}$	38	32	120	357	424	491	446	535	602	580	736	854
17	27	43	34	112	458	543	629	572	686	772	744	944	1095
20	33	52	42	93	670	796	922	838	1006	1131	1089	1382	1605
23 $\frac{1}{2}$	38	60	48	80	877	1041	1206	1096	1316	1480	1424	1808	2069
Mean effec. press., lbs.					16	19	22	20	24	27	26	33	38.3
No. of expansions....					26.8			20.1			13.4		
Percent cyl. condens.					19	19	19	16	16	16	12	12	12
St. p. I.H.P. p. hr., lbs.					14.7	13.9	13.3	14.3	13.98	13.2	14.3	13.6	13.0
Coal at 8 lb. evap., lbs.					1.8	1.73	1.66	1.78	1.74	1.65	1.78	1.70	1.62

Type of Engine to be used where Exhaust-steam is needed for Heating.—In many factories more or less of the exhaust-steam from the engines is utilized for boiling, drying, &c. Where all the exhaust-steam is so used the question of economizing steam in the engine itself is eliminated, and the high-pressure steam is entirely suitable. Where only part of the exhaust-steam is so used, the quantity so used varies at different times, the question of adopting a condensing, or a compound engine becomes more complex. This is treated by C. T. Main in *Trans. A. S. M. E.*, vol. x, p. 48. It is the ratios of the volumes of the cylinders in compound engines and according to the amount of exhaust-steam that can be used for the case is given in which three different pressures of steam are used could be used, as in a worsted dye-house: the high or boiler pressure engine, an intermediate pressure for crabbing, and low pressure for boiling, drying, etc. If it did not make too much complication of the engine, the boiler-pressure might be used in the high-pressure cylinder exhausting into a receiver from which steam could be taken for small engines and crabbing, the steam remaining in the receiver passing into the intermediate cylinder and expanded there to from 5 to 10 in the atmosphere and exhausted into a second receiver. From this is drawn the low-pressure steam needed for drying, boiling, warming, etc., the steam remaining in receiver passing into the condenser.

Comparison of the Economy of Compound and Single-cylinder Corliss Condensing Engines, each expanded about Sixteen Times, (D. S. Jacobus, *Trans. A. S. M. E.*)

The engines used in obtaining comparative results are located at I. and II. of the Pawtucket Water Co.

The tests show that the compound engine is about 3% more economical than the single-cylinder engine. The dimensions of the two engines follow: Single 20" x 48"; compound 15" and 30 $\frac{1}{2}$ " x 20". The mean effective power per hour was: single 20.35 lbs., compound 21.15 lbs. The engines are steam-jacketed, practically on the same principle as all boiler-pressure, viz. single 100.3 lbs., compound

am-pressure in the case of the compound engine is 127 lbs., or 21 r than for the single engine. If the steam-pressure be raised this the case of the single engine, and the indicator-cards be increased y, the consumption for the single-cylinder engine would be 19.97 or per horse-power.

Cylinder vs. Three-cylinder Compound Engine.—A eck triple-expansion engine, built for the Merrick Thread Co., Mass., is constructed so that the intermediate cylinder may be cut circuit and the high-pressure and low-pressure cylinders run as a der compound, using the same conditions of initial steam-pressure

The diameters of the cylinders are 12, 16, and 24½ inches, the the first two being 36 in. and that of the low-pressure cylinder 48 sults of a test reported by S. M. Green and G. I. Rockwood, *Trans.*, . vol. xiii, 647, are as follows: In lbs. of dry steam used per I.H.P. 12 and 24½ in. cylinders only used, two tests 13.06 and 12.76 lbs., 2.91. All three cylinders used, two tests 12.67 and 12.90 lbs., average difference is only 1%, and would indicate that more than two cylind- necessary in a compound engine, but it is pointed out by Prof. that the conditions of the test were especially favorable for the ler engine, and not relatively so favorable for the three cylinders. e pressure was 142 lbs. and the number of expansions about 25. s discussion on the Rockwood type of engine, *Trans. A. S. M. E.*, vol.

of Water contained in Steam on the Efficiency of am-engine. (From a lecture by Walter C. Kerr, before the nstitute, 1891.)—Standard writers make little mention of the effect ed moisture on the expansive properties of steam, but by common ather than any demonstration they seem to agree that moisture an ill effect simply to the percentage amount of its presence. % moisture will increase the water rate of an engine 5%.

ments reported in 1893 by R. C. Carpenter and L. S. Marks, *Trans.*, . xv., in which water in varying quantity was introduced into the e, causing the quality of the steam to range from 99% to 58% dry, at throughout the range of qualities used the consumption of dry indicated horse-power per hour remains practically constant, and that the water was an inert quantity, doing neither good nor harm. ars that the extra work done by the heat of the entrained water ansion is sensibly equal to the extra negative work which it does haust and compression, that the heat carried in by the entrained forms no useful function, and that a fair measure of the economy ne is the consumption of dry and saturated steam.

ive Commercial Economy of Best Modern Types of und and Triple-expansion Engines. (J. E. Denton, *Miner*, Dec. 17, 1891.)—The following table and deductions relative commercial economy of the compound and triple type for stationary practice in steam plants of 500 indicated horse-power. is based on the tests of Prof. Schröter, of Munich, of engines built or, and those of Geo. H. Barrus on the best plants of America, and d estimates of cost obtained from several first-class builders.

ion, or Corliss engines of a-compound-receiver con- type, expanding 16 times. Boiler pressure 120 lbs.	{	Lbs. water per hour per H.P., by measurement.	18.6	14.0		
		Lbs. coal per hour per H.P., assuming 8.5 lbs. actual evaporation.			1.60	1.65
ion, or Corliss engines of ple-expansion four-cylind- er condensing type, ex- 22 times. Boiler pressure,	{	Lbs. water per hour per H.P., by measurement.	12.56	12.80		
		Lbs. coal per hour per H.P., assuming 8.5 lbs. actual evaporation.			1.48	1.50

ures in the first column represent the best recorded performance d those in the second column the probable reliable performance.

cost of triple-expansion plant per horse-power, including chimney, heaters, foundations, piping and erection.....

ing table shows the total annual cost of operation, with the plant running 300 days in the year, for 10 how day:

er I.H.P. per hour, 12,323 lbs. Duty per million B.T.U. = 188,126,000

t of a Triple-expansion Pumping-engine with and out Jackets, at Laketon, Ind., by Prof. J. E. Denton (Trans. A. S. M. E., xiv, 1340).—Cylinders 24, 34 and 54 in. by 36 in. stroke; 28 revs. per H.P. developed about 320; boiler-pressure 150 lbs. Tests made on eight days with different sets of conditions in jackets. At 150 lbs. boiler-pressure, and about 20 expansions, with any pressure above 43 lbs. in all of jackets and reheaters, or with no pressure in the high jacket, the per-centage was as follows: With 2.5% of moisture in the steam entering the jackets used 16% of the total feed-water. About 20% of the latter condensed during admission to the high cylinder, and about 13.85 lbs. of water was consumed per hour per indicated horse-power. With no steam or reheaters in action the feed-water consumption was 14.99 lbs., or more than with jackets and reheaters. The consumption of lubricating oil was two thirds of a gallon of machine oil and one and three quarter gallons of cylinder oil per 24 hours. The friction of the engine in eight tests on eight days varied from 5.1% to 8.7%.

As regards the measurements of indicated horse-power and water as to an error of one per cent, which is probably a minimum allowance; most careful determinations, the steam economy is the same for the following conditions:

Any pressure from 43 to 131 in the intermediate and low jackets and jackets.

Any pressure from 0 to 151 in the jacket of high cylinder.

Any cut-off from 21% to 23% in high cylinder, from 39% to 43% in intermediate cylinder, from 40% to 53% in low cylinder.

Per Consumption of Three Types of Sulzer Engines.

(B. Donkin, Jr., *Eng'g*, Jan. 15, 1892, p. 77.)

RESULTS AND AVERAGES OF TWENTY-ONE PUBLISHED EXPERIMENTS OF THE SULZER TYPE OF STEAM-ENGINE. ALL HORIZONTAL CONDENSING AND STEAM-JACKETED. From 1872 to 1891.

	Steam-pressure above Atmosphere.	Piston-speed.	Indicated Horse-power.	Steam Consumption, pounds per I.H.P. per hour, including Steam-pipe water and Jacket Water.	Steam Consumption, pounds per I.H.P. per hour, excluding Steam-pipe water, but including Jacket Water.	Remarks.
	lbs.	ft. per min		lbs.	lbs.	
e	72 to 95	272 to 433	157 to 400	18.7 to 19.8 Mean 19.4	17.9 to 19.2 Mean 18.95	5 exp. (1873-78
	84 to 104	384 to 689	193 to 524	13.35 to 16.0 Mean 14.44	13.4 to 15.5 Mean 14.3	10 exp. (1888-91
d.	104 to 156	444 to 607	198 to 615	11.85 to 13.86 Mean 12.36	11.7 to 12.7 Mean 12.16	6 exp. (1888-89

Triple-expansion Corliss engine at Narragansett E. L. Co., Providence, R. I., built by E. P. Allis Co. Cylinder 14, 25 and 33 in. by 48 in. stroke tested at 150 lbs. steam-pressure; 125 lbs. steam-pressure; steam per I.H.P. per hour 12.94 I.H.P. 516. A full account of this engine, with records of tests is given by Hawthorn, in Trans. A. S. M. E., xii, 643.

Triple-expansion compound engine, tested at Chicago Exposition, by Geo. Frus (*Eng'g Record*, Feb. 17, 1894). Cylinder 14 and 28 by 34 in. stroke; at 185 r. p. m.; 130 lbs. steam-pressure. I.H.P. in four tests condensed one non-condensing..... 295 224 123 277 267
per horse-power per hour..... 16.07 15.71 17.22 16.07 23.24

Relative Economy of Compound Non-condensing Engine under Variable Loads.—F. M. Rites, in a paper on the Steam Engine in a Form of Single-acting Engine (Trans. A. S. M. E., xiii, 1887) an engine designed to meet the following problem: Given

extreme range of conditions as to load or steam-pressure, either or fluctuate together or apart, violently or with easy gradations, to an engine whose economical performance should be as good as the engine were specially designed for a momentary condition—the aim to be complete and automatic. In the ordinary non-condensing engine with light loads the high-pressure cylinder is frequently to supply all the power and in addition drag along with it the low-pressure piston, whose cylinder indicates negative work. Mr. Rice's peculiar value of a receiver of predetermined volume which acts as a space chamber for compression in the high-pressure cylinder. The house compound single-acting engine is designed upon this principle. The following results of tests of one of these engines rated at 175 H.P. at economical load are given :

WATER RATES UNDER VARYING LOADS, LBS. PER H.P. PER HOR.

Horse-power.....	210	170	140	115	100	80
Non-condensing	22.6	21.9	22.2	22.2	22.4	24.4
Condensing	18.4	18.1	18.2	18.2	18.3	18.3

Efficiency of Non-condensing Compound Engine

Lee Church, *Am. Mach.*, Nov. 19, 1891.—The compound engine, condensing, at its best performance will exhaust from the low-pressure cylinder at a pressure 2 to 6 pounds above atmosphere. Such an engine limited in its economy to a very short range of power, for the reason its valve-motion will not permit of any great increase beyond its rated power, and any material decrease below its rated power at once in its expansion curve in the low-pressure cylinder below atmosphere. In other words, decrease of load tells upon the compound engine somewhat and much more severely, than upon the non-compound engine. It commences the moment the expansion line crosses a line parallel to atmospheric line, and at a distance above it representing the mean pressure necessary to carry the frictional load of the engine. When the steam falls to this point the low-pressure cylinder becomes an air-pump more or less of its stroke, the power to drive which must come from the high-pressure cylinder alone. Under the light loads common in the industries the low-pressure cylinder is thus a positive resistance to a greater portion of its stroke. A careful study of this problem requires the functions of a fixed intermediate clearance, always in communication with the high-pressure cylinder, and having a volume bearing the same ratio to that of the high-pressure cylinder that the high-pressure cylinder bears to the low-pressure. Diagrams were laid out on this principle and until the best theoretical results were obtained. The designs were worked down on these lines, and the subsequent performance of the engines, of which some 600 have been built, have fully confirmed the judgment of the designers.

The effect of this constant clearance is to supply sufficient steam to the low-pressure cylinder under light loads to hold its expansion at 2 to 6 atmospheres, and at the same time leave a sufficient clearance valve to the high-pressure cylinder to permit of governing the engine on its rated power under light loads.

Economy of Engines under Varying Loads.

W. C. Unwin's lecture before the Society of Arts, London, 1892, the general result of numerous trials with large engines was that with a load an indicated horse-power should be obtained with a constant 1½ pounds of coal per indicated horse-power for a condensing engine, 1½ pounds for a non-condensing engine, figures which correspond to 13½ pounds to 2½ pounds of coal per effective horse-power. It was difficult to ascertain the consumption of coal in ordinary service but such facts as were known showed it was more than on trial.

In electric-lighting stations the engines work under a very light load, and the results are far more unfavorable. An excellent W. C. Unwin's condensing engine, which on full-load trials worked with under 1½ pounds per effective horse-power hour, in the ordinary daily working of the engine used 7¼ pounds per effective horse-power hour in 1882, which is equivalent to 4.3 pounds in 1890 and 3.8 pounds in 1891. Probably in the case of the engines at electric-light stations working under a load of 1½ pounds per effective horse-power hour. In the case of the engines working with a fluctuating load, still more extravagant

ENGINES IN ELECTRIC CENTRAL STATIONS.

Year	1886.	1890.	1892.
Coal used per hour per effective H.P.	8.4	5.6	4.9
" " " " indicated "	6.5	4.35	3.8

Electric-lighting stations the load factor, viz., the ratio of the average to the maximum, is extremely small, and the engines worked under unfavorable conditions, which largely accounted for the excessive fuel consumption at these stations.

Steam-engines the fuel consumption has generally been reckoned on indicated horse power. At full-power trials this was satisfactory though, as the internal friction is then usually a small fraction of the total, experiment has, however, shown that the internal friction is nearly constant, and hence, when the engine is lightly loaded, its mechanical efficiency is greatly reduced. At full load small engines have a mechanical efficiency of 0.85, and large engines might reach at least 0.9, but if the internal friction remained constant this efficiency would be much reduced at low loads. Thus, if an engine working at 100 indicated horse power had an efficiency of 0.85, then when the indicated horse-power fell to 50 the effective horse-power would be 35 horse-power and the efficiency only 0.7. Similarly, if an engine working at 100 indicated horse-power the effective horse-power would be 10 and the efficiency

Experiments on a Corliss engine at Crenset gave the following results :

Effective power at full load	1.0	0.75	0.50	0.25	0.125
Condensing, mechanical efficiency	0.82	0.79	0.74	0.63	0.48
Condensing, "	0.86	0.83	0.78	0.67	0.52

At light loads the economy of gas and liquid fuel engines fell off even more rapidly than in steam-engines. The engine friction was large and nearly constant, and in some cases the combustion was also less perfect at light loads. At the Dresden Central Station the gas-engines were kept running at nearly their full power by the use of storage-batteries. The results of some experiments are given below :

Rate of full power.	Gas-engine, cu. ft. of Gas per H.P. per hour.	Petroleum Eng., Lbs. of Oil per B.H.P. per hr.	Petroleum Eng., Lbs. of Oil per B.H.P. per hr.
100	22.2	0.96	0.83
75	23.8	1.11	0.99
50	26.0	1.44	1.30
30	40.8	2.58	1.82
12½	66.3	4.25	3.07

Steam Consumption of Engines of Various Sizes.—W. C. Min (Cassier's Magazine, 1894) gives a table showing results of 49 tests of engines of different types. In non-condensing simple engines, the steam consumption ranged from 65 lbs. per hour in a 5-horse-power engine to 22 lbs. in a 134-H.P. Harris-Corliss engine. In non-condensing compound engines, the only type tested was the Willans, which ranged from 27 lbs. in a 1 P. slow-speed engine, 122 ft. per minute, with steam-pressure of 81 lbs. to 22 lbs. in a 40-H.P. engine, 401 ft. per minute, with steam-pressure 165 lbs.

A Willans triple-expansion non-condensing engine, 39 H.P., 172 lbs. steam-pressure, and 400 ft. piston speed per minute, gave a consumption of 18.5 lbs. per hour. In condensing engines, nine tests of simple engines gave results ranging only from 18.4 to 22 lbs., and, leaving out a beam pumping-engine running at slow speed (240 ft. per minute) and low steam-pressure (45 lbs.), the range is only from 18.4 to 19.8 lbs. In compound-condensing engines over 100 H.P., in 13 tests the range is from 13.9 to 20 lbs. In three triple-expansion engines the results are 11.7, 12.2, and 12.45 lbs., the lowest being a Sulzer engine of 360 H.P.

In marine compound engines, the Fusiyama and Colchester, tested by Prof. Kennedy, gave steam consumption of 21.2 and 21.7 lbs.; and the Colchester and Tartar triple-expansion engines gave 15.0 and 19.8 lbs. Considering the most favorable results which can be regarded as not exceptional, it appears that in test trials, with constant and full load, the economy of steam and coal is about as follows:

Kind of Engine.	Per Indicated Horse-power Hour.		Per Effective Horse-power Hour.	
	Coal, lbs.	Steam, lbs.	Coal, lbs.	Steam, lbs.
Condensing	1.80	16.5	2.00	17.5
Non-condensing	1.50	13.5	1.75	15.5

about $\frac{1}{6}$, requires about 30% more steam than for the latter

Piston-speed in Engines. (Proc. Inst. M. E., July, 1883, p. torpedo boat is an excellent example of the advance towards lbs. and shows what can be accomplished by studying lightness th in combination. In running at 23 $\frac{1}{2}$ knots an hour, an engine ders of 16 in. stroke will make 480 revolutions per minute, which ft. per minute for piston-speed; and it is remarked that engines t that high rate work much more smoothly than at lower speeds, he difficulty of lubrication diminishes as the speed increases.

h-speed Corliss Engine.—A Corliss engine, 30 × 42 in., has ing a wire-rod mill at the Trenton Iron Co.'s works since 1877, at ions or 1120 ft. piston-speed per minute (Trans. A. S. M. E., ii. ston-speed of 1200 ft. per min. has been realized in locomotive

imitation of Engine-speed. (Chas. T. Porter, in a paper imitation of Engine-speed, Trans. A. S. M. E., xiv. 806.)—The imitation to high rotative speed in stationary reciprocating steam- not found in the danger of heating or of excessive wear, nor, as ly believed, in the centrifugal force of the fly-wheel, nor in the to knock in the centres, nor in vibration. He gives two objections gh speeds: First, that "engines ought not to be run as fast as e," second, the large amount of waste room in the port, which d for proper steam distribution. In the important respect of of steam, the high-speed engine has thus far proved a failure, n was looked for from high speed, because the loss by condensa- given surface would be divided into a greater weight of steam, but tation has not been realized. For this unsatisfactory result we y the blame chiefly on the excessive amount of waste room. The method of expressing the amount of waste room in the percentage it to the total piston displacement, is a misleading one. It should ed as the percentage which it adds to the length of steam admis- example, if the steam is cut off at 1/5 of the stroke, 8% added by room to the total piston displacement means 40% added to the steam admitted. Engines of four, five and six feet stroke may e run at from 700 to 800 ft. of piston travel per minute, but for izes, says Mr. Porter, 600 ft. per minute should be the limit.

necessity of the Steam-jacket.—Tests of numerous engines with y from 30% saving down to zero, or even in some cases showing an

The opinions of engineers at this date (1894) is also as diverse as s, but there is a tendency towards a general belief that the jacket is able an appendage to an engine as was formerly supposed. An ex- amé of facts and opinions on the steam-jacket is given by Prof. in Trans. A. S. M. E., xiv. 462. See also Trans. A. S. M. E., xiv. 40; xiii. 176; xii. 426 and 1340; and Jour. F. I., April, 1891, p. 276. ing are a few statements selected from these papers.

ults of tests reported by the research committee on steam-jackets y the British Institution of Mechanical Engineers in 1886, ind- creased efficiency due to the use of the steam-jacket of from 1% to according to varying circumstances.

asserts that "it has been abundantly proved that steam- e not only advisable but absolutely necessary, in order that high xpansion may be efficiently carried out and the greatest possible of heat attained."

od finds the gain by its use, under the conditions of ordinary is a general average, to be about 20% on small and 8% or 5% on nes, varying through intermediate values with intermediate sizes, nderstood that the jacket has an effective circulation, and that s and sides are jacketed.

r Unwin considers that "in all cases and on all cylinders the use- ful; provided, of course, ordinary, not superheated, steam- is the advantages may diminish to an amount not worth the interest ost."

r Cotterill says: Experience shows that a steam-jacket is advan- e the amount to be gained will vary according to circumstances. ses it may be that the advantage is small. Great care drawing conclusions from any special set of experim- of jacketing.

Mr. E. D. Leavitt has expressed the opinion that, in his practice jackets produce an increase of efficiency of from 15% to 20%.

In the Pawtucket pumping engine, 15 and 30½ × 30 in., 30 revs. steam-pressure 125 lbs. gauge, cut-off ¼ in h.p. and ¼ in l.p. cylinders only jacketed, the saving by the jackets was from 1½ to 4%.

The superintendent of the Holly Mfg. Co. (compound pumping says: "In regard to the benefits derived from steam-jackets on our cylinders, I am somewhat of a skeptic. From data taken on our mines and tests made I am yet to be convinced that there is any value in the steam-jacket." . . . "You might practically say it is no difference.")

Professor Schröter from his work on the triple-expansion engines burg, and from the results of his tests of the jacket efficiency of engine of the Sulzer type in his own laboratory, concludes: (1) The efficiency of the jacket may vary within very wide limits, or even become negative. (2) The shorter the cut-off the greater the gain by the jacket. (3) The use of higher pressure in the jacket than in the cylinder produces an advantage. The greater this difference the better, high-pressure cylinder may be left unjacketed without great loss, others should always be jacketed.

The test of the Laketon triple-expansion pumping-engine shows a saving of 8.3% by the use of the jackets, but Prof. Denton points out (Tr. M. E., xiv, 1412) that all but 1.9% of the gain was ascribable to the range of expansion used with the jackets.

Test of a Compound Condensing Engine with an Jacket at different Loads. (R. C. Carpenter, Tr. M. E., xiv, 428.)—Cylinders 9 and 16 in. × 14 in. stroke; 112 lbs. boiler rated capacity 100 H.P.; 265 revs. per min. Vacuum, 23 in. From several tests curves are plotted, from which the following principles are taken.

Indicated H.P.	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100	110
Steam per I.H.P. per hour:									
With jackets, lbs.	22.6	21.4	20.3	19.6	19	18.7	18.6	18.9	19.2
Without jackets, lbs.				22	20.5	19.6	19.2	19.1	19.2
Saving by jacket, p. c.				10.9	7.3	4.6	3.1	1.0	-1.4

This table gives a clue to the great variation in the apparent saving by the steam-jacket as reported by different experimenters. With a compound engine it appears that when running at its most economical load (100 H.P.), without jackets, very little saving is made by use of them. When running light the jacket makes a considerable saving, but at light loads it is a detriment.

At the load which corresponds to the most economical rate, with or without jackets, or 100 H.P., the use of the jacket makes a saving of 4% at a load of 60 H.P. the saving by use of the jacket is about 10%. The shape of the curve indicates that the relative advantage of the jacket is still greater at lighter loads than 60 H.P.

Counterbalancing Engines.—Prof. Unwin gives the following formulae for counterbalancing vertical engines:

$$W_1 = W_2 \frac{r}{p} \dots \dots \dots$$

in which W_1 denotes the weight of the balance weight and p its distance from the centre of gravity, W_2 the weight of the crank-pin and half the weight of the connecting-rod, and r the length of the crank. For horizontal

$$W_1 = \frac{1}{2}(W_2 + W_3) \frac{r}{p} \text{ to } \frac{3}{4}(W_2 + W_3) \frac{r}{p} \dots$$

in which W_1 denotes the weight of the piston, piston-rod, cross-head, and the other half of the weight of the connecting-rod.

The *American Machinist*, commenting on these formulae, says that the usual formula (2) is often used; formula (1) will give a counterbalance too light for vertical engines. We should use formula (1) in computing the counterbalance for both horizontal and vertical engines, accepting the latter, in which the counterbalance should

Preventing Vibrations of Engines.—Many suggestions have been made for remedying the vibration and noise attendant on the working of big engines which are employed to run dynamos. A plan which has met with great satisfaction is to build hair-felt into the foundations of the engines.

An electric company has had a 90-horse-power engine removed from its foundations, which were then taken up to the depth of 4 feet. A mat of felt 5 inches thick was then placed on the foundations and run up 2 feet on the sides, and on the top of this the brickwork was built up.—*Safety Valve*.

Steam-engine Foundations Embedded in Air.—In the sugarery of Claus Spreckels, at Philadelphia, Pa., the engines are distributed locally all over the buildings, a large proportion of them being on upper floors.

Some are bolted to iron beams or girders, and are consequently supported by all foundation. Some of these engines ran noiselessly and satisfactorily, while others produced more or less vibration and rattle. To correct the latter the engineers suspended foundations from the bottoms of the beams, so that, in looking at them from the lower floors, they were literally floating in the air.—*Iron Age*, Mar. 13, 1890.

Cost of Coal for Steam-power.—The following table shows the cost of fuel and the cost of coal per day and per year for various horse-powers, from 1 to 1000, based on the assumption of 4 lbs. of coal being used per hour per horse-power. It is useful, among other things, in estimating the saving that may be made in fuel by substituting more economical boilers and engines for those already in use. Thus with coal at \$3.00 per ton, a saving of \$1000 per year in fuel may be made by replacing a steam plant of 1000 horse-power, requiring 4 lbs. of coal per hour per horse-power, with one requiring only 2 lbs.

Coal Consumption, at 4 lbs. per H.P. per hour; 10 hours a day; 300 days in a Year.					\$1.50.		\$2.00.		\$3.00.		\$4.00.		
Lbs.	Long Tons.		Short Tons.		Per Short Ton.		Per Short Ton.		Per Short Ton.		Per Short Ton.		
	Per Day.	Per Year.	Per Day.	Per Year.	Per Day.	Per Year.	Per Day.	Per Year.	Per Day.	Per Year.	Per Day.	Per Year.	
1	40	0.179	5.357	.02	6	.03	9	.04	12	.06	18	.08	24
2	400	1.786	53.57	.20	60	.30	90	.40	120	.60	180	.80	240
3	1,000	4.164	133.92	.50	150	.75	225	1.00	300	1.50	450	2.00	600
4	2,000	.8925	267.85	1.00	300	1.50	450	2.00	600	3.00	900	4.00	1,200
5	3,000	1.3393	401.78	1.50	450	2.25	675	3.00	900	4.50	1,350	6.00	1,800
6	4,000	1.7857	535.71	2.00	600	3.00	900	4.00	1,200	6.00	1,800	8.00	2,400
7	5,000	2.2785	802.36	2.50	750	4.50	1,350	6.00	1,800	9.00	2,700	12.00	3,600
8	8,000	3.5714	1,071.42	4.00	1,200	6.00	1,800	8.00	2,400	12.00	3,600	16.00	4,800
9	10,000	4.4642	1,339.27	5.00	1,500	7.50	2,250	10.00	3,000	15.00	4,500	20.00	6,000
10	12,000	5.3571	1,607.13	6.00	1,800	9.00	2,700	12.00	3,600	18.00	5,400	24.00	7,200
11	14,000	6.2500	1,874.99	7.00	2,100	10.50	3,150	14.00	4,200	21.00	6,300	28.00	8,400
12	16,000	7.1429	2,142.84	8.00	2,400	12.00	3,600	16.00	4,800	24.00	7,200	32.00	9,600
13	18,000	8.0356	2,410.69	9.00	2,700	13.50	4,050	18.00	5,400	27.00	8,100	36.00	10,800
14	20,000	8.9283	2,678.55	10.00	3,000	15.00	4,500	20.00	6,000	30.00	9,000	40.00	12,000
15	24,000	10.7142	3,214.26	12.00	3,600	18.00	5,400	24.00	7,200	36.00	10,800	48.00	14,400
16	28,000	12.4999	3,749.97	14.00	4,200	21.00	6,300	28.00	8,400	42.00	11,600	56.00	16,800
17	32,000	14.2856	4,285.68	16.00	4,800	24.00	7,200	32.00	9,600	48.00	12,400	64.00	19,200
18	36,000	16.0713	4,821.39	18.00	5,400	27.00	8,100	36.00	10,800	54.00	14,300	72.00	21,600
19	40,000	17.8570	5,357.10	20.00	6,000	30.00	9,000	40.00	12,000	60.00	18,000	80.00	24,000

Storing Steam Heat.—There is no satisfactory method for equalizing load on the engines and boilers in electric-light stations. Storage-batteries are used, but they are expensive in first cost, repairs, and attention. Halpin, of London, proposes to store heat during the day in specially constructed reservoirs. As the water in the boilers is raised to 250 lbs. pressure it is conducted to cylindrical reservoirs resembling English horizontal tanks, and stored there for use when wanted. In this way a comparative boiler-plant can be used for heating the water to 250 lbs. pressure in the twenty-four hours of the day, and the stored water used at any time, according to the magnitude of the demand.

from the cost of the total amount of steam generated, in order the cost properly chargeable to power. The figures in lines 299 based on an assumption made by Mr. Main of losses of heat a 25% between the boiler and the exhaust-pipe, an allowance ably too large.

ROTARY STEAM-ENGINES.

Turbines.—The steam turbine is a small turbine wheel which am as the ordinary turbine does with water. (For description is and the Dow steam turbines see Modern Mechanism, p. 298, rsons turbine is a series of parallel-flow turbines mounted side shaft; the Dow turbine is a series of radial outward-flow tur like a series of concentric rings in a single plane, a stationary ing between each pair of movable rings. The speeds of the es enormously exceed those of any form of engine with recip- on, or even of the so-called rotary engines. The three- and four- nes of the Brotherhood type, in which the several cylinders roused radially about a common crank and shaft, often exceed ns per minute, and have been driven, experimentally, above steam turbine of Parsons makes 10,000 and even 20,000 revolu- Dow turbine is reputed to have attained 25,000. (See Trans. ol. x, p. 680, and xii, p. 888; Trans. Assoc. of Eng'g Societies, 3; Eng'g, Jan. 13, 1888, and Jan. 8, 1892; Eng'g News, Feb. 27, r turbine, exhibited in 1889, weighed 68 lbs., and developed 10 consumption of 47 lbs. of steam per H.P. per hour, the steam g 70 lbs. The Dow turbine is used to spin the fly-wheel of the do. The dimensions of the wheel are 13.8 in. diam., 6.5 in. of gyration 5.57 in. The energy stored in it at 10,000 revs. 0,000 ft.-lbs.

axial Steam Turbine, shown at the Chicago exhibition, tion wheel somewhat similar to the Pelton water-wheel. The irected by a nozzle against the plane of the turbine at quite a and tangentially against the circumference of the medium the blades. The angle of the blades is the same at the side of d discharge. The width of the blade is constant along the ss of the turbine.

is expanded to the pressure of the surroundings before arriv- des. This expansion takes place in the nozzle, and is caused king its sides diverging. As the steam passes through this eific volume is increased in a greater proportion than the of the channel, and for this reason its velocity is increased, omentum, till the end of the expansion at the last sectiona izzle. The greater the expansion in the nozzle the greater its is point. A pressure of 75 lbs. and expansion to an absolute ne atmosphere give a final velocity of about 2625 ft. per second. is carried further in this steam turbine than in ordinary steam- is on account of the steam expanding completely during its rressure of the surroundings.

ng the greatest possible effect the admission to the blades must blows and the velocity of discharge as low as possible. These ould require in the steam turbine an enormous velocity of s high as 1300 to 1650 ft. per second. The centrifugal force, puts a limit to the use of very high velocities. In the 5 horse- e the velocity of periphery is 574 ft. per second, and the num- ns 30,000 per minute.

arefully the turbine may be manufactured it is impossible, on evenness of the material, to get its centre of gravity to corre- y to its geometrical axle of revolution; and however small this y be, it becomes very noticeable at such high velocities. De ceeded in solving the problem by providing the turbine with a

This yielding shaft allows the turbine at the high rate of ust itself and revolve around its true centre of gravity, the the shaft meanwhile describing a surface of revolution. ng-box the speed is reduced from 30,000 revolutions to 3000 driver on the turbine shafts, which sets in motion a cog- es its own diameter. These gears are provided with spiral ed an angle of about 45°. The shaft of the larger cog- ed of 3000 revolutions, is provided at its outer ep- ther transmission of the power.

Rotary Steam-engines, other than steam turbines, have invented by the thousands, but not one has attained a commercial success. The possible advantages, such as saving of space, to be gained by a rotary engine are overbalanced by its waste of steam.

The Tower Spherical Engine, one of the most recent for rotary-engine, is described in Proc. Inst. M. E., 1885, also in Mechanism, p. 296.

DIMENSIONS OF PARTS OF ENGINES.

The treatment of this subject by the leading authorities on the steam engine is very unsatisfactory, being a confused mass of rules and formulas based partly upon theory and partly upon practice. The practices of the world show an exceeding diversity of opinion as to correct dimensions. The treatment given below is chiefly the result of a study of the works of Rankine, Seaton, Unwin, Thurston, Marks, and Whitham, and is largely a compilation of a series of articles by the author published in the *American Machinist*, in 1894, with many alterations and much additional matter. In order to make a comparison of many of the formulæ they have been applied to the assumed cases of six engines of different sizes, and in some of these comparisons has led to the construction of new formulæ.

Cylinder. (Whitham).—Length of bore = stroke + breadth of piston ring - $\frac{1}{8}$ to $\frac{1}{4}$ in.; length between heads = stroke + thickness of piston + thickness of clearances at both ends; thickness of piston = breadth of piston + thickness of flange on one side to carry the ring + thickness of flange on the other side.

Thickness of flange or follower.... $\frac{3}{8}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ in. $\frac{3}{4}$ in. 1 in.
For cylinder of diameter..... 8 to 10 in. 36 in. 60 in.

Clearance of Piston. (Seaton).—The clearance allowed varies with the size of the engine from $\frac{1}{16}$ to $\frac{3}{16}$ in. for roughness of castings and for wear on the working joint. Naval and other very fast-running engines have a larger allowance. In a vertical direct-acting engine the piston wears so as to bring the piston nearer the bottom are three, viz., the piston, the crank-pin brasses, and piston-rod gudgeon-brasses.

Thickness of Cylinder. (Thurston).—For engines of the ordinary types and under moderate steam-pressures, some builders have for many years restricted the stress to about 2550 lbs. per sq. in.

$$t = ap_1D + b \dots \dots \dots$$

is a common proportion; t , D , and b being thickness, diam., and a constant added quantity varying from 0 to $\frac{1}{4}$ in., all in inches; p_1 is the initial steam-pressure per sq. in. In this expression b is made less for horizontal than for vertical cylinders, as, for example, in large engines in the one case and 0.2 in the other, the one requiring re-boring more than the other. The constant a is from 0.0004 to 0.0005; the first value for vertical cylinders, or short strokes; the second for horizontal engines and long strokes.

Thickness of Cylinder and its Connections for High-Pressure Engines. (Seaton).— D = the diam. of the cylinder in inches; p = the steam-pressure in lbs. per sq. in.; f , a constant multiplier = the thickness of the safety-valves in lbs. per sq. in.; t , the thickness of the cylinder barrel + .25 in.

Thickness of metal of cylinder barrel or liner, not to be less than 3000 when of cast iron.*

$$\text{Thickness of cylinder-barrel} = \frac{p \times D}{5000} + 0.6 \text{ in.} \dots \dots \dots$$

$$\text{“ “ liner} = 1.1 \times f \dots \dots \dots$$

$$\text{Thickness of liner when of steel } p \times D + 6000 \div 0.5$$

$$\text{“ metal of steam-ports} = 0.6 \times f.$$

$$\text{“ “ valve-box sides} = 0.65 \times f.$$

When made of exceedingly good material, at least twice the thickness of that given by the above rules.

- of metal of valve-box covers = $0.7 \times f$.
- " cylinder bottom = $1.1 \times f$, if single thickness.
- " " " = $0.65 \times f$, if double " "
- " " covers = $1.0 \times f$, if single " "
- " " " = $0.6 \times f$, if double " "
- cylinder flange = $1.4 \times f$.
- " cover-flange = $1.3 \times f$.
- " valve-box " = $1.0 \times f$.
- " door-flange = $0.9 \times f$.
- " face over ports = $1.2 \times f$.
- " " " = $1.0 \times f$, when there is a false-face.
- " false-face = $0.8 \times f$, when cast iron.
- " " = $0.6 \times f$, when steel or bronze.

am gives the following from different authorities:

- Van Buren: $\begin{cases} t = 0.0001Dp + 0.15 \sqrt{D}; & \dots \dots \dots (5) \\ t = 0.03 \sqrt{Dp}. & \dots \dots \dots (6) \end{cases}$
- Tredgold: $t = \frac{(D + 2.5)p}{1900} \dots \dots \dots (7)$
- Weisbach: $t = 0.8 + 0.00033pD. \dots \dots \dots (8)$
- Seaton: $t = 0.5 + 0.0004pD. \dots \dots \dots (9)$
- Haswell: $\begin{cases} t = 0.0004pD + \frac{1}{8} \text{ (vertical)}; & \dots \dots \dots (10) \\ t = 0.0005pD + \frac{1}{8} \text{ (horizontal)}. & \dots \dots \dots (11) \end{cases}$

am recommends (6) where provision is made for the reboring, and ample strength and rigidity are secured, for horizontal or vertical of large or small diameter; (9) for large cylinders using steam 0 lbs. gauge-pressure, and

- $t = 0.003D \sqrt{p}$ for small cylinders. $\dots \dots \dots (12)$
- Marks gives $t = 0.00025pD. \dots \dots \dots (13)$

a smaller value than is given by the other formulæ quoted; but says that it is not advisable to make a steam-cylinder less than 0.75 under any circumstances.

Following table gives the calculated thickness of cylinders of engines and 50 in. diam., assuming p the maximum unbalanced pressure on in = 100 lbs. per sq. in. As the same engines will be used for calculate other dimensions, other particulars concerning them are here reference.

DIMENSIONS, ETC., OF ENGINES.

No.	1 and 2.	3 and 4.	5 and 6.
horse-power I.H.P.	50	450	1250
cyl., in D	10	30	50
feet L	1	2 3/4	5
min. r	250	125 130	90
speed, ft. per min. S	500	650	700
piston, sq. in. a	78.54	706.86	1963.5
ective pressure ... M.E.P.	42	32 3/4	30
al unbalanced press. ... P	7854	70,686	196,350
al per sq. in. p	100	100	100

THICKNESS OF CYLINDER BY FORMULA.	1 and 2.	3 and 4.	5 and 6.
(1) .0004pD + 0.5, short stroke....	.90	1.70	2.50
(1) .0005pD + 0.5, long stroke....	1.00	2.00	3.00
(2) .00033pD.....	.83	.99	1.67
(3) .0002pD + 0.6.....	.80	1.40	1.60
(5) .0001pD + .15 \sqrt{D}57	1.12	1.56
(6) .03 \sqrt{Dp}95	1.64	2.12
(7) $\frac{1900}{D+2.5} p$66	1.71	2.76
(8) .00033pD + 0.8.....	1.13	1.79	2.45
(9) .0004pD + 0.5.....	.90	1.70	2.50
(10) .0001pD + $\frac{1}{4}$ (vertical).....	.53	1.33	2.13
(11) .0005pD + $\frac{1}{4}$ (horizontal).....	.63	1.63	2.63
(12) .003D \sqrt{p} (small engines).....	.30(?)
(13) .00028pD.....	.28(?)	.84(?)	1.40(?)
Average of first eleven.....	.76	1.48	2.26

The average corresponds nearly to the formula $t = .00037Dp + 0.4$ in. A convenient approximation is $t = .0004Dp + 0.3$ in., which gives for

Diameters.....	10	20	30	40	50	60 in.
Thicknesses.....	.70	1.10	1.50	1.90	2.30	2.70 in.

The last formula corresponds to a tensile strength of cast iron of 12,500 lbs., with a factor of safety of 10 and an allowance of 0.3 in. for reborring.

Cylinder-heads.—Thurston says: Cylinder-heads may be given a thickness, at the edges and in the flanges, exceeding somewhat that of the cylinder. An excess of not less than 25% is usual. It may be thinner in the middle. Where made, as is usual in large engines, of two disks with intermediate radiating, connecting ribs or webs, that section which is safe against shearing is probably ample. An examination of the designs of experienced builders, by Professor Thurston, gave

$$t = \frac{Dp}{3000} + \frac{1}{4} \text{ inch,} \quad (7)$$

D being the diameter of that circle in which the thickness is taken.

$$\text{Thurston also gives} \quad t = .005D \sqrt{p} + 0.25. \quad (8)$$

$$\text{Marks gives} \quad t = 0.003D \sqrt{p}. \quad (9)$$

He also says a good practical rule for pressures under 100 lbs. per sq. in. is to make the thickness of the cylinder-heads $\frac{1}{4}$ times that of the walls; and applying this factor to his formula for thickness of walls, or .00028pD, we have

$$t = .00035pD. \quad (4)$$

Whitham quotes from Seaton,

$$t = \frac{pD + 500}{2000}, \text{ which is equal to } .0005pD + .25 \text{ inch.} \quad (5)$$

Seaton's formula for cylinder bottoms, quoted above, is

$$t = 1.1f, \text{ in which } f = .0002pD + .83 \text{ inch, or } t = .00022pD + .93. \quad (6)$$

Applying the above formulæ to the engines of 10, 30, and 50 inches diameter, with maximum unbalanced steam-pressure of 100 lbs. per sq. in., we have

Cylinder diameter, inches =	10	30	50
(1) $t = .00033Dp + .25$	= .53	1.35	1.82
(2) $t = .005D \sqrt{p} + .25$	= .75	1.75	2.75
(3) $t = .003D \sqrt{p}$	= .30	.90	1.50
(4) $t = .00035Dp$	= .35	1.05	1.75
(5) $t = .0005Dp + .25$	= .75	1.75	2.75
(6) $t = .00022Dp + .93$	= 1.15	1.59	2.03
Average of 6.....	.85	1.38	2.10

verage is expressed by the formula $t = .00096Dp + .31$ inch. For a "Modern Locomotive Construction," p. 24, gives for locomotive r-heads for pressures up to 130 lbs.:

meters, in.....	19 to 22	16 to 18	14 to 15	11 to 13	9 to 10
ss, in....	1¼	1	1	¾	¾

For the pressure at 130 lbs. per sq. in., the thicknesses 1¼ in. and ¾ in. for cylinders 22 and 10 in. diam., respectively, correspond to the formula $.85Dp + .33$ inch.

Stiffened Cylinder-covers.—Seaton objects to webs for iron cast-iron cylinder-covers as a source of danger. The strain on the web is one of tension, and if there should be a nick or defect in the edge of the web the sudden application of strain is apt to start a fracture.

He recommends that high-pressure cylinders over 24 in. and low-pressure cylinders over 40 in. diam. should have their covers cast hollow, with thicknesses of metal. The depth of the cover at the middle should be ¼ the diam. of the piston for pressures of 80 lbs. and upwards, and 1/3 the diam. of the low-pressure cylinder-cover of a compound engine equal to the high-pressure cylinder. Another rule is to make the depth at the middle not less than 1.3 times the diameter of the piston-rod. In the Navy the cylinder-covers are made of steel castings, ¾ to 1¼ in. thick, generally cast without webs, stiffness being obtained by their form, as often a series of corrugations.

Cylinder-head Bolts.—Diameter of bolt-circle for cylinder-head = diameter of cylinder + 2 × thickness of cylinder + 2 × diameter of bolts. Its length should not be more than 6 inches apart (Whitham).

Formula gives for number of bolts $b = \frac{.7854D^2p}{5000c} = .0001571 \frac{D^2p}{c}$, in which $c =$

safe strain per sq. in. on the nominal area of the bolt.

Whitham says: Cylinder-cover studs and bolts, when made of steel, should be such a size that the strain in them does not exceed 5000 lbs. per sq. in. If the diameter of the bolt is less than ¾ inch diameter it should not exceed 4500 lbs. per sq. in. If the diameter of the bolt is more than ¾ inch the strain should be 20% less.

Whitham also says: Cylinder flanges are made a little thicker than the cylinder usually of equal thickness with the flanges of the heads. Cylinder-head bolts should be so closely spaced as not to allow springing of the flanges between the bolts, say, 4 to 5 times the thickness of the flanges. Their diameter should be proportioned for a maximum stress of not over 4000 to 5000 lbs. per sq. in.

Whitham's formula for diameter of cylinder, $p =$ maximum steam-pressure, $b =$ number of bolts, $s =$ size or diameter of each bolt, and 5000 lbs. be allowed per sq. in. nominal area of the bolt, $.7854D^2p = 3927bs^2$; whence $bs^2 = .0002D^2p$;

$s = \frac{D^2p}{3927b}$; $s = .01414 \sqrt{\frac{D^2p}{b}}$. For the three engines we have:

Diameter of cylinder, inches.....	10	30	50
Diameter of bolt-circle, approx....	13	35	57.5
Circumference of circle, approx....	40.8	110	180
Minimum No. of bolts, circ. + 6.....	7	18	30

Diam. of bolts, $s = .01414D \sqrt{\frac{p}{b}}$ ¾ in. 1.00 1.29

The diameter of bolt for the 10-inch cylinder is 0.54 in. by the formula, which is as small as should be taken, on account of possible overstrain when screwing up the nut.

Piston. Details of Construction of Ordinary Piston. (Seaton.)—Let D be the diameter of the piston in inches, p the effective pressure per square inch on it, x a constant multiplier, found as follows:

$$x = \frac{D}{60} \times \sqrt{p} + 1.$$

Diameter of Piston-rods.

Diameter of Cylinder, inches.....	10		30
Stroke, inches.....	12	24	30
Unwin, iron, $.0167D \sqrt{p}$	1.67	1.67	5.01
Unwin, steel, $.0144D \sqrt{p}$	1.44	1.44	4.32
Thurston $\sqrt[4]{\frac{D^2 p L^3}{10,000} + \frac{D}{80}}$ (L in feet). 1.13			3.12
Thurston, same with $a = 15,000$		1.40	
Marks, iron, $.0170D \sqrt{p}$	1.79		5.37
Marks, iron, $.03901 \sqrt{D^2 p}$	1.35	1.91	3.70
Marks, steel, $.0105D \sqrt{p}$	(1.05)		(3.15)
Marks, steel, $.03525 \sqrt[4]{D^2 p}$	1.22	1.73	3.34
Seaton, naval engines, $\frac{D}{60} \sqrt{p}$	1.67		5.01
Seaton, land engine, $\frac{D}{45} \sqrt{p}$		2.22	
Average of four for iron.....	1.49	1.82	4.30

The figures in brackets opposite Marks' third formula, since they are less than $\frac{1}{8}$ of the stroke, and the figure fourth formula would be taken instead. The figure 1.79 formula would be rejected for the engine of 24-inch stroke.

An empirical formula which gives results approximately is $d'' = .013 \sqrt{Dip}$.

The calculated results from this formula, for the six engines, 1.42, 1.88, 3.90, 5.61, 6.37, 9.01.

Piston-rod Guides.—The thrust on the guide, which rod is at its maximum angle with the line of the piston-rod, the formula: Thrust = total load on piston \times tangent of angle of connecting-rod = $p \tan \theta$. This angle, θ , is the angle stroke of piston \div length of connecting-rod.

Ratio of length of connecting-rod to stroke.....	2
Maximum angle of connecting-rod with line of piston-rod.....	14° 29'
Tangent of the angle.....	.258
Secant of the angle.....	1.0327

Seaton says: The area of the guide-block or slipper surface thrust is taken should in no case be less than will admit of 100 lbs. on the square inch; and for good working these surface thrust when going ahead should be sufficiently large to permit pressure exceeding 100 lbs. per sq. in. When the guides are well lubricated this allowance may be exceeded.

Thurston says: The rubbing surfaces of guides are so small that if V be their relative velocity in feet per minute, and p the pressure on the guide in lbs. per sq. in., $pV < 60,000$ and $p < 600$.

The lower is the safer limit; but for marine and stationary engines allowable to take $p = 60,000 \div V$. According to Rankine

$p = \frac{44800}{V + 20}$ where p is the pressure in lbs. per sq. in. and V rubbing in feet per minute. This includes the sum of all the rubbing surfaces together.

Some British builders of portable engines restrict the pressure on the guides and cross-heads to less than 40, sometimes 30 lbs. For a mean velocity of 600 feet per minute, Prof. Rankine's gives $p = 72.3$ lbs. give $p > 66.7$; Rankine's gives $p = 72.3$ lbs.

$$\text{Slide in square inches} = \frac{P}{p_a \sqrt{n^2 - 1}} = \frac{7868 P_1}{p_a \sqrt{n^2 - 1}}$$

of unbalanced pressure. p_1 = pressure per square inch at center of cylinder. p_a = pressure allowable per square inch of area of connecting-rod = length of crank. This is the formula, $A = P \tan \theta + p_1$. For $n = 5$, $p_1 = 100$ and p_a

For the three engines 20, 30 and 50 in. diam., this would give, $A = 30, 780$ and 500 sq. in., respectively. Whitham says that the pressure on the slide may be as high as 500 lbs. per sq. in., but that there is good lubrication and freedom from dust. Stationary engines are usually designed to carry 100 lbs. per sq. in., but in case is reduced from 50% to 80% by grooves. In locomotives the pressure ranges from 40 to 50 lbs. per sq. in. of slide, on account of the possibility of the slide, dirt, cinder, etc.

There is agreement among the authorities as to the formula for the area, $A = P \tan \theta + p_1$; but the value given to p_a , the allowable pressure per square inch, ranges all the way from 35 lbs. to 500 lbs.

Connecting-rod. Ratio of length of connecting-rod to length of crank has led generally to the ratio of 2 or $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 1, the former being the strong and easy-working rod, the former a rather short, but strong one (Thurston). Whitham gives the ratio of from 2 to $4\frac{1}{2}$ to 1.

The Connecting-rod.—The calculation of the diameter of the rod on a theoretical basis, considering it as a strut subject to compression and bending stresses, and also to stress due to its inertia, is quite complicated. See Whitham, Steam-engine Design, p. 100. Empirical formulas are given for the diameter of the rods, largest at the middle, D = diam. of cylinder, l = length of rod in inches, p = maximum steam-pressure per sq. in.

$$\text{Diam. at middle, } d'' = 0.0272 \sqrt{Dl \sqrt{p}}$$

$$\text{Diam. at necks, } d'' = 1.0 \text{ to } 1.1 \times \text{diam. of piston-rod.}$$

$$\text{Diam. at middle, } d'' = \frac{D}{55} \sqrt{p}$$

$$\text{Diam. at necks, } d'' = \frac{D}{60} \sqrt{p}$$

$$\text{Diam. at middle, } d'' = 0.0179D \sqrt{p} \text{ if diam. is greater than } 1/34 \text{ length.}$$

$$\text{Diam. at middle, } d'' = 0.02758 \sqrt{Dl \sqrt{p}} \text{ if diam. found by (5) is less than } 1/34 \text{ length.}$$

$$\text{Diam. at middle, } d'' = a \sqrt{DL \sqrt{p}} + C, \text{ } D \text{ in inches, } L \text{ in inches, } C = 3/16 \text{ inch for fast engines, } a = 0.08 \text{ and } C = 3/4 \text{ inch for slow engines.}$$

The rod may be considered as a strut free at both ends, and its diameter accordingly.

The diam. at the ends may be 0.875 of the diam. at the middle. Seaton's empirical formula when translated into terms of D and P is the same as the second one by Marks, viz., $d'' = 0.02758 \sqrt{DL \sqrt{P}}$. (1) is also practically the same.

(10) Taking Seaton's more complex formula, with length of connecting-rod = $2.5 \times$ length of stroke, and $r = 12$ and 16 , respectively, gives Diam. at middle = $.02294 \sqrt{P}$ and $.02411 \sqrt{P}$ for short and long stroke engines, respectively.

Applying the above formulas to the engines of our list, we have

Diameter of Connecting-rods.

Diameter of Cylinder, inches.	10		30	
Stroke, inches.	12	24	30	60
Length of connecting-rod l	30	60	75	150
(3) $d'' = \frac{D}{55} \sqrt{P} = .0182D \sqrt{P}$	1.82	1.82	5.46	5.46
(5) $d'' = .0170D \sqrt{P}$	1.70	5.87
(6) $d'' = .02758 \sqrt{DL \sqrt{P}}$	2.14	5.83
(7) $d'' = 0.15 \sqrt{DL \sqrt{P} + 1\frac{1}{2}}$	2.87	7.00
(7) $d'' = 0.08 \sqrt{DL \sqrt{P} + 3\frac{1}{2}}$	2.54	5.63
(9) $d'' = .03 \sqrt{P}$	2.67	2.67	7.97	7.97
(10) $d'' = .02294 \sqrt{P}$; $.02411 \sqrt{P}$	2.03	2.14	6.00	6.41
Average	2.24	2.26	6.38	6.27

Formulas 5 and 6 (Marks), and also formula 10 (Seaton), give the diameters for the long-stroke engine; formula 7 give the larger diam. for the short-stroke engines. The average figures show but little diff. in diameter between long and short-stroke engines; this is what is expected, for while the connecting-rod, considered simply as a beam, would require an increase of diameter for an increase of length, it remaining the same, yet in an engine generally the shorter the connecting-rod the greater the number of revolutions, and consequently the greater the strains due to inertia. The influences tending to increase the diameter therefore tend to balance each other, and to render the diameter to a certain extent independent of the length. The average figures correspond to the simple formula $d'' = .021D \sqrt{P}$. The diameters of rod for the engines of our list by this formula are, respectively, 2.10, 6.30, and 6.30. Since the total pressure on the piston $P = .7854 D^2 p$, the formula is equivalent to $d'' = .0237 \sqrt{P}$.

Connecting-rod Ends.—For a connecting-rod end of the latter type, where the end is secured with two bolts, each bolt should be proportioned for a safe tensile strength equal to two thirds the maximum thrust in the connecting-rod.

The cap is to be proportioned as a beam loaded with the maximum thrust of the connecting-rod, and supported at both ends. The calculations should be made for rigidity as well as strength, allowing a maximum deflection of $1/100$ inch. For a strap-and-key connecting-rod end the strap is designed for tensile strength, considering that two thirds of the pull on the connecting-rod may come on one arm. At the point where the metal is attached to the key and gib, the straps must be thickened to make the cross-section of that of the remainder of the strap. Between the end of the strap and the slot the strap is liable to fail in double shear, and sufficient metal should be provided at the end to prevent such failure.

The breadth of the key is generally one fourth of the width of the connecting-rod, and the length, parallel to the strap, should be such that the key will have a shearing strength equal to the tensile strength of the strap. The taper of the key is generally about $1/8$ inch to 1 inch.

ed Connecting-rods.—In modern high-speed engines it is usual to make the connecting-rods of rectangular instead of circular cross-section, the parallel sides being parallel, and the depth increasing regularly from the crank-pin end to the crank-pin end. According to Grashof, the bending of the rod due to its inertia is greatest at $\frac{2}{3}$ the length from the crank-pin end, and, according to this theory, that is the point at which the stress would be greatest, although in practice the section is made greatest at the crank-pin end.

Mr. Thurston furnishes the author with the following rule for tapered connecting-rods of rectangular section: Take the section as computed by the following formula:

$t = 0.1 \sqrt{DL} \sqrt{p} + 3/4$ for a circular section, and for a rod $\frac{4}{3}$ the length, placing the computed section at $\frac{2}{3}$ the length from the small end, carrying the taper straight through this fixed section to the large end, and bringing the computed section at the surge point and makes it the section for which a tapered form is not required.

Using the above formula, multiplying L by $\frac{4}{3}$, and changing it to t in

becomes $d = 1/30 \sqrt{DL} \sqrt{p} + 3/4$. Taking a rectangular section whose area as the round section whose diameter is d , and making the section A twice the thickness t , we have $.7854d^2 = At = 2t^2$,

$d = .627d = .0209 \sqrt{DL} \sqrt{p} + .47$, which is the formula for the thickness between the parallel sides of the rod. Making the depth at the small end = $1.5t$, and at $\frac{2}{3}$ the length = $2t$, the equivalent depth at the large end is $2.25t$. Applying the formula to the short-stroke engines of the following table, we have

Stroke of cylinder, inches.....	10	30	50
Length of connecting-rod.....	12	30	43
Mean pressure on connecting-rod.....	30	75	130
Thickness $t = .0209 \sqrt{DL} \sqrt{p} + .47 =$	1.61	3.60	5.59
Depth at small end, $1.5t =$	2.42	5.41	8.39
Depth at large end, $2.25t =$	3.62	8.11	12.58

Thicknesses t , found by the formula $t = .0209 \sqrt{DL} \sqrt{p} + .47$, agree with the more simple formula $t = .01D \sqrt{p} + .60$, the thicknesses found by this formula being respectively 1.6, 3.6, and 5.6 inches.

Crank-pin.—A crank-pin should be designed (1) to avoid heating, (2) to resist wear, (3) for rigidity. The heating of a crank-pin depends on the pressure on its rubbing-surface, and on the coefficient of friction, which varies greatly according to the effectiveness of the lubrication. It also depends upon the facility with which the heat produced may be carried away. As it appears that locomotive crank-pins may be prevented to some extent from overheating by the cooling action of the air through which they pass at high speed.

$$\text{Marks gives } l = .0000247 f p N D^2 = 1.038 f \frac{(\text{I.H.P.})}{L} \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

$$\text{Bain gives } l = 0.9075 f \frac{(\text{I.H.P.})}{L} \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

l = length of crank-pin journal in inches, f = coefficient of friction, which may be taken at .08 to .05 for perfect lubrication, and .08 to .10 for imperfect lubrication; p = mean pressure in the cylinder in pounds per square inch; D = diameter of cylinder in inches; N = number of single strokes per minute; I.H.P. = indicated horse-power; L = length of stroke in feet. These formulas are independent of the diameter of the pin, and Marks states as a general law, within reasonable limits as to pressure and speed of rubbing, that the diameter of a bearing is made, for a given pressure and number of revolutions per minute, it will work; and its diameter has no effect upon its heat. The above formulae are deduced empirically from dimensions of existing marine engines. Marks says that about one-eighth of an inch diameter required for crank-pins of propeller engines will serve for all other engines, and one tenth for locomotive engines, making

formula for locomotive crank-pins $l = .0000247pND^2$, or if $p = .06$, and $N = 600$, $l = .013D^2$.

Whitham recommends for pressure per square inch of projected area of naval engines 500 pounds, for merchant engines 400 pounds, for portable engines 800 to 900 pounds.

Thurston says the pressure should, in the steam-engine, never exceed 500 or 600 pounds per square inch for wrought-iron pins, or about 700 pounds per square inch for steel. He gives the formula for length of a steel pin, in inches, $l = PR + 600,000$,

in which P and R are the mean total load on the pin in pounds, and d the diameter in inches, and N the number of revolutions per minute. For locomotives, the diameter is taken as 500,000. Where iron is used this figure should be reduced to 250,000 and 250,000 for the two cases taken. Pins so proportioned, if well lubricated, may always be depended upon to run cool. If formed, perfectly cylindrical, well finished, and kept well oiled, they can be relied upon. It is assumed above that good bronze or white metal bearings are used.

Thurston also says: The size of crank-pins required to prevent the journals may be determined with a fair degree of precision by the following formulæ given below:

$$l = \frac{P(V + 20)}{44,800d} \quad (\text{Rankine, 1865}); \dots$$

$$l = \frac{PV}{60,000d} \quad (\text{Thurston, 1862}); \dots$$

$$l = \frac{PN}{350,000} \quad (\text{Van Buren, 1866}). \dots$$

The first two formulæ give what are considered by their authors the best proportions, and the last gives minimum length for iron pins (the velocity of rubbing-surface in feet per minute.)

Formula (1) was obtained by observing locomotive practice in which the liability exists of annoyance by dust, and great risk occurs from overheating while running, and (2) by observation of crank-pins of marine engines. The first formula is therefore not well suited for marine engines.

Steel can usually be worked at nearly double the pressure admissible for iron running at similar speed.

Since the length of the crank-pin will be directly as the power applied upon it and inversely as the pressure, we may take it as

$$l = a \frac{\text{I.H.P.}}{L}, \dots$$

in which a is a constant, and L the stroke of piston, in feet. The values of the constant, as obtained by Mr. Skeel, are about as follows: $a = 0.04$ where water can be constantly used; $a = 0.045$ where water is not generally used; $a = 0.05$ where water is seldom used; $a = 0.06$ where water is never used. Unwin gives

$$l = a \frac{\text{I.H.P.}}{r}, \dots$$

in which r = crank radius in inches, $a = 0.3$ to $a = 0.4$ for iron and for marine engines, and $a = 0.066$ to $a = 0.1$ for the case of the best steel and for locomotive work, where it is often necessary to shorten up outside pins as far as possible.

J. B. Stanwood (*Eng'g*, June 12, 1891), in a table of dimensions of great American Corliss engines from 10 to 30 inches diameter of cylinder, gives sizes of crank-pins which approximate closely to the formula

$$l = .275D'' + .5 \text{ in.}; \quad d = .25D''.$$

By calculating lengths of iron crank-pins for the engines 10, 20, and 30 inches diameter, long and short stroke, by the several formulæ above given, I found that there is a great difference in the results, so that one formula in certain cases gives a length three times as great as another. Nos. (1) and (2) give lengths much greater than the others. Marks (1), Whitham (1), Thurston (1), $l = .06 \text{ I.H.P.} \div L$, and Unwin (2), $l = 0.1 \text{ I.H.P.} \div r$, give results more closely.

ated lengths of iron crank pins for the several cases by formulae (8) and (9) are as follows:

Length of Crank-pins,

cylinder.....	D	10	12	16	20	24	30
.....	L (ft.)	1	2	3 $\frac{1}{2}$	5	6	8
per minute.....	R	250	125	125	65	50	45
.....	I.H.P.	50	50	450	450	1,250	1,250
pressure.....	lbs.	7,854	7,854	70,686	70,686	136,296	136,296
re per cent of max.....	P	42	42	32.3	32.3	30	30
.....	P	3,299	3,299	22,832	22,832	56,505	56,505
ank-pin.....							
$l = .9075 \times .05 \text{ I.H.P.} + L$		2.18	1.99	3.17	4.08	14.15	7.09
$l = 1.038 \times .05 \text{ I.H.P.} + L$		2.59	1.91	3.34	4.67	16.12	8.11
$l = .06 \text{ I.H.P.} + L$		3.00	1.50	10.50	5.40	18.75	9.38
$l = 4 \text{ I.H.P.} + r$		3.33	1.67	12.0	6.0	20.83	10.42
$l = .3 \text{ I.H.P.} + r$		2.50	1.25	9.0	4.5	15.62	7.81
.....		2.72	1.36	9.86	4.93	17.12	8.56
st steel, $l = .1 \frac{\text{I.H.P.}}{r}$83	.42	3.0	1.5	5.21	2.61
steel, $l = \frac{PR}{600,000}$		1.37	.69	4.95	2.47	8.84	4.42

ated lengths for the long-stroke engines are too low to prevent stresses. See "Pressures on the Crank-pins," below.

length of the crank-pin is determined substantially as is a crank. In overhung cranks the load is usually assumed as an extremity, and, equating its moment with that of the resist-

$$\frac{1}{2}Pl = 1/32t\pi d^3, \text{ and } d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{5.1Pl}{t}}$$

d = diameter of pin in inches, P = maximum load on the piston, in lb. per sq. in. allowable stress on a square inch of the metal. For iron taken at 9000 lbs. For steel the diameters found by this formula increased 10%. (Thurston.)

the same formula in another form, viz.:

$$d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{5.1}{t}} \sqrt[3]{Pl} = \sqrt[3]{\frac{5.1}{t}} \sqrt[3]{P} \sqrt[3]{l}$$

to be used when the ratio of length to diameter is assumed. For light iron, $t = 6000$ to 9000 lbs. per sq. in.,

$$\sqrt[3]{\frac{5.1}{t}} = .0947 \text{ to } .0827; \quad \sqrt[3]{\frac{5.1}{t}} = .0291 \text{ to } .0238.$$

For $t = 9000$ to 13,000 lbs. per sq. in.,

$$\sqrt[3]{\frac{5.1}{t}} = .0827 \text{ to } .0723; \quad \sqrt[3]{\frac{5.1}{t}} = .0238 \text{ to } .0194.$$

It gives $d = 0.0827 \sqrt[3]{Pl} = 2.1058 \sqrt[3]{\frac{l \times \text{I.H.P.}}{LR}}$ for strength, and

$\sqrt[3]{\frac{5.1}{t}}$ for rigidity, and recommends that the diameter be calculated, and the largest result taken. The first is the safe diameter, with t taken at 9000 lbs. per sq. in. The second is the safe assumption.

rod, and working in brasses fitted into a recess in the piston-rod end and rod by a wrought-iron cap and two bolts, Seaton gives:

Diameter of gudgeon = 1.25 × diam. of piston-rod,
 Length of gudgeon = 1.4 × diam. of piston-rod.

If the pressure on the section, as calculated by multiplying length by diameter, exceeds 1200 lbs. per sq. in., this length should be increased.

B. Stanwood, in his "Ready Reference" book, gives for length of crosshead-pin 0.25 to 0.3 diam. of piston, and diam. = 0.18 to 0.2 diam. of piston. Since he gives for diam. of piston-rod 0.14 to 0.17 diam. of piston, dimensions for diameter and length of crosshead-pin are about 1.25 and 1.4 diam. of piston-rod respectively. Taking the maximum allowable pressure at 1200 lbs. per sq. in., and making the length of the crosshead-pin = 2.5 times its diameter, we have $d = \sqrt{P} + 40$, $l = \sqrt{P} + 30$, in which $P =$ maximum total load on piston in lbs., $d =$ diam., and $l =$ length of pin in inches. The engines of our example we have:

Diameter of piston, inches	10	30	50
Maximum load on piston, lbs.	7854	70,686	196,350
Diameter of crosshead-pin, inches	2.22	6.65	11.08
Length of crosshead-pin, inches	2.96	8.86	14.77
Stanwood's rule gives diameter, inches	1.8 to 2	5.4 to 6	9.0 to 10
Stanwood's rule gives length, inches	2.5 to 3	7.5 to 9	12.5 to 15
Stanwood's largest dimensions give pressure per sq. in., lbs.	1300	1329	1309

When pressures are greater than the maximum allowed by Seaton.

The Crank-arm.—The crank-arm is to be treated as a lever, so that a is the thickness in direction parallel to the shaft-axis and b its breadth at section x inches from the crank-pin centre, then, bending moment M at that section = Px , P being the thrust of the connecting-rod, and f the strain per square inch,

$$Px = \frac{fab^2}{6} \text{ and } \frac{a \times b^2}{6} = \frac{T}{f}, \text{ or } a = \frac{6T}{b^2 \times f}; \quad b = \sqrt{\frac{6T}{fa}}$$

If a crank-arm were constructed so that b varied as \sqrt{x} (as given by the above rule) it would be of such a curved form as to be inconvenient to manufacture, and consequently it is customary in practice to find the maximum value of b and draw tangent lines to the curve at the points; these tangents are generally, for the same reason, tangential to the boss of the crank-arm at the shaft.

The shearing strain is the same throughout the crank-arm; and, consequently, is large compared with the bending strain close to the crank-pin; so it is not sufficient to provide there only for bending strains. The section at this point should be such that, in addition to what is given by the calculation from the bending moment, there is an extra square inch for every 8000 lbs. of thrust on the connecting rod (Seaton).

The length of the boss h into which the shaft is fitted is from 0.75 to 1.0 times the diameter of the shaft D , and its thickness e must be calculated from the twisting strain PL . ($L =$ length of crank.)

For different values of length of boss h , the following values of thickness e are given by Seaton:

- When $h = D$, then $e = 0.35 D$; if steel, 0.3.
- $h = 0.9 D$, then $e = 0.38 D$, if steel, 0.32.
- $h = 0.8 D$, then $e = 0.40 D$, if steel, 0.33.
- $h = 0.7 D$, then $e = 0.41 D$, if steel, 0.34.

The crank-eye or boss into which the pin is fitted should bear the same relation to the pin that the boss does to the shaft.

The diameter of the shaft-end onto which the crank is fitted should be $\frac{1}{2}$ diameter of shaft.

Wurston says: The empirical proportions adopted by builders will commonly be found to fall well within the calculated safe margin. These proportions are, from the practice of successful designers, about as follows:—
 In the wrought-iron crank, the hub is 1.75 to 1.8 times the least diameter of the shaft carrying full load; the eye is 2.0 to 2.25 the diameter of the inserted portion of the pin, and their depths are, for the eye, 1.25 the diameter of shaft, and for the eye, 1.25 to 1.5 the diameter of shaft.

The web is made 0.7 to 0.75 the width of adjacent hub or eye, and its depth of 0.5 to 0.6 that of adjacent hub or eye.

For the cast-iron crank the hub and eye are a little larger, rag diameter respectively from 1.8 to 2 and from 2 to 2.2 times the diam. shaft and pin. The flanges are made at either end of nearly the full of hub or eye. Cast-iron has, however, fallen very generally into disuse.

The crank-shaft is usually enlarged at the seat of the crank to all its diameter at the journal. The size should be nicely adjusted to all the shrinkage or forcing on of the crank. A difference of diameter fifth of 1%, will usually suffice; and a common rule of practice allows allowance of but one half of this, or 0.01.

The formulae given by different writers for crank-arms practically since they all consider the crank as a beam loaded at one end and fixed at the other. The relation of breadth to thickness may vary according to taste of the designer. Calculated dimensions for our six engines are as follows:

Dimensions of Crank-arms.

Diam. of cylinder, ins.	10	10	30	30	50
Stroke <i>S</i> , ins.	12	24	30	60	48
Max. pressure on pin <i>P</i> , (approx.) lbs.	7854	7854	70,686	70,686	196,350
Diam. crank-pin <i>d</i>	2.10	2.10	7.34	5.58	12.40
Diam. shaft, $a\sqrt{\frac{2 \text{ I.H.P.}}{R} D}$ (<i>a</i> = 4.69, 5.09 and 5.22)	2.74	3.46	7.70	9.70	12.55
Length of boss, .8 <i>D</i>	2.19	2.77	6.16	7.76	10.04
Thickness of boss, .4 <i>D</i>	1.10	1.39	3.08	3.88	5.02
Diam. of boss, 1.8 <i>D</i>	4.93	6.28	13.86	17.46	22.59
Length crank-pin eye, .8 <i>d</i>	1.76	1.76	5.87	4.45	9.92
Thickness of crank-pin eye, .4 <i>d</i>88	.88	2.94	2.23	4.46
Max. mom. <i>T</i> at distance $\frac{1}{2}S - \frac{1}{2}D$ from centre of pin, inch-lbs.	37,149	80,661	788,149	1,848,439	3,479,322
Thickness of crank-arm <i>a</i> = .75 <i>D</i>	2.05	2.60	5.78	7.28	9.41
Greatest breadth, $b = \sqrt{\frac{6T}{9000a}}$	3.48	4.55	9.54	13.0	15.7
Min. mom. <i>T</i> ₀ at distance <i>d</i> from centre of pin = <i>Pd</i> Least breadth, $b_1 = \sqrt{\frac{6T_0}{9000a}}$	16,493	16,493	528,835	394,428	2,434,740
	2.32	2.06	7.81	6.01	13.15

The Shaft. — Twisting Resistance. — From the general

for torsion, we have: $T = \frac{\pi}{16} d^3 S = .19635 d^3 S$, whence $d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{5.1T}{S}}$,

T = torsional moment in inch-pounds, *d* = diameter in inches, and shearing resistance of the material in pounds per square inch.

If a constant force *P* were applied to the crank-pin tangentially so the work done per minute would be

$$P \times L \times \frac{2\pi}{12} \times R = 33,000 \times \text{I.H.P.},$$

in which *L* = length of crank in inches, and *R* = revs. per min., mean twisting moment $T = \frac{\text{I.H.P.}}{R} \times 63,025$. Therefore

$$d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{5.1T}{S}} = \sqrt[3]{\frac{321,427 \text{ I.H.P.}}{RS}}$$

may take the form

$$d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{\text{I.H.P.}}{R} \times F}, \text{ or } d = a \sqrt[3]{\frac{\text{I.H.P.}}{R}},$$

F and *a* are factors that depend on the strength of the material be factor of safety. Taking *S* at 45,000 pounds per square inch for iron, and at 60,000 for steel, we have, for simple twisting by a uni- gential force,

<i>f</i> safety =	5	6	8	10		5	6	8	10
<i>a</i>	<i>F</i> = 35.7	42.8	57.1	71.4		<i>a</i> = 3.3	3.5	3.85	4.15
el.....	<i>F</i> = 26.8	32.1	42.8	53.5		<i>a</i> = 3.0	3.18	3.5	3.77

taking for safe working strength of wrought iron 9000 lbs., steel 12,000 lbs., and cast iron 4500 lbs., gives *a* = 3.294 for wrought iron, 2.877 for cast iron. Thurston, for crank-axes of wrought iron, gives *a* = 4.15 or more.

f says: For wrought iron, *f*, the safe strain per square inch, should not exceed 9000 lbs., and when the shafts are more than 10 inches diameter, *f* should be 10,000 lbs. Steel, when made from the ingot and of good materials, will stand a stress of 12,000 lbs. for small shafts, and 10,000 lbs. for those above 10 inches diameter.

ference in the allowance between large and small shafts is to compensate for the defective material observable in the heart of large shafting, and the hammering failing to affect it.

Formula $d = a \sqrt[3]{\frac{\text{I.H.P.}}{R}}$ assumes the tangential force to be uniform

and that it is the only acting force. For engines, in which the tangential force varies with the angle between the crank and the connecting-rod, and in which there is variation in steam-pressure in the cylinder, and also is influenced by the inertia of the reciprocating parts, and in which also the shaft may be subjected to bending as well as torsion, the factor *a* must be increased, to allow for the maximum tangential force and for bending.

The following table showing the relation between the maximum mean twisting moments of engines working under various conditions, and the momentum of the moving parts being neglected, which is allow-

Description of Engine.	Steam Cut-off at	Max. Twist Divided by Mean Twist. Mome't	Cube Root of the Ratio.
Crank expansive.....	0.2	2.625	1.38
".....	0.4	2.125	1.29
".....	0.6	1.835	1.22
".....	0.8	1.698	1.20
Cylinder expansive, cranks at 90°.....	0.2	1.616	1.17
".....	0.3	1.475	1.12
".....	0.4	1.398	1.09
".....	0.5	1.256	1.08
".....	0.6	1.270	1.08
".....	0.7	1.329	1.10
".....	0.8	1.357	1.11
Cylinder compound, cranks 120°.....	h.p. 0.5, l.p. 0.66	1.40	1.12
"..... l.p. cranks } "..... other, and h.p. midway }	" "	1.26	1.08

The following table also gives the following rules for ordinary practice for ordinary marine engines:

Formula for the diameter of the tunnel-shafts = $\sqrt[3]{\frac{\text{I.H.P.}}{R} \times F}, \text{ or } a \sqrt[3]{\frac{\text{I.H.P.}}{R}}.$

Compound engines, cranks at right angles:

- Boiler pressure 70 lbs., rate of expansion 6 to 7, $F = 70$, $a = 4.12$.
 Boiler pressure 80 lbs., rate of expansion 7 to 8, $F = 72$, $a = 4.16$.
 Boiler pressure 90 lbs., rate of expansion 8 to 9, $F = 75$, $a = 4.22$.

Triple compound, three cranks at 120 degrees:

- Boiler pressure 150 lbs., rate of expansion 10 to 12, $F = 62$, $a = 3.9$.
 Boiler pressure 160 lbs., rate of expansion 11 to 13, $F = 64$, $a = 4$.
 Boiler pressure 170 lbs., rate of expansion 12 to 15, $F = 67$, $a = 4.09$.

Expansive engines, cranks at right angles, and the rate of expansion
 boiler-pressure 60 lbs., $F = 90$, $a = 4.48$.

Single-crank compound engines, pressure 80 lbs., $F = 96$, $a = 4.58$.

For the engines we are considering it will be a very liberal allowance
 ratio of maximum to mean twisting moment if we take it as equal to
 ratio of the maximum to the mean pressure on the piston. The factor
 then, in the formula for diameter of the shaft will be multiplied by the

root of this ratio, or $\sqrt[3]{\frac{100}{42}} = 1.34$, $\sqrt[3]{\frac{100}{32.3}} = 1.45$, and $\sqrt[3]{\frac{100}{30}} = 1.49$ for

10, 30, and 50-in. engines, respectively. Taking $a = 3.5$, which corresponds
 to a shearing strength of 60,000 and a factor of safety of 8 for steel,
 45,000 and a factor of 6 for iron, we have for the new coefficient a_1 , the

formula $d_1 = a_1 \sqrt[3]{\frac{\text{I.H.P.}}{R}}$, the values 4.69, 5.08, and 5.22, from which

obtain the diameters of shafts of the six engines as follows:

Engine No.	1	2	3	4	5
Diam. of cyl.	10	10	30	30	50
Horse-power, I.H.P.	50	50	450	450	1250
Revs. per min., R ,	250	125	130	65	90
Diam. of shaft $d = a_1 \sqrt[3]{\frac{\text{I.H.P.}}{R}}$	2.74	3.46	7.67	9.70	12.55

These diameters are calculated for twisting only. When the shaft is
 subjected to bending strain the calculation must be modified as below.

Resistance to Bending.—The strength of a circular section,
 to resist bending is one half of that to resist twisting. If B is the bending
 moment in inch-lbs., and d the diameter of the shaft in inches,

$$B = \frac{\pi d^3}{32} \times f; \text{ and } d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{B}{f} \times 10.2};$$

f is the safe strain per square inch of the material of which the shaft
 is composed, and its value may be taken as given above for twisting (See

Equivalent Twisting Moment.—When a shaft is subjected
 both to twisting and bending simultaneously, the combined strain on
 action of it may be measured by calculating what is called the *equivalent
 twisting moment*; that is, the two strains are so combined as to be
 as a twisting strain only of the same magnitude and the size of shaft
 calculated accordingly. Rankine gave the following solution of the combined
 action of the two strains.

If T = the twisting moment, and B = the bending moment on a section
 of a shaft, then the equivalent twisting moment $T_1 = B + \sqrt{4B^2 + T^2}$.

Shafts are subject always to twisting, bending,
 shearing strains; the latter are so small compared with the former
 they are usually neglected directly, but allowed for indirectly by means
 of the factor f .

The two principal strains vary throughout the revolution, and the
 equivalent twisting moment can only be obtained accurately by a
 series of calculations of bending and twisting moments taken at fixed
 intervals, and from them constructing a curve of strains.

Considering the engines of our examples to have overhead cranks,
 the maximum bending moment resulting from the thrust of the connecting
 rod will take place when the engine is passing the vertical position.
 The effect of the inertia of the reciprocating parts, and
 the effect of the total pressure on the piston by the distance

parallel lines passing through the centres of the crank-pin and of the shaft bearing, at right angles to their axes; which distance is equal to length of crank-pin bearing + length of hub + $\frac{1}{2}$ length of shaft-bearing + clearance that may be allowed between the crank and the two bearings. For our six engines we may take this distance as equal to $\frac{1}{2}$ length of crank-pin + thickness of crank-arm + $1.5 \times$ the diameter of the shaft as readily found by the calculation for twisting. The calculation of diameter then as below:

Engine No.	1	2	3	4	5	6
diam. of cyl., in.	10	10	30	30	50	50
horse-power.	50	50	450	450	1250	1250
revs. per min.	250	125	130	65	90	45
max. press. on pis., P	7,854	7,854	70,686	70,686	196,350	196,350
average, $* L \text{ in.} \dots$	6.32	7.94	22.20	26.00	36.80	42.25
lmo. $PL = B \text{ in.} \cdot \text{lb.}$	49,637	62,361	1,569,222	1,887,836	7,225,680	8,295,788
dist. mom. T	47,124	94,248	1,060,290	2,120,580	4,712,400	9,424,800
equiv. Twist. mom.						
$T_1 = B + \sqrt{B^2 + T^2}$						
(approx.)	118,000	175,000	3,463,000	4,647,000	15,840,000	30,850,000

* Leverage = distance between centres of crank-pin and shaft bearing = $L + 2.25d$.

Having already found the diameters, on the assumption that the shafts are subjected to a twisting moment T only, we may find the diameter for twisting combined bending and twisting by multiplying the diameters readily found by the cube roots of the ratio $T_1 \div T$, or

Twisting corrected diameters $d_1 = \dots$

1.40	1.37	1.45	1.34	1.54	1.36
3.84	4.39	11.35	12.99	20.58	21.52

By plotting these results, using the diameters of the cylinders for abscissas and diameters of the shafts for ordinates, we find that for the long-stroke engines the results lie almost in a straight line expressed by the formula, diameter of shaft = $.43 \times$ diameter of cylinder; for the short-stroke engines the line is slightly curved, but does not diverge far from a straight line whose equation is, diameter of shaft = $.4$ diameter of cylinder. Using these formulas, the diameters of the shafts will be 4.0, 4.3, 12.0, 12.3, 20.0, 21.5. F. B. Stanwood, in *Engineering*, June 12, 1891, gives dimensions of shafts for Corliss engines in American practice for cylinders 10 to 30 in. diameter. The diameters range from $4 \frac{15}{16}$ to $14 \frac{15}{16}$, following precisely the equation, diameter of shaft = $\frac{1}{4}$ diameter of cylinder - $\frac{1}{16}$ inch.

Fly-wheel Shafts.—Thus far we have considered the shaft as resisting the force of torsion and the bending moment produced by the pressure of the crank-pin. In the case of fly-wheel engines the shaft on the opposite side of the bearing from the crank-pin has to be designed with reference to the bending moment caused by the weight of the fly-wheel, the weight of the shaft itself, and the strain of the belt. For engines in which there is an overboard bearing, the weight of fly-wheel and shaft being supported by two bearings, the point of the shaft at which the bending moment is a maximum may be taken as the point midway between the two bearings or the middle of the fly-wheel hub, and the amount of the moment is the product of the weight supported by one of the bearings into the distance from the centre of that bearing to the middle point of the shaft. The shaft has to be treated as a beam supported at the ends and loaded in the middle. In the case of an overhung fly-wheel, the shaft having only one bearing, the point of maximum moment should be taken as the middle of the bearing, and its amount is very nearly the product of half the weight of the fly-wheel and the shaft into the distance from the middle of its hub to the middle of the bearing. The bending moment should be calculated and combined with the twisting moment as above shown, to obtain the equivalent twisting moment, and the diameter necessary at the point of maximum moment calculated therefrom.

In the case of our six engines we assume that the weights of the shafts, together with the shaft, are double the weight of fly-wheel as deduced from the formula, $W = 785,400 \frac{d^2 s}{R^2 D^2}$ (given under Fly-w)

that the shaft is supported by an outboard bearing, the distance between the two bearings being 2½, 5, and 10 feet for the 10-hp., 30-hp., and 50-hp. engines, respectively. The diameters of the fly-wheels are taken so that their rim velocity will be a little less than 6000 feet per minute.

Engine No.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Diam. of cyl., inches.	10	10	30	30	30	30
Diam. of fly-wheel, ft.	7.5	15	14.5	29	21	21
Revs. per min.	250	125	130	65	90	90
Half wt. fly-wh'l and shaft, lb.	268	536	5,963	11,936	26,284	26,284
Lever arm for max. mom., in.	15	15	30	30	60	60
Max. bending moment, in.-lb.	4020	8040	179,040	358,080	1,583,070	1,583,070

As these are very much less than the bending moments calculated for the pressures on the crank-pin, the diameters already found are sufficient for the diameter of the shaft at the fly-wheel hub.

In the case of engines with heavy band fly-wheels and with long fly-shafts it is of the utmost importance to calculate the diameter of the shaft with reference to the bending moment due to the weight of the fly-wheel and the shaft.

B. H. Coffey (*Power*, October, 1892) gives the formula for combined bending and twisting resistance, $T_1 = 196d^3S$, in which $T_1 = B + \sqrt{B^2 + T^2}$ being the maximum, not the mean twisting moment; and finds safe working values for $196S$ as below. He says: Four points should be considered in determining this value: First, the nature of the material; second, the manner of applying the loads, with shock or otherwise; third, the ratio of the bending moment to the torsional moment—the bending moment revolving shaft produces reversed strains in the material, which tend to weaken it; fourth, the size of the section. Inch for inch, large sections are weaker than small ones. He puts the dividing line between large and small sections at 10 in. diameter, and gives the following safe values of $S \times 196$, steel, wrought iron, and cast iron, for these conditions.

VALUE OF $S \times 196$.

Ratio.	Heavy Shafts with Shock.			Light shafts with Shock. Heavy Shafts No Shock.			Light Shafts No Shock.	
	Steel.	Wro't Iron.	Cast Iron.	Steel.	Wro't Iron.	Cast Iron.	Steel.	Wro't Iron.
B to T .								
3 to 10 or less.	1045	880	440	1566	1320	660	3390	1770
3 to 5 or less.	941	785	393	1410	1179	589	1892	1350
1 to 1 or less.	855	715	358	1281	1074	537	1710	1240
B greater than T .	784	655	328	1176	984	492	1568	1130

Mr. Coffey gives as an example of improper dimensions the shaft of a 1500 H.P. engine at Willimantic, Conn., which broke while the engine was running at 435 H.P. The shaft was 17 ft. 5 in. long between centers of bearings, 18 in. diam. for 8 ft. in the middle, and 15 in. diam. for the remainder, including the bearings. It broke at the base of the fillet joining the two large diameters, or 5½ in. from the centre of the bearings. Coffey calculates the mean torsional moment to be 446,651 inch-pounds, the maximum at twice the mean; and the total weight on one bearing 4000 lbs., which, multiplied by 5½ in., gives 4,945,445 in.-lbs. bending moment at the fillet. Applying the formula $T_1 = B + \sqrt{B^2 + T^2}$ gives for equivalent twisting moment 9,971,045 in.-lbs. Substituting this value in the formula $T_1 = 196Sd^3$ gives for S the shearing strain 15,070 lbs. per sq. in. of metal had a shearing strength of 45,000 lbs., a factor of safety of 3. Mr. Coffey considers that 6000 lbs. is all that should be allowed for these circumstances. This would give $d = 20.35$ in. If we take for S Coffey's table a value of $196S = 1100$, we obtain $d^3 = 2000$ nearly, or $d = 12.6$ in. instead of 20.35 in. the actual diameter.

Length of bearings.—There is as great a difference of opinion as to the length of bearings, and as great a variation in practice concerning them as there is concerning crank-pins. The best

DIMENSIONS OF PARTS OF ENGINES.

Journal being determined from considerations of its heating, the formulae concerning heating of crank-pins apply also to shaft-bearings. Formulae for length of crank-pins to avoid heating may also be used for the total load upon the bearing the resultant of all the pressures on it, by the pressure on the crank, by the weight of the fly-wheel and the pull of the belt. After determining this pressure, however, resort to empirical values for the so-called constants of the formulae, which depend on the power of the bearing to carry away heat upon the quantity of heat generated, which latter depends on the area, on the number of square feet of rubbing surface passed off per minute, and upon the coefficient of friction. This coefficient is an extremely variable quantity, ranging from .01 or less with perfectly polished journals, having end-play, and lubricated by a pad or oil-bath, to .10 with ordinary oil-cup lubrication.

For shafts resisting torsion only, Marks gives for length of bearing $l = 0.00247/pND^2$, in which f is the coefficient of friction, p the mean pressure in pounds per square inch on the piston, N the number of single strokes per minute, and D the diameter of the piston. For shafts under the stress due to pressure on the crank-pin, weight of fly-wheel, etc., the following: Let Q = reaction at bearing due to weight, S = steam pressure on piston, and R_1 = the resultant force; for horizontal

$R_1 = \sqrt{Q^2 + S^2}$, for vertical engines $R_1 = Q + S$, when the pressure on the crank is in the same direction as the pressure of the shaft on its bearings. $R_1 = Q - S$ when the steam pressure tends to lift the shaft on its bearings. Using empirical values for the work of friction per square foot of projected area, taken from dimensions of crank-pins in marine engines, he finds the formula for length of shaft-journals $l = .0000325/R$ recommends that to cover the defects of workmanship, neglect of the introduction of dust, f be taken at .15 or even greater. For shafts of 500 lbs. per sq. in. of projected area may be allowed for steel or wrought-iron shafts in brass bearings with good results if a less pressure is not made without inconvenience. Marks says that the use of empirical rules do not take account of the number of turns per minute has resulted in journals much too long for slow-speed engines and too short for high-speed engines.

Whitman gives the same formula, with the coefficient .00002575.

Thurston says that the maximum allowable mean intensity of pressure may be, for all cases, computed by his formula for journals, $l = \frac{1}{60}$

by Rankine's, $l = \frac{F(V+20)}{44,800d}$, in which P is the mean total pressure in pounds, F the velocity of rubbing surface in feet per minute, and d the diameter of the shaft in inches. It must be borne in mind, he says, that the friction on the main bearing next the crank is the sum of that due to the action of the piston on the pin, and that due to that portion of the weight of the shaft and of pull of the belt which is carried there. The outboard bearing carries practically only the latter two parts of the total. The crank journals will be made longer on one side, and perhaps shorter on the other than that of the crank-pin, in proportion to the work falling upon them to their respective products of mean total pressure, speed of rubbing surface, and coefficients of friction.

Unwin says: Journals running at 150 revolutions per minute at only one diameter long. Fan shafts running 150 revolutions per minute journals six or eight diameters long. The ordinary empirical mode of portioning the length of journals is to make the length proportional to diameter, and to make the ratio of length to diameter increase with speed. For wrought-iron journals:

Revs. per min. =	50	100	150	200	250	300	500	1000	$\frac{l}{d} = .00$
Length + diam. =	1.2	1.4	1.6	1.8	2.0	3.0	5.0		

Cast-iron journals may have $l + d = 9/10$, and steel journals $l + d$ of the above values.

Unwin gives the following, calculated from the formula $l = \frac{H.P.}{r}$, in which r is the crank radius in inches, and H.P. the horse-power to the crank-pin.

THEORETICAL JOURNAL LENGTH IN INCHES.

Load on Journal in pounds.	Revolutions of Journal per minute.					
	50	100	200	300	500	1000
1,000	.3	.4	.8	1.2	2.	4.
2,000	.4	.8	1.6	2.4	4.	8.
4,000	.8	1.6	3.2	4.8	8.	16.
5,000	1.0	2.	4.	6.	10.	20.
10,000	2.	4.	8.	12.	20.	40.
15,000	3.	6.	12.	18.	30.
20,000	4.	8.	16.	24.	40.
30,000	6.	12.	24.	36.
40,000	8.	16.	32.
50,000	10.	20.	40.

Applying these different formulæ to our six engines, we have:

Engine No.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
Diam. cyl.....	10	10	30	50	50	50
Horse-power.....	50	50	450	450	1,250	1,250
Revs. per min.....	250	125	100	65	90	90
Mean pressure on crank-pin = S	3,299	3,299	23,185	23,185	23,185	23,185
Half wt. of fly-wheel and shaft = Q	268	636	5,968	11,936	26,470	52,940
Resultant press. on bearing $\sqrt{Q^2 + S^2} = R_1$	3,310	3,335	23,924	26,194	64,580	72,220
Diam. of shaft journal.....	3.84	4.39	11.35	13.99	30.58	31.22
Length of shaft journal:						
Marks, $l = .0000325fR_1N(f=10)$	5.38	2.71	30.87	11.07	37.78	37.17
Whitham, $l = .0000515fR_1N(f=10)$	4.27	2.15	16.53	8.77	29.85	18.30
Thurston, $l = \frac{PV}{60,000d}$	3.61	1.82	14.00	7.43	23.30	10.30
Rankine, $l = \frac{P(V+20)}{44,800d}$	5.23	2.78	21.70	10.85	35.16	22.47
Unwin, $l = (.004R + 1)d$	7.68	6.59	17.26	16.36	27.99	25.38
Unwin, $l = \frac{0.4 \text{ H.P.}}{r}$	3.33	1.60	12.00	6.00	30.83	16.44
Average.....	4.92	2.99	17.05	10.00	29.54	19.22

If we divide the mean resultant pressure on the bearing by the projected area, that is, by the product of the diameter and length of the journal, using the greatest and smallest length out of the seven lengths for each journal given above, we obtain the pressure per square inch upon the bearing, as follows:

Engine No.....	1	2	3	4	5	6
Pressure per sq. in., shortest journal.....	259	455	176	336	151	334
Longest journal.....	112	115	97	123	83	143
Average journal.....	175	254	134	292	107	164
Journal of length = diam.....	173	155	173

Many of the formulæ give for the long-stroke engines a length of journal less than the diameter, but such short journals are rarely used in practice. The last line in the above table has been calculated on the supposition that

als of the long-stroke engines are made of a length equal to the

dimensions of Corliss engines given by J. B. Stanwood (*Eng.*, June the lengths of the journals for engines of diam. of cyl. 10 to 20 in. are as the diam. of the cylinder, and a little more than twice the journal. For engines above 20 in. diam. of cyl. the ratio of diam. is decreased so that an engine of 30 in. diam. has a journal of 14 in. diameter being 14 1/2 in. These lengths of journal are greater than those given by any of the formulæ above quoted.

There appears to be a hopeless confusion in the various formulæ for shaft journals, but this is no more than is to be expected from the want of uniformity in the coefficient of friction, and in the heat-conducting power of the metal in actual use, the coefficient varying from .10 (or even .16 as given by some) down to .01, according to the condition of the bearing surfaces

and efficiency of lubrication. Thurston's formula, $l = \frac{PV}{60,000d}$, reduces to

$l = .00004363PR$, in which P = mean total load on journal, and R = revolutions per minute. This is of the same form as Marks' and Unwin's formulæ, in which, if f the coefficient of friction be taken at .10, the constants of PR are, respectively, .000065 and .0000515. Taking the

these three formulæ, we have $l = .000053PR$, if $f = .10$ or $l = .000053PR$ for any other value of f . The author believes this to be as safe as any for length of journals, with the limitation that if it brings the length of journal less than the diameter, then the length should be equal to the diameter. Whenever with $f = .10$ it gives a length

inconvenient or impossible of construction on account of limited space, provision should be made to reduce the value of the coefficient of friction below .10 by means of forced lubrication, end play, etc., and to dissipate the heat, as by water-cooled journal-boxes. The value of P should be taken as the resultant of the mean pressure on the crank, and the weight on the bearing by the weight of the shaft, fly-wheel, etc., as given by the formula already given, viz., $R_1 = \sqrt{Q^2 + S^2}$ for horizontal engines, and $R_1 = Q + S$ for vertical engines.

For six engines the formula $l = .000053PR$ gives, with the limitation that for long-stroke engines that the length shall not be less than the diameter, the following:

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Journal.....	4.39	4.39	16.48	12.99	30.80	21.52
per square inch on journal..	196	173	128	155	102	171

Crank-shafts with Centre-crank and Double-crank

In centre-crank engines, one of the crank-arms, and its adjoining journal, usually transmit the power of the engine, and its work is to be done, and the journal resists both twisting and bending

moment, while the other journal is subjected to bending moment only. For double-crank-journal the diameter should be calculated the same as for a single crank, using the formula for combined bending and twisting

$T_1 = B + \sqrt{B^2 + T^2}$, in which T_1 is the equivalent twisting moment, B the bending moment, and T the twisting moment. This value

may be used in the formula diameter = $\sqrt[3]{\frac{5.1T}{S}}$. The bending moment

may be taken as the maximum load on piston multiplied by one fourth of the length of the crank-shaft between middle points of the two journals if the centre crank is midway between the bearings, or by one fourth of the distance measured parallel to the shaft from the middle of the crank to the middle of the after bearing. This supposes the crank to be a beam loaded at its middle and supported at the ends, but would make the bending moment only one half of this, considering it to be a beam secured or fixed at the ends, with a point of contact one fourth of the length from the end. The first supposition is

more correct, but since the bending moment will in any case be much less than the twisting moment, the resulting diameter will be but little greater than that which would be used if the first supposition is used. For the forward journal, which is subjected to twisting moment only, diameter of shaft = $\sqrt[3]{\frac{10.2B}{S}}$,

is the maximum bending moment and S the safe shearing strength of metal per square inch.

For our six engines, assuming them to be centre-crank engines, considering the crank-shaft to be a beam supported at the ends at the middle, and assuming lengths between centres of shaft given below, we have:

Engine No.	1	2	3	4	5
Length of shaft, assumed, inches, L	20	24	48	60	75
Max. press. on crank-pin, P	7,854	7,854	70,686	70,686	196,000
Max. bending moment, $B = \frac{1}{4}PL$, inch-lbs.	39,370	49,637	848,232	1,060,290	3,729,000
Twisting moment, T	47,124	94,248	1,060,290	2,120,580	4,712,000
Equiv. twisting moment, $B + \sqrt{B^2 + T^2}$	101,000	156,000	2,208,000	3,430,000	9,740,000
Diameter of after journal, $d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{5.1T_1}{8000}}$	3.98	4.60	11.15	13.00	15.00
Diam. of forward journal, $d_1 = \sqrt[3]{\frac{10.2B}{8000}}$	3.68	3.99	10.28	11.16	16.00

The lengths of the journals would be calculated in the same case of overhung cranks, by the formula $l = .00063/PPR$, the resultant of the mean pressure due to pressure of steam on the piston and the load of the fly-wheel, shaft, etc., on each of the two journals. Unless the pressures are equally divided between the two journals, the calculated lengths of the two will be different; but it is usual to make them both of the same length, and in no case to make them less than the diameter. The diameters also are usually made the same for both journals, using the largest diameter found by calculation.

The crank-pin for a centre crank should be of the same length as for an overhung crank, since the length is determined from considerations of strength, and not of strength. The diameter also will usually be the same, since it is made great enough to make the pressure per square inch on the projected area (product of length by diameter) small enough to insure free lubrication, and the diameter so calculated will be great enough for strength.

Crank-shaft with Two Cranks coupled at 90°.—The whole power of the engine is transmitted through the after crank, after crank-shaft, the greatest twisting moment is equal to the maximum twisting moment due to the pressure on one of the cranks. If T = the maximum twisting moment produced by the steam on one of the pistons, then T_1 the maximum twisting moment on the crank-shaft, and on the line-shaft, produced when each crank is at an angle of 45° with the centre line of the engine, is 1.414 T . This value in the formula for diameter to resist simple torsion

$$\sqrt[3]{\frac{5.1T}{S}}, \text{ we have } d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{5.1 \times 1.414T}{S}}, \text{ or } d = 1.932 \sqrt[3]{\frac{T}{S}},$$

where T is the maximum twisting moment produced by one of the pistons in inch-pounds, and S = safe working shearing strength of the metal. For the forward journal of the after crank, and the after journal of the forward crank, the torsional moment is that due to the pressure on the forward piston only, and for the forward journal of the after crank, if none of the power of the engine is transmitted to the after crank, the torsional moment is zero, and its diameter is to be calculated from the bending moment only.

Combining Torsion and Flexure.—Let B_1 = the bending moment on the forward crank due to maximum pressure on the forward piston, either on the forward crank due to maximum pressure on the forward piston, or on the forward crank due to maximum pressure on the after piston, and T_1 = the twisting moment on the forward crank due to maximum pressure on the forward piston, either on the forward crank due to maximum pressure on the forward piston, or on the forward crank due to maximum pressure on the after piston, and d_1 = the diameter of the forward journal of the forward crank, then

ward piston, B_2 = bending moment on either journal of the after crank to maximum pressure on after piston, T_1 = maximum twisting moment on after journal of forward crank, and T_2 = maximum twisting moment on after journal of after crank due to pressure on the after piston.

The equivalent twisting moment on after journal of forward crank = $B_1 \sqrt{B_1^2 + T_1^2}$.

The forward journal of after crank = $B_2 + \sqrt{B_2^2 + T_1^2}$.

The after journal of after crank = $B_2 + \sqrt{B_2^2 + (T_1 + T_2)^2}$.

These values of equivalent twisting moment are to be used in the formula

Diameter of journals $d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{5.1T}{S}}$. For the forward journal of the

forward crank-shaft $d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{10.2B_1}{S}}$.

It is customary to make the two journals of the forward crank of one diameter, viz., that calculated for the after journal.

Or a Three-cylinder Engine with cranks at 120° , the greatest bending moment on the after part of the shaft, if the maximum pressures on the three pistons are equal, is equal to twice the maximum pressure on one piston, and it takes place when two of the cranks make angles of 60° with the centre line, the third crank being at right angles to it. (For demonstration, see Whitham's "Steam-engine Design," p. 252.) For combined deflection and flexure the same method as above given for two crank engines adopted for the first two cranks; and for the third, or after crank, if all the power of the three cylinders is transmitted through it, we have the equivalent twisting moment on the forward journal = $B_2 + \sqrt{B_2^2 + (T_1 + T_2)^2}$, on the after journal = $B_2 + \sqrt{B_2^2 + (T_1 + T_2 + T_3)^2}$, B_2 and T_3 being respectively the bending and twisting moments due to the pressure on the after piston.

Crank-shafts for Triple-expansion Marine Engines. According to an article in *The Engineer*, April 25, 1890, should be made greater than the formulae would call for, in order to provide for the stresses due to the racing of the propeller in a sea-way, which can scarcely be calculated. A kind of unwritten law has sprung up for fixing the size of a crank-shaft, according to which the diameter of the shaft is made about $0.7D$, where D is the diameter of the high-pressure cylinder. This is for solid shafts. When the speeds are high, as in war-ships, and the stroke is long, the formula becomes $0.4D$, even for hollow shafts.

The Valve-stem or Valve-rod.—The valve-rod should be designed to move the valve under the most unfavorable conditions, which are when the stem acts by thrusting, as a long column, when the valve is unbalanced (balanced valve may become unbalanced by the joint leaking) and when it is imperfectly lubricated. The load on the valve is the product of the area of the greatest unbalanced pressure upon it per square inch, and the coefficient of friction may be as high as 20%. The product of this coefficient and the load is the force necessary to move the valve, which equals the minimum thrust on the valve-rod. From this force the diameter of the valve-rod may be calculated by Hodgkinson's formula for columns. An

empirical formula given by Seaton is: Diam. of rod = $d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{lbp}{F}}$, in which

l = length and b = breadth of valve, in inches; p = maximum absolute pressure on the valve in lbs. per sq. in., and F a coefficient whose values are, for iron: long rod 10,000, short 12,000; for steel: long rod 12,000, short 14,500. Seaton gives the short empirical rule: Diam. of valve-rod = $1/30$ diam. of piston-rod.

Size of Slot-link. (Seaton.)—Let D be the diam. of the valve rod

$$D = \sqrt[3]{\frac{lbp}{12,000}}$$

Diameter of block-pin when overhung	= D .
" " " secured at both ends	= $0.75 \times D$.
" " eccentric-rod pins	= $0.7 \times D$.
" " suspension-rod pins	= $0.55 \times D$.
" " " pin when overhung	= $0.75 \times D$.

Breadth of link	= 0.8 to 0.9 × D.
Length of block	= 1.8 to 1.6 × D.
Thickness of bars of link at middle	= 0.7 × D.
If a single suspension rod of round section, its diameter = 0.7 × D.	
If two suspension rods of round section, their diameter = 0.50 × D.	

Size of Double-bar Links.—When the distance between eccentric pins = 6 to 8 times throw of eccentrics (throw = eccentric half-travel of valve at full gear) D as before :

Depth of bars	= 1.25 × D + $\frac{3}{4}$ in.
Thickness of bars	= 0.5 × D + $\frac{1}{4}$ in.
Length of sliding-block	= 2.5 to 3 × D.
Diameter of eccentric-rod pins	= 0.8 × D + $\frac{1}{4}$ in.
“ centre of sliding-block	= 1.3 × D.

When the distance between eccentric-rod pins = 5 to 5½ times eccentrics:

Depth of bars	= 1.25 × D + $\frac{1}{2}$ in.
Thickness of bars	= 0.5 × D + $\frac{1}{4}$ in.
Length of sliding-block	= 2.5 to 3 × D.
Diameter of eccentric-rod pins	= 0.75 × D.

Diameter of eccentric bolts (top end) at bottom of thread = 0.43 of iron, and 0.38 × D when of steel.

The Eccentric.—Diam. of eccentric-sheave = 2.4 × throw of + 1.2 × diam. of shaft. D as before

Breadth of the sheave at the shaft = 1.15 × D +
Breadth of the sheave at the strap = D + 0.6 in
Thickness of metal around the shaft = 0.7 × D +
Thickness of metal at circumference = 0.6 × D +
Breadth of key = 0.7 × D +
Thickness of key = 0.25 × D +
Diameter of bolts connecting parts of strap = 0.6 × D +

THICKNESS OF ECCENTRIC-STRAP.

When of bronze or malleable cast iron:

Thickness of eccentric-strap at the middle = 0.4 × D +
“ “ “ “ sides = 0.3 × D +

When of wrought iron or cast steel:

Thickness of eccentric-strap at the middle = 0.4 × D +
“ “ “ “ sides = 0.27 × D +

The Eccentric-rod.—The diameter of the eccentric-rod at and at the eccentric end may be calculated in the same way as a connecting-rod, the length being taken from centre of strap to pin. Diameter at the link end = 0.5D + 0.2 inch.

This is for wrought-iron; no reduction in size should be made if Eccentric-rods are often made of rectangular section.

Reversing-gear should be so designed as to have more than strength to withstand the strain of both the valves and their gear same time under the most unfavorable circumstances; it will the stiffness requisite for good working.

Assuming the work done in reversing the link-motion, W , to be due to overcoming the friction of the valves themselves through a travel, then, if T be the travel of valves in inches; for a compound

$$W = \frac{T}{12} \left(\frac{l \times b \times p}{5} \right) + \frac{T}{12} \left(\frac{l^3 \times b^3 \times p^3}{5} \right);$$

l , b^3 and p^3 being length, breadth and maximum steam-pressure of the second cylinder; and for an expansive engine

$$W = 2 \times \frac{T}{12} \left(\frac{l \times b \times p}{5} \right); \text{ or } \frac{T}{30} (l \times b \times p).$$

To provide for the friction of link-motion, eccentrics and so on for abnormal conditions of the same, take the work at one or two above and

strain at any part of the gear having motion when reversing, or so found by the space moved through by that part in feet; S is the strain in pounds; and the size may be found from the rules of construction for any of the parts of the gear. (Seaton.)

Frames or Bed-plates.—No definite rules for the design of frames have been given by authors of works on the steam-engine. Plans are left to the designer who uses "rule of thumb," or who designs existing engines. F. A. Halsey (*Am. Mach.*, Feb. 14, 1895) has given a comparison of proportions of the frames of horizontal Corliss vertical builders. The method of comparison is to compute from the number of square inches in the smallest cross-section of the frame, that is, immediately behind the pillow-block, also the total maximum pressure upon the piston, and to divide the result by the former. The result gives the number of pounds on the piston allowed for each square inch of metal in the frame, and finds that the number of pounds per square inch of smallest section varies from 217 for a 10 × 30-in. engine up to 575 for a 30 × 60-in. engine. A 30 × 60-inch engine shows 350 lbs., and a 32-inch engine which has been running for many years shows 667 lbs. Generally the load increases with the size of the engine, and more cross-section of metal than with relatively long strokes than with short ones.

Above Mr. Halsey formulates the general rule that in engines of moderate speed, and having strokes up to one and one-half times the diameter of the cylinder, the load per square inch of smallest section of the cylinder should be 300 pounds, which figure should be increased for higher speeds up to 500 pounds for a 30-inch cylinder of same relative diameter. For high speeds or for longer strokes the load per square inch should be increased.

FLY-WHEELS.

The function of a fly-wheel is to store up and to restore the periodical fluctuation of energy given to or taken from an engine or machine, and thus to maintain approximately constant the velocity of rotation. Rankine calls the

coefficient of fluctuation of speed or of unsteadiness, in terms of the mean actual energy, and ΔE the excess of energy received or expended, above the mean, during a given interval. The ratio of the excess or deficiency of energy ΔE to the whole energy exerted during one revolution General Morin found to be from $1/6$ to $1/4$ for engines using expansion; the shorter the cut-off the higher the value; for a pair of engines with cranks coupled at 90° the value of the fluctuation is $1/4$, and for three engines with cranks at 120° , $1/12$ of its value for a pair of engines. For tools working at intervals, such as punch-plate-cutting machines, coining-presses, etc., ΔE is nearly equal to the whole work performed at each operation.

Rankine reduces the coefficient $\frac{\Delta E}{2E_0}$ to a certain fixed amount, being $1/50$ for ordinary machinery, and $1/60$ for machinery for fine

work. Let ΔE be the fluctuation of energy, I the moment of inertia of the fly-wheel, and ω_0 its mean angular velocity, $I = \frac{mg\Delta E}{\omega_0^2}$. As the rim of

the fly-wheel is usually heavy in comparison with the arms, I may be taken as the moment of inertia of the rim in which $W =$ weight of rim in pounds, and r the radius of the fly-wheel, $I = \frac{W r^2}{2} = \frac{mg\Delta E}{\omega_0^2}$, if v be the velocity of the rim in feet per second, $\omega_0 = \frac{v}{r}$.

The ordinary values of the product of time being the second, lie between 1000 and 2000 feet. (See Rankine, *S. E.*, p. 62.)

For engines with automatic valve-gear $W = 250,000$

$A =$ area of piston in square inches, $S =$ stroke in

feet, $P =$ pressure in lbs. per sq. in., $R =$ revolutions per min of fly-wheel in feet. Thurston also gives for ordi-

an ordinary cast, and 1 per cent when heavily loaded. For ordinary purposes, $V = 2\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 per cent. For good purposes, such as cotton-spinning, the variation should be 1 per cent.

F. M. Rites (Trans. A. S. M. E., xiv, 100) develops a new formula for the weight of rim, viz., $W = \frac{C \times \text{I.H.P.}}{R^2 D^2}$, and weight of rim per hour

which C varies from 10,000,000,000 to 30,000,000,000; also, for a given weight of rim, he obtains for the energy of the fly-wheel $\frac{Mv^2}{2}$

$$C \times \text{H.P.} (3.14)^2 D^2 R^2 = \frac{850,000 \text{ H.P.}}{R}. \text{ Fly-wheel energy}$$

The limit of variation of speed with such a weight of fly-wheel is less than .0023.

The value of the constant C given by Mr. Rites was determined from the Westinghouse single-acting engines used for electric-lighting. For double-acting engines in ordinary service a value of $C = 10,000,000,000$ probably be ample.

From these formulae it appears that the weight of the fly-wheel should vary inversely with the cube of the diameter of the cylinder.

J. B. Stanwood (*Eng'g*, June 12, 1891) says: When the lowest piston-speed probable for an engine of a certain weight for that speed approximates closely to the formula

$$W = 700,000 \frac{d^2 s}{D^2 R^2}$$

W = weight in pounds, d = diameter of cylinder in inches, D = diameter of wheel in feet, R = revolutions per minute corresponding to 480 feet piston-speed.

In a Ready Reference Book published by Mr. Stanwood he gives the same formula, with coefficients as follows: ordinary engines, ordinary duty, 350,000; same, electric-lighting, 700,000; high-speed engines, 1,000,000; for Corliss engines, ordinary duty, 1,000,000.

Thurston's formula above given, $W = \frac{aAS}{R^2 D^2}$, with $a =$

engines operating—

Hammering and crushing machinery.....	$d = 5$
Pumping and shearing machinery.....	$d = 30$ to 30
Weaving and paper-making machinery.....	$d = 40$
Milling machinery.....	$d = 50$
Spinning machinery.....	$d = 50$ to 100
Ordinary driving-engines (mounted on bed-plate), belt transmission.....	$d = 35$
Gear-wheel transmission.....	$d = 50$

Theiss's formula for weight of fly-wheel in pounds is $W = i \times \frac{d \times I.H.P.}{V^2 \times n}$,
 d is the coefficient of steadiness, V the mean velocity of the fly-wheel rim in feet per second, n the number of revolutions per minute, i is the coefficient obtained by graphical solution, the values of which for different conditions are given in the following table. In the lines under "cut-off" p means "compression to initial pressure," and O "no compression":

VALUES OF i . SINGLE-CYLINDER NON-CONDENSING ENGINES.

speed, ft. per min.	Cut-off, 1/6.		Cut-off, 1/4.		Cut-off, 1/3.		Cut-off, 1/2.	
	Comp. p	O	Comp. p	O	Comp. p	O	Comp. p	O
200	272,690	218,580	242,010	209,170	220,760	201,920	193,340	182,840
400	240,810	187,430	208,300	179,460	188,510	170,040	174,630	167,860
600	194,670	145,400	168,590	136,460	165,210	146,610
800	158,200	108,690	162,070	135,260

SINGLE-CYLINDER CONDENSING ENGINES.

speed, ft. per min.	Cut-off, 1/6.		Cut-off, 1/4.		Cut-off, 1/3.		Cut-off, 1/2.	
	Comp. p	O	Comp. p	O	Comp. p	O	Comp. p	O
200	265,560	176,560	224,160	173,660	204,210	167,140	189,600	161,830
400	194,550	117,870	174,380	118,350	164,730	133,080	174,630	151,680
600	148,780	140,090

TWO-CYLINDER ENGINES, CRANKS AT 90°.

speed, ft. per min.	Cut-off, 1/6.		Cut-off, 1/4.		Cut-off, 1/3.		Cut-off, 1/2.	
	Comp. p	O	Comp. p	O	Comp. p	O	Comp. p	O
200	71,980	} Mean 60,140	59,420	} Mean 54,340	49,272	} Mean 50,000	37,920	} Mean 36,950
400	70,160		57,000		49,150		35,500	
600	70,040		57,480		49,320		
800	70,040		60,140		

THREE-CYLINDER ENGINES, CRANKS AT 120°.

speed, ft. per min.	Cut-off, 1/6.		Cut-off, 1/4.		Cut-off, 1/3.		Cut-off, 1/2.	
	Comp. p	O	Comp. p	O	Comp. p	O	Comp. p	O
200	33,810	32,240	33,810	35,500	34,540	33,450	35,260
400	30,190	31,670	35,140	33,810	36,470	32,850	33,.....

As a mean value of i for these engines we may use 33

Centrifugal Force in Fly-wheels.—Let $W =$ weight in pounds; $R =$ mean radius of rim in feet; $r =$ revolutions per second; $v =$ velocity of rim in feet per second $= 2\pi Rr = 60$.

$$\text{Centrifugal force of whole rim} = F = \frac{Wr^2}{gR} = \frac{4Wv^2R^2}{3600g} =$$

The resultant, acting at right angles to a diameter of the wheel tends to disrupt one half of the wheel from the other half, at the section of the rim at each end of the diameter. The resultant radial forces taken at right angles to the diameter is $1 \div 4g$

of these forces; hence the total force F is to be divided by 6.2832 to obtain the tensile strain on the cross-section of the rim on the cross-section $= S = .0005427 WRr^2$. The strain on a rim of cast iron 1 inch square in section is $2\pi R \times 3.125 =$ whence strain per square inch of sectional area of rim $= S = .002664 D^2 r^2 = .000270 V^2$, in which $D =$ diameter of wheel in feet; $v =$ velocity of rim in feet per minute. $S_1 = .0073v^2$, if v is in feet per second.

For wrought iron.....	$S_1 = .0011366R^2r^2 = .0002842D^2v^2$
For steel.....	$S_1 = .0011593R^2r^2 = .0002901D^2v^2$
For wood.....	$S_1 = .0000888R^2r^2 = .0000222D^2v^2$

The specific gravity of the wood being taken at 0.6 = 3/5, or 1/12 the weight of cast iron.

Example.—Required the strain per square inch in the rim of a wheel 30 ft. diameter, 60 revolutions per minute.

$$\text{Answer. } 15^2 \times 60^2 \times .0019$$

Required the strain per square inch in a cast-iron wheel 1 mile a minute. *Answer.* $.00027 \times 5280^2 = 752.7$ lbs.

In cast-iron fly-wheel rims, on account of their thickness, and in securing soundness, and a tensile strength of 10,000 lbs. as much as can be assumed with safety. Using a factor of safety of 10, the maximum allowable strain in the rim of 1000 lbs. per sq. inch corresponds to a rim velocity of 6085 ft. per minute.

For any given material, as cast iron, the strength to resist rupture depends only on the velocity of the rim, and not upon its thickness.

Chas. E. Emery (*Cass. Mag.*, 1892) says: By calculation the strength of the arms is available to strengthen the rim, or a trifling amount at the wheel centres are relatively large. The arms, however, are subjected to reverse strains, from belts and from changes of speed, and there is no certainty that the arms and rim will be adjusted so as to act together in resisting disruption, so the plan of considering the arms and rim as separate entities, and making it strong enough to resist disruption by centrifugal force, is the safe limits, as is assumed in the calculations above, is the safe plan.

It does not appear that fly-wheels of customary construction are unsafe at the comparatively low speeds now in common use. The materials are used in construction. The cause of rupture of fly-wheels have failed is usually either the "running away" of the engine, or is caused by the breaking or slackness of a governor, or by a design or defective materials of the fly-wheel.

Chas. T. Porter (*Trans. A. S. M. E.*, xiv, 808) states that the bursting of a fly-wheel with a solid rim in a high-speed engine attributes the bursting of wheels built in segments to insufficient strength of the flanges and bolts by which the segments are held together. Thurston, "*Manual of the Steam-engine*," Part II, page 47.

Arms of Fly-wheels and Pulleys.—Professor Rankine (*Philos. Mag.*, July 30, 1891) gives the following formula for arms of cast-iron wheels:

$W =$ load in pounds acting on one arm; $S =$ strain on the arm in pounds per inch of width, taken at 50 for single and 112 for double belt; $b =$ breadth of belt in inches; $n =$ number of arms; $L =$ length of arm in inches from the center of arm at hub; $d =$ depth of arm at hub, both in inches.

$A = \frac{WL}{bd^2}$. The breadth of the arm is its least dimension, and the depth the major axis. This formula is for the safety of 14.

the formula, first assume some depth for the arm, and calculate breadth to go with it. If it gives too round an arm, assume it a little greater, and repeat the calculation. A second trial will give a good section. If the arms at the hub having been calculated, they may be reduced at the rim end. The actual amount cannot be calculated, for too many unknown quantities. However, the depth and breadth may be reduced about one third at the rim without danger, and this well-shaped arm. The arms are often cast in halves, and bolted together. When this is done care should be taken to provide sufficient metal in the bolts, which are to be the very weakest point in such pulleys. The combined area at each joint should be about 28/100 the cross-section of the pulley. (Torrey.)

$$d = 0.6337 \sqrt[3]{\frac{BD}{n}} \text{ for single belts ;}$$

$$d = 0.708 \sqrt[3]{\frac{BD}{n}} \text{ for double belts ;}$$

where d is the diameter of the pulley, and B the breadth of the rim, both in these formulae are based on an elliptical section of arm in which $d = 2.5b$ on a width of belt = 4/5 the width of the pulley rim, a driving force transmitted by the belt of 56 lbs. per inch of width of belt and 112 lbs. for a double belt, and a safe working stress of 2250 lbs. per square inch. If in Torrey's formula we make $b = 0.4d$, it reduces to

$$b = \sqrt[3]{\frac{WL}{187.5}}; \quad d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{WL}{12}}.$$

—Given a pulley 10 feet diameter; 8 arms, each 4 feet long; face, 1/2 inch; belt, 30 inches; required the breadth and depth of the arm at the hub according to Unwin,

$$0.6337 \sqrt[3]{\frac{BD}{n}} = 0.6337 \sqrt[3]{\frac{36 \times 120}{8}} = 5.16 \text{ for single belt, } b = 2.06;$$

$$0.708 \sqrt[3]{\frac{BD}{n}} = 0.708 \sqrt[3]{\frac{36 \times 120}{8}} = 6.50 \text{ for double belt, } b = 2.60.$$

According to Torrey, if we take the formula $b = \frac{WL}{30d^2}$ and assume $d = 5$ inches, respectively, for single and double belts, we obtain $b = 1.08$ inches, respectively, or practically only one half of the breadth according to Unwin, since transverse strength is proportional to breadth, an arm half as strong.

The formula is said to be based on a factor of safety of 10, but this is only apparent and not real, since the assumption that the strain on the arm is equal to the strain on the belt divided by the number of arms is to say the least, inaccurate. It would be more nearly correct to assume that the strain of the belt is divided among half the number of arms. However, the same assumption in developing his formula, but says it is in a high sense true, and that a large factor of safety must be allowed. He takes the low figure of 2250 lbs. per square inch for the safe strength of cast iron. Unwin says that his equations agree well with practice.

Formulas of Fly-wheels for Various Speeds.—If 6000 feet be the maximum velocity of rim allowable, then 6000 = πR revolutions per minute, and D = diameter of wheel

$$\frac{6000}{\pi R} = \frac{1210}{R}.$$

MAXIMUM DIAMETER OF FLY-WHEEL ALLOWABLE FOR DIFFERENT NUMBER OF REVOLUTIONS.

Revolutions per minute.	Assuming Maximum Speed of 5000 feet per minute.		Assuming Maximum of 6000 feet per minute.	
	Circum. ft.	Diam. ft.	Circum. ft.	Diam. ft.
40	125	39.8	150.	
50	100	31.8	120.	
60	83.3	26.5	100.	
70	71.4	22.7	85.72	
80	62.5	19.9	75.00	
90	55.5	17.7	66.66	
100	50.	15.9	60.00	
120	41.67	13.3	50.00	
140	35.71	11.4	42.86	
160	31.25	9.9	37.5	
180	27.77	8.8	33.33	
200	25.00	8.0	30.00	
220	22.73	7.2	27.27	
240	20.83	6.6	25.00	
260	19.23	6.1	23.08	
280	17.86	5.7	21.43	
300	16.66	5.3	20.00	
350	14.29	4.5	17.14	
400	12.5	4.0	15.00	
450	11.11	3.5	13.33	
500	10.00	3.2	12.00	

Strains in the Rims of Fly-band Wheels Produce Centrifugal Force. (James B. Stanwood, Trans. A. S. M. E.—Mr. Stanwood mentions one case of a fly-band wheel where the velocity on a 17' 9" wheel is over 7500 ft. per minute.

In band saw-mills the blade of the saw is operated successfully on wheels 8 and 9 ft. in diameter, at a periphery velocity of 9000 to 10,000 ft. per minute. These wheels are of cast iron throughout, of heavy thickness, and have a large number of arms.

In shingle-machines and chipping-machines where cast-iron disks 5 ft. in diameter are employed, with knives inserted radially, the velocity is frequently 10,000 to 11,000 ft. per minute at the periphery.

If the rim of a fly-wheel alone be considered, the tensile strain per square inch of the rim section is $T = \frac{V^2}{10}$ nearly, in which V is the velocity in feet per second; but this strain is modified by the resistance of the arms which prevent the uniform circumferential expansion of the rim, and by the bending of the rim as well as a tensile strain. Mr. Stanwood discusses the strains in fly-band-wheels due to transverse bending of a section of the rim and the effect of a pair of arms.

When the arms are few in number, and of large cross-section, the rim will be strained transversely to a greater degree than with a great number of lighter arms. To illustrate the necessary rim thicknesses for different rim velocities, pulley diameters, number of arms, etc., the following table is given, based upon the formula

$$t = \frac{.475d}{N^2 \left(\frac{V^2}{10} - 1 \right)},$$

in which t = thickness of rim in inches, d = diameter of pulley in feet, N = number of arms, V = velocity of rim in feet per second. The greatest stress is in pounds per square inch to which any other stress may be reduced at 6000 lbs. per sq. in.

Mr. Manning discusses the relative safety of cast iron and of wheels as follows: As for safety; the speeds being the same cases, the hoop tension in the rim per unit of cross-section would be as the weight per cubic unit; and its capacity to stand the strain as the tensile strength per square unit; therefore the tensile strengths by the weights will give relative values of different materials. Cast iron weighing 450 lbs. per cubic foot and with a tensile strength of 1,440 per square foot would give a value of $1,440,000 \div 450 = 3200$, whilst cast-iron which the rim was made, weighing 34 lbs. per cubic foot, and with a tensile strength of 1,152,000 $\div 34 = 33,882 \div 3200 = 10.58$, or the wood-rimmed pulley is ten times as strong as the cast-iron when the castings are good. This would allow the cast-iron rimmed pulley to increase its speed to $\sqrt{10.58} = 3.25$ times that of the cast-iron one with equal safety.

Wooden Fly-wheel of the Willimantic Linen Co. (traded in *Power*, March, 1893.)—Rim 28 ft. diam., 110 in. face. The wheel is carried upon three sets of arms, one under the centre of each belt, arms in each set.

The material of the rim is ordinary whitewood, $\frac{3}{4}$ in. in thickness, segments not exceeding 4 feet in length, and either 5 or 8 inches wide. These were assembled by building a complete circle 13 inches in width with the 8 inch inside and the 5-inch outside, and then beside it another circle with the widths reversed, so as to break joints. Each piece of wood added was brushed over with glue and nailed with three-inch wire nails the pieces already in position. The nails pass through three and a fourth thickness. At the end of each arm four 14-inch bolts set in the rim, the ends being covered by wooden plugs glued and driven into the wood of the wheel.

Wire-wound Fly-wheels for Extreme Speeds. (*Eng. News*, August 2, 1890.)—The power required to produce the Mannesmann very large, varying from 2000 to 10,000 H.P., according to the diameter of the tube. Since this power is only needed for a short time (it takes 4 to 45 seconds to convert a bar 10 to 12 ft. long and 4 in. in diameter into a tube), and then some time elapses before the next bar is ready, a 1200 H.P. provided with a large fly-wheel for storing the energy will give power enough for one set of rolls. These fly-wheels are so large as to be such great speeds that the ordinary method of constructing them is not followed. A wheel at the Mannesmann Works, made in Komotau, 1887, in the usual manner, broke at a tangential velocity of 125 ft. per second. The fly-wheels designed to hold at more than double this speed are made of cast-iron hub to which two steel disks, 20 ft. in diameter, are bolted to the circumference of the wheel thus formed 70 tons of No. 5 wire are used under a tension of 50 lbs. In the Mannesmann Works at Landau such a wheel makes 240 revolutions a minute, corresponding to a tangential velocity of 15,080 ft. or 2.85 miles per minute.

THE SLIDE-VALVE.

Definitions.—*Travel* = total distance moved by the valve.

Throw of the Eccentric = eccentricity of the eccentric = distance from the centre of the shaft to the centre of the eccentric disk = $\frac{1}{2}$ the travel of the valve. (Some writers use the term "throw" to mean the whole travel of the valve.)

Lap of the valve, also called *outside lap* or *steam-lap* = distance the steam edge of the valve extends beyond or laps over the steam port when the valve is in its central position.

Inside lap, or *exhaust-lap* = distance the inner or exhaust edge of the valve extends beyond or laps over the exhaust edge of the port when the valve is in its central position. The inside lap is sometimes made even negative, in which latter case the distance between the edge of the valve and the edge of the port is sometimes called *exhaust clearance* or *inside clearance*.

Lead of the valve = the distance the steam-port is opened when the piston is on its centre and the piston is at the beginning of the stroke.

Lead-angle = the angle between the position of the crank when the steam begins to be opened and its position when the piston is at the beginning of the stroke.

Valve lead = the distance the steam-port opens before the piston begins its stroke.

stroke. If the piston begins its stroke before the admission of the valve is said to have negative lead, and its amount is the edge of the valve over the edge of the port at the instant when stroke begins.

θ = the angle through which the eccentric must be rotated to steam edge to travel from its central position the distance of

advance of the eccentric = lap-angle + lead angle.

advance = lap + lead.

of Lap, Lead, etc., upon the Steam Distribution.—
 e-travel $2\frac{3}{4}$ in., lap $\frac{3}{4}$ in., lead $\frac{1}{16}$ in., exhaust-lap $\frac{1}{2}$ in., crank position for admission, cut-off, release and compression, and port-opening. (Halsey on Slide Valve Gears.) Draw a circle of fh = travel of valve. From O the centre set off Oa = lap and erect perpendiculars Oe , ac , bd ; then ec is the lap-angle and cd the lead, measured as arcs. Set off $fg = cd$, the lead-angle, then Og is the crank-angle for steam admission. Set off $2ec + cd$ from h to i ; the crank-angle for cut-off, and $fk + fh$ is the fraction of stroke completed at cut-off. Set off Ol = exhaust-lap and draw lm ; em is the exhaust angle. Set off $hn = ec + cd + em$, and On is the position of crank for release. Set off $fp = ec + cd + em$, and Op is the position of crank for compression. $fo + fh$ is the fraction of stroke completed at release, and $fp + fh$ is the fraction of the return stroke completed when compression begins. The throw of the eccentric, minus Oa the lap, equals ab the port-opening.

If the eccentric has neither lap nor lead, the line joining the centre of the eccen-

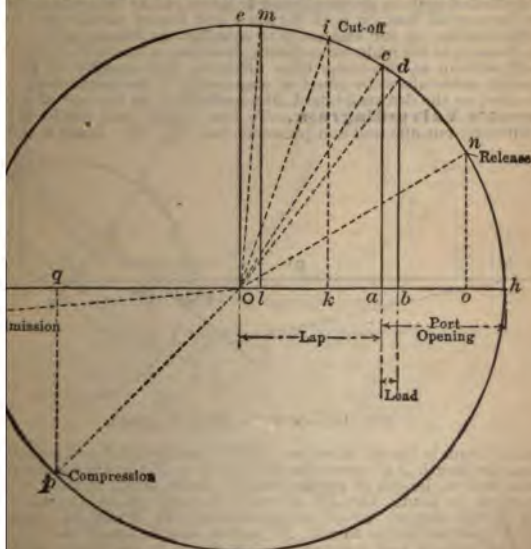


FIG. 146.

and the centre of the shaft being at right angles to the line of the engine would follow full stroke, admission of steam beginning at the beginning of the stroke and ending at the end of the stroke. The position of the eccentric being advanced on the shaft an amount enables steam to be admitted at the beginning of the

before lap was added, and advancing it a further amount equal to the angle causes steam to be admitted before the beginning of the stroke.

Having given lap to the valve, and having advanced the eccentric on shaft from its central position at right angles to the crank, through angular advance = lap-angle and lead-angle, the four events, admission, cut-off, release or exhaust-opening, and compression or exhaust close take place as follows: Admission, when the crank lacks the lead-angle having reached the centre; cut-off, when the crank lacks two lap-angles, one lead-angle of having reached the centre. During the admission steam the crank turns through a semicircle less twice the lap-angle. Therefore for a given port-opening the travel of the valve must be increased if the lap is increased. When exhaust-lap is added to the valve delays the opening of the exhaust and hastens its closing by an amount equal to the exhaust-lap angle, which is the angle through which the eccentric rotates from its middle position while the exhaust edge of valve uncovers its lap. Release then takes place when the crank lacks lap-angle and one lead-angle minus one exhaust-lap angle of having reached the centre, and compression when the crank lacks lap-angle + lead angle - exhaust-lap angle of having reached the centre.

The above discussion of the relative position of the crank, piston, valve for the different points of the stroke is accurate only with a connecting-rod of infinite length.

For actual connecting-rods the angular position of the rod causes distortion of the position of the valve, causing the events to take place late in the forward stroke and too early in the return. The correction of this distortion may be accomplished to some extent by setting the valve as to give equal lead on both forward and return stroke, and by giving the exhaust-lap on one end so as to equalize the release and compression. F. A. Halsey, in his Slide-valve Gears, describes a method of equalizing cut-off without at the same time affecting the equality of the lead, by designing slide-valves the effect of angularity of the connecting-rod should be studied on the drawing-board, and preferably by the use of a model.

Sweet's Valve-diagram.—To find outside and inside lap of it for different cut-offs and compressions (see Fig. 147): Draw a circle

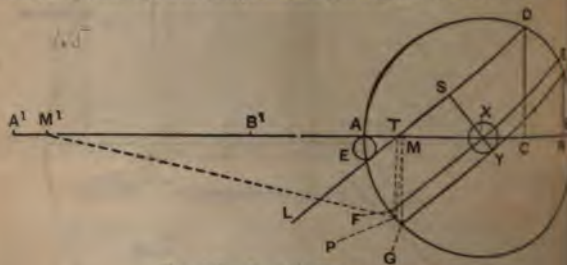


FIG. 147.—Sweet's Valve-diagram.

diameter equals travel of valve. Draw diameter BA and continue it so that the length AA^1 bears the same ratio to XA as the length of connecting-rod does to length of engine-crank. Draw small circle k with a diameter equal to lead. Lay off AC so that ratio of AC to AB = cut-off parts of the stroke. Erect perpendicular CD . Draw DL tangent to draw XS perpendicular to DL ; XS is then outside lap of valve.

To find release and compression: If there is no inside lap, draw through X parallel to DL . F and E will be position of crank for release and compression. If there is an inside lap, draw a circle about X with a radius XY equals inside lap. Draw HG tangent to this circle and parallel to DL ; then H and G are crank position for release and compression. Draw HN and MG , then AN is piston position at release and AB position at compression, AB being considered stroke of engine. To make cut-off alike on each stroke it is necessary to be equal to the lap of valve, and to decrease by the same

p on back end of valve. To determine this amount, through M with $MM = AA'$, draw arc MP , from P draw PT perpendicular to AB , f is the amount to be added to inside lap on crank end, and to be added to inside lap on back end of valve, inside lap being XY .
 See *Bilgram Valve Diagram*, see Halsey on Slide-valve Gears.
Zeuner Valve-diagram is given in most of the works on the engine, and in treatises on valve-gears, as Zeuner's, Peabody's, and



FIG. 148.—Zeuner's Valve-diagram.

er's. The following is condensed from Holmes on the Steam-engine:
 e a circle, with radius OA equal to the half travel of the valve.
 e measure off OB equal to the outside lap, and BC equal to the lead.
 he crank-pin occupies the dead centre A , the valve has already
 to the right of its central position by the space $OB + BC$. From C
 e perpendicular CE and join OE . Then will OE be the position
 d by the line joining the centre of the eccentric with the centre of
 nk-shaft at the commencement of the stroke. On the line OE as
 er describe the circle OCE ; then any chords, as Oe, OE, Oe' , will
 nt the spaces travelled by the valve from its central position when
 nk-pin occupies respectively the positions opposite to D, E , and F .
 he port is opened at all the valve must have moved from its central
 y an amount equal to the lap OB . Hence, to obtain the space by
 he port is opened, subtract from each of the arcs Oe, OE , etc., a
 equal to OB . This is represented graphically by describing from
 O a circle with radius equal to the lap OB ; then the spaces fe, gE ,
 ercepted between the circumferences of the lap-circle Bfe' and the
 ole OCE , will give the extent to which the steam-port is opened.
 point E , at which the chord Ok is common to both valve and lap
 is evident that the valve has moved to the right by the amount
 and is consequently just on the point of opening the steam-port.
 steam is admitted before the commencement of opening the steam-port,
 occupies the position OH , and while the portion HA

lution still remains to be accomplished. When the crank-pin reaches position *A*, that is to say, at the commencement of the stroke, the port is already opened by the space $OC - OB = BC$, called the lead. From point forward till the crank occupies the position OE the port continues open, but when the crank is at OE the valve has reached the furthest of its travel to the right, and then commences to return, till when it position OF the edge of the valve just covers the steam-port, as is shown by the chord Oe' , being again common to both lap and valve circles. When the crank occupies the position OF the cut-off takes place and steam commences to expand, and continues to do so till the exhaust is closed. For the return stroke the steam-port opens again at H and closes at F .

There remains the exhaust to be considered. When the line joining the centres of the eccentric and crank-shaft occupies the position OP or OQ at right angles to the line of dead centres, the crank is in the line at right angles to OE ; and as OP does not intersect either valve-circle valve occupies its central position, and consequently closes the port by the amount of the inside lap. The crank must therefore move through an angular distance that its line of direction OQ must intercept a chord of the valve-circle OK equal in length to the inside lap before the port is opened to the exhaust. This point is ascertained precisely in the same manner as for the outside lap, namely, by drawing a circle from O with a radius equal to the inside lap; this is the small inner circle in the figure. Where this circle intersects the two valve-circles we get four points which show the positions of the crank when the exhaust opens and closes during each revolution. Thus at Q the valve opens, the exhaust commences, and during the piston which we have been considering, while at H the exhaust is closed, and compression commences and continues till the fresh steam is admitted at H .

Thus the diagram enables us to ascertain the exact position of the crank when each critical operation of the valve takes place. Making a record of these operations of one side of the piston, we have: Steam admitted by the commencement of the stroke at H . At the dead centre A the valve is already opened by the amount BC . At E the port is fully opened, the valve has reached one end of its travel. At F steam is cut off, and expansion admission lasted from H to F . At F valve occupies central position, ports are closed both to steam and exhaust. At Q exhaust opened, and expansion lasted from F to Q . At K exhaust opened to maximum extent, and valve reached the end of its travel to the left. At K exhaust closed, and compression begins and continues till the fresh steam is admitted at H .

PROBLEM.—The simplest problem which occurs is the following: Given the length of throw, the angle of advance of the eccentric, and the lap of the valve, find the angles of the crank at which the steam is admitted, cut off and the exhaust opened and closed. Draw the line OE , represent the half-travel of the valve or the throw of the eccentric at the given angle of advance with the perpendicular OG . Produce OE to K . On OE as radius describe the two valve-circles. With centre O and radii equal to the given laps describe the outside and inside lap-circles. Then the intersection of these circles with the two valve-circles give points through which the lines OH , OF , OQ , and OR can be drawn. These lines give the positions of the crank.

Numerous other problems will be found in Holmes on the Steam-Engine, including problems in valve-setting and the application of the Zeuner diagram to link motion and to the Meyer valve-gear.

Port Opening.—The area of port opening should be such that the velocity of the steam in passing through it should not exceed 5000 ft. per second. The ratio of port area to piston area will then vary with the piston-speed as follows:

For speed of piston, ft. per min.	100	200	300	400	500	600	700	800	900	1000
Port area = piston area ×	.017	.033	.05	.067	.083	.1	.107	.133	.15	.167

$$\text{For a velocity of 5000 ft. per min.,} \\ \text{Port area} = \frac{\text{sq. of diam. of cyl.} \times \text{piston speed}}{7029}$$

The length of the port opening may be equal to or something less than the diameter of the cylinder, and the width = area of port opening ÷ length of port opening. The width of the steam and exhaust ports should be wide enough to prevent leakage due to overtravel of the valve, and to prevent a leak of steam.

gives: Width of exhaust port = width of steam port + ve - width of bridge.

on Peabody's Valve-gears.)—The lead, or the amount that en when the engine is on a dead point, varies, with the type engine, from a very small amount, or even nothing, up to $\frac{1}{8}$ more. Stationary-engines running at slow speed may have 16 inch lead. The effect of compression is to fill the waste nd of the cylinder with steam; consequently, engines having sion need less lead. Locomotive-engines having the valves the ordinary form of Stephenson link-motion may have hen running slowly and with a long cut-off, but when at speed t-off the lead is at least $\frac{1}{4}$ inch; and locomotives that have ch gives constant lead commonly have $\frac{1}{4}$ inch lead. The he angle the crank makes with the line of dead points at may vary from 0° to 8° .

ad.—Weisbach (vol. ii. p. 296) says: Experiment shows that ring of the exhaust ports is especially of advantage, and in es the lead of the valve upon the side of the exhaust, or the 1/25 to 1/15; i. e., the slide-valve at the lowest or highest po- sion has made an opening whose height is 1/25 to 1/15 of the f the slide-valve. The outside lead of the slide-valve or the eam side, on the other hand, is much smaller, and is often he whole throw of the valve,

Changing Outside Lap, Inside Lap, Travel and Angular Advance, (Thurston)

Admission	Expansion	Exhaust	Compression
begins earlier, sooner	occurs earlier, continues longer	is unchanged	begins at same point
is unchanged	begins as before, continues longer	occurs later, ceases earlier	begins sooner, continues longer
begins sooner, ceases longer	begins later, ceases sooner	begins later, ceases later	begins later, ends sooner
is earlier, unaltered	begins sooner, per. the same	begins earlier, per. unchanged	begins earlier, per. the same

(the following relations (Weisbach-Dubois, vol. ii. p. 307):

l = length of valve, p = maximum port opening;

steam-lap, l = exhaust-lap;

$$\text{of steam-lap to half travel} = \frac{L}{.5S}, \quad L = \frac{R}{2} \times S;$$

$$\text{of exhaust lap to half travel} = \frac{l}{.5S}, \quad l = \frac{r}{2} \times S;$$

$$2L = 2p + 2R + S; \quad S = \frac{2p}{1 - R}$$

Let α = angle between positions of crank at admission and at cut-off, β = angle QOR between positions of crank at release and at compression, then $R = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\sin(180^{\circ} - \alpha)}{\sin \frac{1}{2}\alpha}$; $r = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\sin(180^{\circ} - \beta)}{\sin \frac{1}{2}\beta}$.

Lap and of Port-opening to Valve-travel.—The table on page 831, giving the ratio of lap to travel of valve and ratio of travel of valve to port-opening, is abridged from one given by Buel in Weisbach-Dubois, calculated from the above formulae. Intermediate values may be obtained from the formulae, or with sufficient accuracy by interpolation from the table. By the table on page 830 the crank-angle may be found from the angle between its position when the engine is on the dead point at cut-off, release, or compression, when these are given. The table is given by Buel: width of port = 2.2 in.; width of valve = 1.5 in.; over-travel = 2.5 times stroke; cut-off, .75 of stroke; crank-angle, 10° . From the first table we find cran

add lead-angle, making 121.6° . From the second table, for angle between admission and cut-off, 125° , we have ratio of travel to port-opening = 3.4 or for $124.6^\circ = 3.74$, which, multiplied by port-opening 2.5, gives 9.4 travel. The ratio of lap to travel, by the table, is .3324, or $9.45 \times .3324 = 3.14$ in. lap. For exhaust-lap we have, for release at .95, crank-angle = 13 add lead-angle $10^\circ = 161.3^\circ$. From the second table, by interpolation, ratio of lap to travel = .0811, and $.0811 \times 9.45 = 0.77$ in., the exhaust-lap.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Lap-angle} &= \frac{1}{2}(180^\circ - \text{lead-angle} - \text{crank-angle at cut-off}); \\ &= \frac{1}{2}(180^\circ - 10 - 114.6) = 27.7^\circ. \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Angular advance} = \text{lap-angle} \times \text{lead-angle} = 27.7 + 10 = 37.7^\circ.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Exhaust lap-angle} &= \text{crank-angle at release} + \text{lap-angle} + \text{lead-angle} - 180^\circ \\ &= 151.3 + 27.7 + 10 - 180^\circ = 9^\circ. \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Crank-angle at compression measured on return stroke} &= 180^\circ - \text{lap-angle} - \text{lead-angle} - \text{exhaust lap-angle} \\ &= 180 - 27.7 - 10 - 9 = 133.3^\circ; \text{ corresponding} \end{aligned}$$

table, to a piston position of .81 of the return stroke; or

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Crank-angle at compression} &= 180^\circ - (\text{angle at release} - \text{angle at cut-off} \\ &\quad + \text{lead-angle}); \\ &= 180 - (151.3 - 114.6) + 10 = 133.3^\circ. \end{aligned}$$

The positions determined above for cut-off and release are for the first stroke of the piston. On the return stroke the cut-off will take place at the same angle, 114.6° , corresponding by table to 66.6% of the return stroke, instead of 75%. By a slight adjustment of the angular advance and the length of the eccentric rod the cut-off can be equalized. The width of the bridge should be at least $2.5 + 0.25 - 2.2 = 0.55$ in.

Crank Angles for Connecting-rods of Different Length FORWARD AND RETURN STROKES.

Fraction of Stroke from Commencement.	Ratio of Length of Connecting-rod to Length of Stroke.											
	2		2½		3		3½		4		5	
	For.	Ret.	For.	Ret.	For.	Ret.	For.	Ret.	For.	Ret.	For.	Ret.
.01	10.3	13.2	10.5	12.8	10.6	12.6	10.7	12.4	10.8	12.3	10.9	12.1
.02	14.6	18.7	14.9	18.1	15.1	17.8	15.2	17.5	15.3	17.4	15.4	17.1
.03	17.9	22.9	18.2	22.2	18.5	21.8	18.7	21.5	18.8	21.3	19.0	21.0
.04	20.7	26.5	21.1	25.7	21.4	25.2	21.6	24.9	21.8	24.6	22.0	24.3
.05	23.2	29.6	23.6	28.7	24.0	28.2	24.2	27.8	24.4	27.5	24.7	27.2
.10	33.1	41.9	33.8	40.8	34.3	40.1	34.6	39.6	34.9	39.2	35.2	38.7
.15	41	51.5	41.9	50.2	42.4	49.3	42.9	48.7	43.2	48.3	43.6	47.7
.20	48	59.6	48.9	58.2	49.6	57.3	50.1	56.6	50.4	56.2	50.9	55.2
.25	54.3	66.9	55.4	65.4	56.1	64.4	56.6	63.7	57.0	63.2	57.6	62.4
.30	60.3	73.5	61.5	72.0	62.2	71.0	62.8	70.3	63.3	69.8	63.9	69.1
.35	66.1	79.8	67.3	78.3	68.1	77.3	68.8	76.6	69.2	76.1	69.9	75.2
.40	71.7	85.8	73.0	84.3	73.9	83.3	74.5	82.6	75.0	82.0	75.7	81.7
.45	77.2	91.5	78.6	90.1	79.6	89.1	80.2	88.4	80.7	87.9	81.4	87.1
.50	82.8	97.2	84.3	95.7	85.2	94.8	85.9	94.1	86.4	93.6	87.1	92.8
.55	88.5	102.8	89.9	101.4	90.9	100.4	91.6	99.8	92.1	99.3	92.4	98.1
.60	94.2	108.3	95.7	107.0	96.7	106.1	97.4	105.5	98.0	105.0	98.7	104.0
.65	100.2	113.9	101.7	113.7	102.7	111.9	103.4	111.2	103.9	110.8	104.7	109.2
.70	106.5	119.7	108.0	118.5	109.0	117.8	109.7	117.2	110.2	116.7	110.9	115.4
.75	113.1	125.7	114.6	124.6	115.6	123.9	116.3	123.4	116.7	123.0	117.4	122.0
.80	120.4	132	121.8	131.1	122.7	130.4	123.4	129.0	123.8	129.6	124.2	128.1
.85	128.5	139	129.8	138.1	130.7	137.6	131.3	137.1	131.7	136.8	132.2	135.9
.90	138.1	146.9	139.2	146.2	139.9	145.7	140.4	145.4	140.8	145.1	141.2	144.8
.95	150.4	156.8	150.4	156.0	151.8	156.0	152.2	155.8	152.5	155.5	152.8	156.2
1	153.5	159	153.5	159.0	154.8	159.0	155.1	158.4	155.4	158.2	155.7	159.0
	157.1	162	157.1	162.0	158.2	162.0	158.5	161.2	158.7	161.0	159.0	162.0
	161.3	165	161.3	165.0	162.2	165.0	162.5	164.8	162.8	164.7	162.0	165.0
	166.1	169	166.1	169.0	167.2	169.0	167.5	168.2	167.8	168.0	167.0	169.0
	171.5	173	171.5	173.0	172.4	173.0	172.7	172.0	173.0	172.0	173.0	173.0
	177.5	177	177.5	177.0	177.0	177.0	177.0	177.0	177.0	177.0	177.0	177.0
	184.0	181	184.0	181.0	184.0	181.0	184.0	181.0	184.0	181.0	184.0	181.0
	191.0	185	191.0	185.0	191.0	185.0	191.0	185.0	191.0	185.0	191.0	185.0
	198.5	189	198.5	189.0	198.5	189.0	198.5	189.0	198.5	189.0	198.5	189.0
	207.0	193	207.0	193.0	207.0	193.0	207.0	193.0	207.0	193.0	207.0	193.0
	216.0	197	216.0	197.0	216.0	197.0	216.0	197.0	216.0	197.0	216.0	197.0
	225.5	201	225.5	201.0	225.5	201.0	225.5	201.0	225.5	201.0	225.5	201.0
	235.5	205	235.5	205.0	235.5	205.0	235.5	205.0	235.5	205.0	235.5	205.0
	246.0	209	246.0	209.0	246.0	209.0	246.0	209.0	246.0	209.0	246.0	209.0
	257.0	213	257.0	213.0	257.0	213.0	257.0	213.0	257.0	213.0	257.0	213.0
	268.5	217	268.5	217.0	268.5	217.0	268.5	217.0	268.5	217.0	268.5	217.0
	280.5	221	280.5	221.0	280.5	221.0	280.5	221.0	280.5	221.0	280.5	221.0
	293.0	225	293.0	225.0	293.0	225.0	293.0	225.0	293.0	225.0	293.0	225.0
	306.0	229	306.0	229.0	306.0	229.0	306.0	229.0	306.0	229.0	306.0	229.0
	319.5	233	319.5	233.0	319.5	233.0	319.5	233.0	319.5	233.0	319.5	233.0
	333.5	237	333.5	237.0	333.5	237.0	333.5	237.0	333.5	237.0	333.5	237.0
	348.0	241	348.0	241.0	348.0	241.0	348.0	241.0	348.0	241.0	348.0	241.0
	363.0	245	363.0	245.0	363.0	245.0	363.0	245.0	363.0	245.0	363.0	245.0
	378.5	249	378.5	249.0	378.5	249.0	378.5	249.0	378.5	249.0	378.5	249.0
	394.5	253	394.5	253.0	394.5	253.0	394.5	253.0	394.5	253.0	394.5	253.0
	411.0	257	411.0	257.0	411.0	257.0	411.0	257.0	411.0	257.0	411.0	257.0
	428.0	261	428.0	261.0	428.0	261.0	428.0	261.0	428.0	261.0	428.0	261.0
	445.5	265	445.5	265.0	445.5	265.0	445.5	265.0	445.5	265.0	445.5	265.0
	463.5	269	463.5	269.0	463.5	269.0	463.5	269.0	463.5	269.0	463.5	269.0
	482.0	273	482.0	273.0	482.0	273.0	482.0	273.0	482.0	273.0	482.0	273.0
	501.0	277	501.0	277.0	501.0	277.0	501.0	277.0	501.0	277.0	501.0	277.0
	520.5	281	520.5	281.0	520.5	281.0	520.5	281.0	520.5	281.0	520.5	281.0
	540.5	285	540.5	285.0	540.5	285.0	540.5	285.0	540.5	285.0	540.5	285.0
	561.0	289	561.0	289.0	561.0	289.0	561.0	289.0	561.0	289.0	561.0	289.0
	582.0	293	582.0	293.0	582.0	293.0	582.0	293.0	582.0	293.0	582.0	293.0
	603.5	297	603.5	297.0	603.5	297.0	603.5	297.0	603.5	297.0	603.5	297.0
	625.5	301	625.5	301.0	625.5	301.0	625.5	301.0	625.5	301.0	625.5	301.0
	648.0	305	648.0	305.0	648.0	305.0	648.0	305.0	648.0	305.0	648.0	305.0
	671.0	309	671.0	309.0	671.0	309.0	671.0	309.0	671.0	309.0	671.0	309.0
	694.5	313	694.5	313.0	694.5	313.0	694.5	313.0	694.5	313.0	694.5	313.0
	718.5	317	718.5	317.0	718.5	317.0	718.5	317.0	718.5	317.0	718.5	317.0
	743.0	321	743.0	321.0	743.0	321.0	743.0	321.0	743.0	321.0	743.0	321.0
	768.0	325	768.0	325.0	768.0	325.0	768.0	325.0	768.0	325.0	768.0	325.0
	793.5	329	793.5	329.0	793.5	329.0	793.5	329.0	793.5	329.0	793.5	329.0
	819.5	333	819.5	333.0	819.5	333.0	819.5	333.0	819.5	333.0	819.5	333.0
	846.0	337	846.0	337.0	846.0	337.0	846.0	337.0	846.0	337.0	846.0	337.0
	873.0	341	873.0	341.0	873.0	341.0	873.0	341.0	873.0	341.0	873.0	341.0
	900.5	345	900.5	345.0	900.5	345.0	900.5	345.0	900.5	345.0	900.5	345.0
	928.5	349	928.5	349.0	928.5	349.0	928.5	349.0	928.5	349.0	928.5	349.0
	957.0	353	957.0	353.0	957.0	353.0	957.0	353.0	957.0	353.0	957.0	353.0
	986.0	357	986.0	357.0	986.0	357.0	986.0	357.0	986.0	357.0	986.0	357.0
	1015.5	361	1015.5	361.0	1015.5	361.0	1015.5	361.0	1015.5	361.0	1015.5	361.0
	1045.5	365	1045.5	365.0	1045.5	365.0	1045.5	365.0	1045.5	365.0	1045.5	365.0
	1076.0	369	1076.0	369.0	1076.0	369.0	1076.0	369.0	1076.0	369.0	1076.0	369.0
	1107.0	373	1107.0	373.0	1107.0	373.0	1107.0	373.0	1107.0	373.0	1107.0	373.0
	1138.5	377	1138.5	377.0	1138.5	377.0	1138.5	377.0	1138.5	377.0	1138.5	377.0
	1170.5	381	1170.5	381.0	1170.5	381.0	1170.5	381.0	1170.5	381.0	1170.5	381.0
	1203.0	385	1203.0	385.0	1203.0	385.0	1203.0	385.0	1203.0	385.0	1203.0	385.0
	1236.0	389	1236.0	389.0	1236.0	389.0	1236.0	389.0	1236.0	389.0	1236.0	389.0
	1269.5	393	1269.5	393.0	1269.5	393.0	1269.5	393.0	1269.5	393.0	1269.5	393.0
	1303.5	397	1303.5	397.0	1303.5	397.0	1303.5	397.0	1303.5	397.0	1303.5	397.0
	1338.0	401	1338.0	401.0	1338.0	401.0	1338.0	401.0	1338.0	401.0	1338.0	401.0
	1373.0	405	1373.0	405.0	1373.0	405.0	1373.0	405.0	1373.0	405.0	1373.0	

Relative Motions of Cross-head and Crank.—If L = length of connecting-rod, R = length of crank, θ = angle of crank with centre line, D = displacement of cross-head from the beginning of its stroke,

$$D = R(1 - \cos \theta) + L - \sqrt{L^2 - R^2 \sin^2 \theta}.$$

Lap and Travel of Valve.

pression.	Ratio of Lap to Travel of Valve.	Ratio of Travel of Valve to Width of Port-opening.	Angle between Positions of Crank at Points of Admission and Cut-off, or Release and Compression.	Ratio of Lap to Travel of Valve.	Ratio of Travel of Valve to Width of Port-opening.	Angle between Positions of Crank at Points of Admission and Cut-off, or Release and Compression.	Ratio of Lap to Travel of Valve.	Ratio of Travel of Valve to Width of Port-opening.
.4830	58.70	85°	.3686	7.61	135°	.1913	3.24	
.4769	43.22	90	.3596	6.83	140	.1710	3.04	
.4699	33.17	95	.3378	6.17	145	.1504	2.86	
.4619	26.27	100	.3214	5.60	150	.1294	2.70	
.4532	21.34	105	.3044	5.11	155	.1082	2.55	
.4435	17.70	110	.2868	4.69	160	.0868	2.42	
.4330	14.93	115	.2687	4.32	165	.0653	2.30	
.4217	12.77	120	.2500	4.00	170	.0436	2.19	
.4096	11.06	125	.2309	3.72	175	.0218	2.09	
.3967	9.68	130	.2113	3.46	180	.0000	2.00	
.3830	8.55							

PERIODS OF ADMISSION, OR CUT-OFF, FOR VARIOUS LAPS AND TRAVELS OF SLIDE-VALVES.

The following tables are from Clark on the Steam-engine. In the first table are given the periods of admission corresponding to travels of valve of 1 1/2 in. to 2 in., and laps of from 1/2 in. to 3/8 in., with 1/4 in. and 1/8 in. With greater leads than those tabulated, the steam would be cut off

earlier than as shown in the table. The influence of a lead of 5/16 in. for travels of from 1 1/2 in. to 6 in., and from 1/8 in. to 1 1/2 in., as calculated for in the second table, is exhibited

in a comparison of the periods of admission in the table, for the same lap and lead. The greater lead shortens the period of admission, and increases the period of expansive working.

PERIODS OF ADMISSION, OR POINTS OF CUT-OFF, FOR GIVEN TRAVELS AND LAPS OF SLIDE-VALVES.

Lead.	Periods of Admission, or Points of Cut-off, for the following Laps of Valves in inches.									
	2	1 3/4	1 1/2	1 1/4	1	3/4	3/8	5/8	1/2	3/8
in.	°	°	°	°	°	°	°	°	°	°
1 1/2	88	90	93	95	96	97	98	98	99	99
1 1/4	82	87	89	92	95	96	97	98	98	99
1 1/2	72	78	84	88	92	94	95	96	98	98
1 1/4	50	62	71	79	86	89	91	94	96	97
1 1/2	43	56	68	77	85	88	91	94	96	97
1 1/4	32	47	61	72	82	86	89	92	95	97
1 1/2	14	35	51	66	78	83	87	90	94	97
1 1/4	17	39	57	72	78	83	88	93	97
1 1/2	20	44	63	71	79	84	91	97
1 1/4	23	50	61	71	79	87	94
1 1/2	27	43	57	70	82	92
1 1/4	33	52	62	72

**Periods of Admission, or Points of Cut-off, for
Travels and Laps of Slide-valves.**

Constant lead, 5/16.

Inches.	Lap.							
	1/8	1/4	3/8	1/2	3/4	1	1 1/4	1 1/2
1/16								
1/8								
3/16								
1/4								
5/16								
3/8								
7/16								
1/2								
9/16								
5/8								
11/16								
3/4								
13/16								
7/8								
15/16								
1								
1 1/16								
1 1/8								
1 1/4								
1 1/2								
1 3/4								
2								
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30 3/4								

Diagram for Port-opening, Cut-off, and Lap.—The one on the opposite page was published in *Power*, Aug., 1900. It also gives the relations existing between the outside lap, steam port, and cut-off in slide valve engines.

In order to use the diagram to find the lap, having given the maximum port-opening, follow the ordinate representing the lap on the horizontal scale, until it meets the oblique line representing cut-off. Then read off this height on the vertical lap scale. The port-opening of 1/4 inch and a cut-off of .50, the intersection of the occurs on the horizontal 1. The required lap is therefore 1 in.

If the cut-off and lap are given, follow the horizontal reverse barer until it meets the oblique line representing the cut-off. Then below this read the corresponding port-opening on the horizontal 1.

If the lap and port-opening are given, the resulting cut-off may be found by finding the point of intersection of the ordinate representing port-opening with the horizontal representing the lap. The oblique passing through the point of intersection will give the cut-off.

If it is desired to take lead into account, multiply the lead in inch numbers in the following table corresponding to the cut-off, and add the result from the lap as obtained from the diagram:

Cut-off.	Multiplier.	Cut-off.	Multi.
.20	4.717	.60	
.25	3.731	.65	
.30	3.048	.70	
.35	2.717	.75	
.40	2.361	.80	
.45	2.171	.85	
.50	1.950	.90	
.55		.95	
.60		1.00	

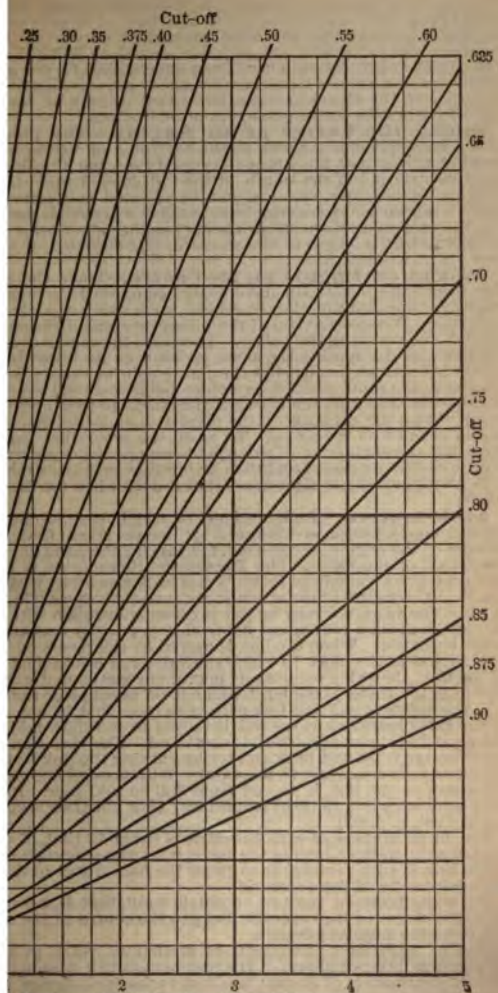


FIG. 149.

motion, temperature, etc., and can be effected only after the valve has been set as accurately as possible when cold, the forward and return strokes being equalized, indicated by the pointer, and the length of the eccentric-rod adjusted, to correct slight irregularities.

To Put an Engine on its Centre.—Place the piston where the piston will have nearly completed its stroke, opposite some point on the cross-head, such as a corner of the guide. Against the rim of the pulley or crank-disk mark a line with it on the pulley. Then turn the engine until the cross-head is again in the same position on its inward stroke, bringing the crank as much below the centre as it was above the centre. Then make a pointer in the same position as before make a second mark on the rim. Divide the distance between the marks in two and make a point. Turn the engine until the pointer is opposite this point; it will then be on its centre. To avoid the error that arises from the looseness of crank-pin and wrist-pin bearings, the engine should be set a little above the centre and then be brought up to it, so that the wrist-pin will press against the same brass that it does when the engine is made.

Link-motion.—Link-motions, of which the Stephenson link-motion is most commonly used, are designed for two purposes: first, to give motion of the engine, and second, for varying the point of the travel of the valve. The Stephenson link-motion consists of two eccentrics, called the forward and back eccentric, and a link joining the extremities of the eccentric-rods; so that by varying the position of the link the valve-rod may be put in direct connection with the valve or may be given a movement controlled in part by one eccentric and in part by the other. When the link is moved by the reversing motion such that the block to which the valve-rod is attached is at the end of the link, the valve receives its maximum travel, and at the other end of the link the travel is the least and cut-off takes place.

In the ordinary shifting-link with open rods, that is, in which the period of steam admission is shortened, the travel of the valve increases as the link is moved from full to mid-gear, and the period of steam admission is shortened. The variation of the travel of the valve is varied by curving the link eccentric-rods concavely to the axles. With crossed eccentrics the travel of the valve decreases as the link is moved from full to mid-gear, and the period of steam admission is lengthened. (For illustration see *Illustrations of the Steam Engine*, vol. ii, p. 22.)

The linear advance of each eccentric is equal to that

rods ought to be long; the longer they are in proportion to the more symmetrical will the travel of the valve be on both sides of the centre of motion. 3. The link ought to be short. Each of its ends describes a curve in a vertical plane, whose ordinates grow larger the further the considered point is from the centre of the link; and as the horizontal motion only is transmitted to the valve, vertical oscillation will cause irregularities. 4. The link-hanger ought to be long. The longer it is the larger will be the arc in which the link swings to a straight line, and thus the vertical oscillation. If the link is suspended in its centre, the motion will be described by points equidistant on both sides from the centre of motion, and hence results the variation between the forward and backward motion.

If the link is suspended at its lower end, its lower half will have a larger vertical oscillation and the upper half more. 5. The centre from which the link swings changes its position as the link is lowered or raised, and causes irregularities. To reduce them to the smallest amount the lifting-shaft should be made as long as the eccentric-rod, and the lifting-shaft should be placed at the height corresponding to the position of the centre on which the link-hanger swings. These conditions can never be fulfilled in practice, and the variations in the period of admission can be somewhat regulated in any way, but for one gear only. This is accomplished by giving different lengths to the two eccentrics, which difference will be smaller the longer the rods are and the shorter the link, and by suspending the link not from its centre line but at a certain distance from it, giving what is called an offset."

Application of the Zeuner diagram to link-motion, see Holmes on the Slide-valve, p. 290. See also Clark's Railway Machinery (1855), Clark's Gears and Zeuner's and Auchincloss's Treatises on Slide-valve

Following rules are given by the *American Machinist* for laying out a link for an upright slide-valve engine. By the term radius of link is meant the radius of the link-arc ab , Fig. 150, drawn through the centre of the slot;

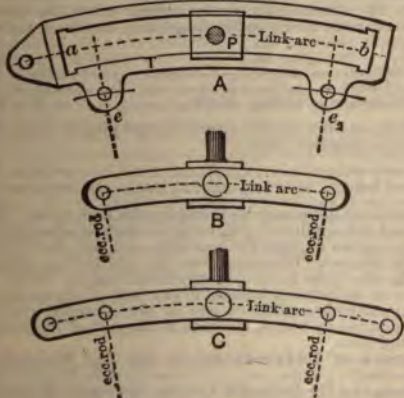


FIG. 150.

The radius of link is generally made equal to the distance from the centre of shaft of the link-block pin P when the latter stands midway of its travel. The distance between the centres of the eccentric-rod pins e_1, e_2 should not be less than $\frac{3}{4}$ times, and, when space will permit, three times the distance between the centres of the eccentrics. By the throw we mean twice the eccentricity of the eccentrics. The link is generally suspended from the end next to the forward motion of the valve in the link-arc prolonged. This will give compensation for the slip of the link-block when the link is in forward gear. The throw of the link should be increased when the link is in backward gear. The

of slip is, however, considered of little importance, because marine engines as a rule, work but very little in the backward gear. When it is assumed that the motion shall be as efficient in backward gear as in forward gear, then the link should be suspended from a point midway between the eccentric-rod pins; in marine engine practice this point is generally below on the link-arc; for equal cut-offs it is better to move the point of suspension a small amount towards the eccentrics.

For obtaining the dimensions of the link in inches: Let L denote the length of the valve, B the breadth, p the absolute steam-pressure per sq. in., and R a factor of computation used as below; then $R = .01 \sqrt{L \times B \times p}$.

Breadth of the link.....	=	$R \times 1.5$
Thickness T of the bar.....	=	$R \times .8$
Length of sliding-block.....	=	$R \times 2.5$
Diameter of eccentric-rod pins.....	=	$(R \times .7) + \frac{1}{4}$
Diameter of suspension-rod pin.....	=	$(R \times .5) + \frac{1}{4}$
Diameter of suspension-rod pin when overhung..	=	$(R \times .8) + \frac{1}{4}$
Diameter of block-pin when overhung.....	=	$R + \frac{1}{4}$
Diameter of block-pin when secured at both ends	=	$(R \times .8) + \frac{1}{4}$

The length of the link, that is, the distance from a to b , measured in straight line joining the ends of the link-arc in the slot, should be such as to allow the centre of the link-block pin P to be placed in a line with the eccentric-rod pins, leaving sufficient room for the slip of the block. Another type of link frequently used in marine engines is the double-bar link, and this type is again divided into two classes: one class embraces those links which have the eccentric-rod ends as well as the valve-spindle end between the bars, as shown at B (with these links the travel of the valve is less than the throw of the eccentric); the other class embraces those links, shown at C , for which the eccentric-rods are made with fork-ends, so as to connect the studs on the outside of the bars, allowing the block to slide to the end of the link, so that the centres of the eccentric-rod ends and the block-pin are in a line when in full gear, making the travel of the valve equal to the throw of the eccentric. The dimensions of these links when the distance between the eccentric-rod pins is $\frac{3}{4}$ to $\frac{3}{4}$ times the throw of eccentrics are found as follows:

Depth of bars.....	=	$(R \times 1.25) + \frac{1}{4}$
Thickness of bars.....	=	$(R \times .5) + \frac{1}{4}$
Diameter of centre of sliding-block.....	=	$R \times 1.5$

When the distance between the eccentric-rod pins is equal to 3 or 4 times the throw of the eccentrics, then

Depth of bars.....	=	$(R \times 1.25) + \frac{1}{4}$
Thickness of bars.....	=	$(R \times .5) + \frac{1}{4}$

All the other dimensions may be found by the first table. These are empirical rules, and the results may have to be slightly changed to suit particular conditions. In marine engines the eccentric-rod ends for all classes of links have adjustable brasses. In locomotives the slot-link is usually employed, and in these the pin-holes have case-hardened bushes driven into the link-holes, and have no adjustable brasses in the ends of the eccentric-rod pins; link in B is generally suspended by one of the eccentric-rod pins; and link in C is suspended by one of the pins in the end of the link, or by one of the eccentric-rod pins.

Other Forms of Valve-Gear, as the Joy, Marshall, Barker, Brennan, Wasschaert, Corliss, &c., are described in Clark's Steam-engine, vol. II. The design of the Reynolds-Corliss valve-gear is discussed by A. Stridberg in Power, Sep. 1893. See also Henthorn on the Corliss valve-gear in Rules for laying down the centre lines of the Joy valve-gear and other American Machinery, Nov. 13, 1890. For Joy's "Fluid-pressure horizontal valve," see Eng'g, May 25, 1894.

GOVERNORS.

Centrifugal Governor.—The inclination of the arms of the governor on the vertical axis is such that the height of the balls above the horizontal plane to which they are suspended is such as to counterbalance the weight of the balls in the vertical position.

with the weight of the balls) bears to the radius r of the circle by the centres of the balls the ratio

$$\frac{h}{r} = \frac{\text{weight}}{\text{centrifugal force}} = \frac{w}{wv^2} = \frac{gr}{v^2}$$

h is independent of the weight of the balls, v being the velocity in feet per second.

Number of revolutions of the balls in 1 second, $v = 2\pi rT = ar$, in the angular velocity, or $2\pi T$, and

$$h = \frac{gr^2}{v^2} = \frac{g}{4\pi^2 T^2}, \text{ or } h = \frac{0.8146}{T^2} \text{ feet} = \frac{9.775}{T^2} \text{ inches,}$$

taken at 32.16. If N = number of revs. per minute, $h = \frac{35190}{N^2}$

Revolutions per minute.....	40	45	50	60	75
Height in inches will be.....	21.99	17.38	14.08	9.775	6.286

of turns per minute required to cause the arms to take a given angle to the vertical axis: Let l = length of the arm in inches from the suspension to the centre of gyration, and α the required angle;

$$N = \sqrt{\frac{35190}{l \cos \alpha}} = 187.6 \sqrt{\frac{1}{l \cos \alpha}} = 187.6 \sqrt{\frac{1}{h}}$$

A Porter governor is not isochronous; that is, it does not revolve at a constant speed in all positions, the speed changing as the angle of the arms varies. To remedy this defect loaded governors, such as Porter's, are made with the balls of a common governor whose collective weight is A and are hung by a pair of links of lengths equal to the pendulum arms, capable of sliding on the spindle, having its centre of gravity in the plane of rotation. Then the centrifugal force is that due to A alone, and the weight of gravity is that due to $A + 2B$; consequently the altitude for a given angle α is increased in the ratio $(A + 2B) : A$, as compared with that of a simple governor, and a given absolute variation in altitude produces a smaller proportionate variation in speed than in the common governor. (S. E., p. 551.)

In a weighted governor let l = the length of the arm from the point of suspension to the centre of gravity of the ball, and let the length of the suspension link, l_1 = the length of the portion of the arm from the point of suspension to the point of attachment of the link; G = the weight of the ball, Q = half the weight of the sliding weight, h = the height of the ball from the point of suspension to the plane of revolution of the ball, the angular velocity = $2\pi T$, T being the number of revolutions per

second when $a = \sqrt{\frac{32.16}{h} \left(1 + \frac{2l_1 Q}{l G}\right)}$; $h = \frac{32.16}{a^2} \left(1 + \frac{2l_1 Q}{l G}\right)$ in feet, or $h = \frac{32.16}{a^2} \left(1 + \frac{2l_1 Q}{l G}\right)$ in inches, N being the number of revolutions per

second. For other forms of governor see App. Cycl. Mech., vol. II. 61, and Clark's Cycl. Mech., vol. II. p. 65.

Change the Speed of an Engine Having a Fly-ball Governor.

A slight difference in the speed of a governor changes the position of its weights from that required for full load to that required for a smaller load. It is evident therefore that, whatever the speed of the engine, the speed of the governor must be that for which the governor was designed. The speed of the governor must be kept the same. To change the speed of the engine the problem is to so adjust the pulleys which drive the engine that the engine at its new speed shall drive it just as fast as at its original speed. In order to increase the engine-speed, a driver pulley upon the shaft of the engine, i.e., the driver pulley of the governor, i.e., the driven, in the proportion that the speed is to be increased.

Fly-wheel or Shaft Governors.—At the Centennial Exhibition 1876 there were shown a few steam-engines in which the governor consisted in the fly-wheel or hand-wheel, the fly-balls or weights revolved around the shaft in a vertical plane with the wheel and shifting the eccentric so automatically to vary the travel of the valve and the point of cut-off. This form of governor has since come into extensive use, especially in high-speed engines. In its usual form two weights are carried on arms each of which are pivoted to two points on the pulley near its circumference, 180° apart. Links connect these arms to the eccentric, which is not rigidly keyed to the shaft but is free to move a very small amount across it for a certain distance, having an oblong hole which follows the circumference of the wheel and to pull the eccentric into a position of minimum eccentricity. This force is resisted by a spring attached to each link which tends to pull the weights towards the shaft and shift the eccentric to the position of maximum eccentricity. The travel of the valve is varied, so that it tends to cut off earlier in the stroke as the engine increases its speed. Many modifications of this general form are in use. For specimens of this form of governor see Hartnell, Proc. Inst. M. E., 1882, p. 17; Trans. S. M. E., ix, 300; xi, 302; xiv, 72; xv, 329; Modern Machinery, 2, 288; Whitman's Constructive Steam Engineering; J. Hegtrup, *ibid.*, Oct. 29 and Dec. 24, 1883, Jan. 15 and March 1, 1894.

Calculation of Springs for Shaft-governors. (Wilson's *ibid.*, Proc. Inst. M. E., Aug. 1883.)—The springs for shaft-governors may conveniently be calculated as follows, dimensions being in inches:

- Let W = weight of the balls or weights, in pounds;
 r_1 and r_2 = the maximum and minimum radial distances of the balls of the centre of gravity of the weights;
 l_1 and l_2 = the leverages, i.e., the perpendicular distances from the centre of the weight-pin to a line in the direction of the centrifugal force drawn through the centre of gravity of the weights or balls at r_1 and r_2 ;
 m_1 and m_2 = the corresponding leverages of the springs;
 C_1 and C_2 = the centrifugal forces, for 100 revolutions per minute, radii r_1 and r_2 ;
 P_1 and P_2 = the corresponding pressures on the spring;
 (It is convenient to calculate these and note them down for reference C_3 and C_4 = maximum and minimum centrifugal forces;
 S = mean speed (revolutions per minute);
 S_1 and S_2 = the maximum and minimum number of revolutions per minute;
 P_3 and P_4 = the pressures on the spring at the limiting number of revolutions (S_1 and S_2);
 $P_4 - P_3 = D$ = the difference of the maximum and minimum pressures on the springs;
 V = the percentage of variation from the mean speed, or the sensitiveness;
 t = the travel of the spring;
 u = the initial pressure on the spring;
 v = the stiffness in pounds per inch;
 w = the maximum pressure = $u + t$.

The mean speed and sensitiveness desired are supposed to be given.

$$S_1 = S - \frac{SV}{100}; \quad S_2 = S + \frac{SV}{100};$$

$$C_1 = 0.28 \times r_1 \times W; \quad C_2 = 0.28 \times r_2 \times W;$$

$$P_1 = C_1 \times \frac{l_1}{m_1}; \quad P_2 = C_2 \times \frac{l_2}{m_2};$$

$$P_3 = P_1 \times \left(\frac{S_1}{100}\right)^2; \quad P_4 = P_2 \times \left(\frac{S_2}{100}\right)^2;$$

$$v = \frac{D}{t}, \quad u = \frac{P_3}{v}, \quad w = \frac{P_4}{v}.$$

It is usual to give the sensitiveness in terms of the percentage of variation from the mean speed. To make the values of P_1 and P_2 comparable, the dimensions of the springs should be the same.

the formulæ for strength and extension of springs, and the of the spring as compressed be determined.

$$\text{The governor-power} = \frac{P_2 + P_4}{2} \times \frac{t}{12}$$

light centripetal line, the governor-power

$$= \frac{C_2 + C_4}{2} \times \left(\frac{r_2 - r_1}{12} \right).$$

inary determination of the governor-power it may be taken is in all cases, although it is evident that with a curved cent will be slightly less. The difference D must be constant for ing, however great or little its initial compression. Let the wed up until its minimum pressure is P_1 . Then to find the $s + D$,

$$s_1 = 100 \sqrt{\frac{P_2}{P_1}}; \quad s_2 = 100 \sqrt{\frac{P_4}{P_2}}$$

at which the governor would be isochronous would be

$$100 \sqrt{\frac{D}{P_2 - P_1}}$$

pressure on the spring with a speed of 100 revolutions, at the minimum radii, was 200 lbs. and 100 lbs., respectively, then of the spring to suit a variation from 95 to 105 revolutions will $)^2 = 90.2$ and $200 \times \left(\frac{105}{100} \right)^2 = 220.5$. That is, the increase from the minimum to the maximum radius must be $220 - 90 =$ speeds due to such a spring, screwed up to different pressure in the following table:

er minute, balls shut.....	80	90	95	100	110	120
ings, balls shut.....	64	81	90	100	121	144
ressure when balls open fully.....	130	130	130	130	130	130
ings, balls open fully.....	194	211	220	230	251	274
er minute, balls open fully.....	98	102	105	107	112	117
er cent of mean speed ...	10	6	5	3	1	-1

at which the governor would become isochronous is 114. will give the right variation at some speed; hence in experi- a governor the correct spring may be found from any wrong simple calculation. Thus, if a governor with a spring whose lbs. per inch acts best when the engine runs at 95, 90 being its then $50 \times \left(\frac{90}{95} \right)^2 = 45$ lbs. is the stiffness of spring required. e the speed at which the governor acts best, the springs may o until it begins to "hunt" and then slackened until the gov- isitive as is compatible with steadiness.

CONDENSERS, AIR-PUMPS CIRCULATING-PUMPS, ETC.

Condenser. (Chiefly abridged from Seaton's Marine Engi-
e jet condenser is now uncommon, being generally supplanted
e condenser. With the jet condenser a vacuum of 24 in. was
ry good, and 25 in. as much as was possible with most conden-
erature corresponding to 24 in. vacuum, or 3 lbs. press-
o practice the temperature in the hot-well varies f
asionally as much as 130° is maintained. To find the
er per pound of steam to be condensed: Let $T_1 =$
t the exhaust pressure; $T_0 =$ temperature of the

what was usual to allow for general traders.

Area of injection orifice = weight of injection-water to 780.

A rough rule sometimes used is: Allow one fifteenth every cubic foot of water condensed per hour.

Another rule: Area of injection orifice = area of piston. The volume of the jet condenser is from one fourth to the cylinder. It need not be more than one third, except running engines.

Ejector Condensers.—For ejector or injector condenser (Schutte's, etc.) the calculations for quantity of condensate are for jet condensers.

The Surface Condenser—Cooling Surface.—A condenser with cooling water of an initial temperature of 68° to 77° F. plate condensed 21.5 lbs. of steam per hour, while 100 lbs. per hour can be condensed. In practice, with the common condenser-tubes, 18 B.W.G. thick, 13 lbs. of steam per hour can be condensed with the cooling-water at an initial temperature of 60°, if it works when the temperature of the feed-water is to be 60°. It has been found that the surface in the condenser must be 10% greater than the surface of the boiler, and under some circumstances, 20%. In general practice the following holds good when sea-water is about 60°:

Terminal pres., lbs., abs.	30	20	15	12½
Sq. ft. per I.H.P.	3	2.50	2.25	2.00

For ships whose station is in the tropics the allowance should be increased by 20%, and for ships which occasionally visit the tropics the allowance should be increased by 10%. These figures give satisfactory results. If a ship is constantly employed in the tropics a 10% less suffices.

Whitbam (Steam-engine Design, p. 283, also Trans-

actions, p. 100) gives the following: $S = \frac{WL}{ck(T_1 - t)}$, in which S = condensing surface in sq. ft.; T_1 = temperature Fahr. of steam of the press vacuum-gauge; t = mean temperature of the circulating water; k = coefficient of condensation, the arithmetical mean of the initial and final temperature of saturated steam at temperature T_1 ; k = perfect condensation for brass, according to Isherwood's experiments; c = noting the efficiency of the condensing surface; W = pounds of steam condensed per hour. From experiments by Isherwood and

pirality, however, always specify the tubes to be made of 70% of best copper and to have 1% of tin in the composition, and test the tubes at a pressure of 300 lbs. per sq. in. (Seaton.)

The diameter of the condenser tubes varies from $\frac{1}{2}$ inch in small condensers to 1 inch in very large condensers and long in the mercantile marine the tubes are, as a rule, $\frac{3}{4}$ inch diameter for 18 B.W.G. thick (0.049 inch); and 16 B.W.G. (0.065), under exceptional circumstances. In the British Navy the tubes are also, for 18 B.W.G. $\frac{3}{4}$ inch diameter, and 18 to 19 B.W.G. thick, tinned on both sides; the condenser is made of brass the Admiralty do not require the tubes to be tinned. Some of the smaller engines have tubes $\frac{5}{8}$ inch diameter, and 19 B.W.G. thick. The smaller the tubes, the larger is the surface which is exposed in a certain space.

The most common and almost universal practice is to circulate the water through the tubes.

The velocity of flow through the tubes should not be less than 200 ft. per min. nor more than 700 ft. per min.

Tube-plates are usually made of brass. Rolled-brass tube-plates are from 1.1 to 1.5 times the diameter of tubes in thickness, depending on the method of packing. When the packings go completely through the tubes the latter, but when only partly through the former, is sufficient. For $\frac{3}{4}$ -inch tubes the plates are usually $\frac{7}{8}$ to 1 inch thick with glands or packings, and 1 to $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch thick with wooden ferrules.

Tube-plates should be secured to their seatings by brass studs and brass screw-bolts; in fact there must be no wrought iron of any kind in a condenser. When the tube-plates are of large area it is advisable to brace them by brass-rods, to prevent them from collapsing.

Spacing of Tubes, etc.—The holes for ferrules, glands, or indicators are usually $\frac{1}{4}$ inch larger in diameter than the tubes; but when unnecessary the wood ferrules may be only $\frac{3}{32}$ inch thick.

The pitch of tubes when packed with wood ferrules is usually $\frac{1}{4}$ inch greater than the diameter of the ferrule-hole. For example, the tubes are arranged zigzag, and the number which may be fitted into a square foot of plate is as follows:

Diameter of tube, in.	No. in a sq. ft.	Pitch of Tubes.	No. in a sq. ft.	Pitch of Tubes.	No. in a sq. ft.
6"	172	1 5/32"	138	1 1/4"	110
	150	1 3/16"	121	1 9/32"	106
	137	1 7/32"	116	1 5/16"	99

Quantity of Cooling Water.—The quantity depends chiefly upon the temperature, which in Atlantic practice may vary from 40° in the temperate zone to 80° in subtropical seas. To raise the temperature of the water in the condenser will require three times as many thermal units in the former case as in the latter, and therefore only one third as much water will be required in the former case as in the latter.

= temperature of steam entering the condenser;
 = " " circulating-water entering the condenser;
 = " " " leaving the condenser;
 = " " water condensed from the steam;

$$Q = \text{quantity of circulating water in lbs.} = \frac{1114 + 0.3(T_1 - T_2)}{T_2 - T_0}$$

It is usual to provide pumping power sufficient to supply 40 times the quantity of steam for general traders, and as much as 50 times for ships stationed in subtropical seas, when the engines are compound. If the circulating pump is double-acting, its capacity may be $\frac{1}{53}$ in the former and $\frac{1}{43}$ in the latter case of the capacity of the low-pressure cylinder.

Air-pump.—The air-pump in all condensers abstracts the water and the air originally contained in the water when it entered the condenser. In the case of jet-condensers it also pumps out the water and the air which it contained. The size of the pump is calculated on these conditions, making allowance for efficiency of the pump.

If W be the net feed-water in pounds,

$$\text{Diameter of each feed-pump plunger in inches} = \sqrt{\frac{89 \times W}{n \times 4}}$$

An Evaporative Surface Condenser built at the Virginia cultural College is described by James H. Pitts (Trans. A. S. M. E., 21). It consists of two rectangular end chambers connected by a series of zonal rows of tubes, each row of tubes immersed in a pan of water. Through the spaces between the surface of the water in each pan a top of one of the end-chambers is an inlet for steam, and a horizontal phragm about midway causes the steam to traverse the upper half-tubes and back through the lower. An outlet at the bottom leads to the pump. The condenser, exclusive of connection to the exhaust fan, has a floor space of $6' 4\frac{1}{2}" \times 1' 9\frac{1}{2}"$, and $4' 1\frac{1}{2}"$ high. There are 27 tubes, 8 in some and 7 in others; 210 tubes in all. The tubes are of No. 20 B.W.G., $\frac{3}{4}"$ external diameter and $4' 9\frac{1}{2}"$ in length. The cooling face (internal) is 176.5 sq. ft. There are 27 cooling pans, each $4' 9\frac{1}{2}" \times 1' 7\frac{1}{8}"$ and $1\frac{1}{16}"$ deep. These pans have galvanized iron bottoms which into horizontal grooves $\frac{1}{4}"$ wide and $\frac{3}{4}"$ deep, planed into the tubes. The total evaporating surface is 234.8 sq. ft. Water is fed to every tube through small cocks, and overflow pipes feed the rest. A wood casing nests one side with a 30" Buffalo Forge Co.'s disk-wheel. This is belted to a $3' \times 4'$ vertical engine. The air-pump is $5\frac{1}{2}"$ diameter $\times 6'$ stroke, is vertical and single-acting.

The action of this condenser is as follows: The passage of air over water surfaces removes the vapor as it rises and thus hastens evaporation. The heat necessary to produce evaporation is obtained from the steam-tubes, causing the steam to condense. It was designed to condense 30 steam per hour and give a vacuum of 22 in., with a terminal pressure-cylinder of 20 lbs. absolute.

Results of tests show that the cooling-water required is practically equal amount to the steam used by the engine. And since consumption of it is reduced by the application of a condenser, its use will actually reduce total quantity of water required. From a curve showing the rate of evaporation per square foot of surface in still air, and also one showing the when a current of air of about 2300 ft. per min. velocity is passed over surface, the following approximate figures are taken:

Temp. F.	Evaporation, lbs. per sq. ft. per hour.		Temp. F.	Evaporation, lbs. per sq. ft. per hour.	
	Still Air.	Current.		Still Air.	Current.
100°	0.2	1.1	140°	0.8	2.0
110	0.25	1.6	150	1.1	2.7
120	0.4	2.5	160	1.5	3.3
130	0.6	3.5	170	2.0	4.0

The Continuous Use of Condensing-water is described in a series of articles in *Power*, Aug.-Dec., 1892. It finds its application in situations where water for condensing purposes is expensive or difficult to obtain.

In San Francisco J. C. H. Stut cools the water after it has left the well by means of a system of pans upon the roof. These pans are shallow troughs of galvanized iron arranged in tiers, on a slight incline, so that water flows back and forth for 1500 or 2000 ft., cooling by evaporation as it flows. The pans are about 5 ft. in width, and the water flows has a depth of about half an inch, the temperature being reduced about 140° to 90° . The water from the hot-well is pumped up to the high point of the cooling system and allowed to flow as above described, discharging finally into the main tank or reservoir, whence it again flows to the condenser as required. As the water in the reservoir lowers from evaporation, auxiliary feed from the city mains to the condenser is opened, so keeping the amount of water in circulation practically constant. The circulation of the water is necessary about once in six weeks or so, and is made by the engines, with dust from the surrounding materials, running condensing and non-condensing and by

water is taken from the city mains when the whole apparatus when the engine is run non-condensing, 22 to 23 in. of vacuum is obtained. A better vacuum is obtained on a warm day with a brisk movement of the air.

The water from the hot-well is sprayed from a number of nozzles also from a pipe extending around its border, into a large chamber for cooling it sufficiently for the obtaining of a good vacuum.

A patent system patented by Messrs See, of Lille, France, the water is distributed in a pipe laid in the form of a rectangle and elevated above a series of special nozzles, by which it is projected into a fine spray coming into contact with the air in this state of extreme division is cooled 40° to 50°, with a loss by evaporation of only one per cent, and produces an excellent vacuum. A 3000-H.P. cooler has been erected at Lannoy, one of 2560 H.P. at Madrid, and 1200 H.P. at Liege, as well as others at Routaix and Touroing. The system is best used upon a roof if ground space were limited.

The "air-cooling" system of H. R. Worthington the injection-water is pumped into a tank, and after having passed through the condenser is distributed in a heated condition to the top of a cooling tower, where it is scattered by means of distributing-pipes and trickles down through a cellular structure of 6-in. terra-cotta pipes, 2 ft. long, stood on end. The water is cooled by a blast of air furnished by a disk fan at the bottom of the tower. The absorption of heat caused by a portion of the water being used is led to the tank to be again started on its circuit. (*Eng'g*, 1896, p. 15.)

The apparatus of a condenser of T. Ledward & Co. of Brockley, London, consists of a large condenser or radiator, and by means of a fan carries away the heat necessary to be abstracted to condense the steam inside. The condensing pipes are fitted with corrugations in the form of circular ribs, whereby the radiating or cooling surface is increased. The pipes, which are cast in sections about 70 in. long by 4 in. diameter, have a cooling surface of 26 sq. ft., which is found sufficient under favorable conditions to permit of the condensation of 20 to 30 lbs. of steam per hour when producing a vacuum of 13 lbs. per sq. in. In a factory of this type at Rixdorf, near Berlin, a vacuum ranging from 24 in. of mercury was constantly maintained during the hottest weather. The initial temperature of the cooling-water used in the apparatus ranged from 80° to 85° F., and the temperature in the sun, where the condenser was exposed, varied each day from 100° to 115° F. In experiments it was found that it was possible to run one engine of 100 horse-power and maintain the full vacuum without the use of cooling-water at all on the pipes, radiation afforded by the pipes being sufficient to condense the steam for this power.

In the case of a condensing water-cooler, the hot water coming from the condenser is carried to the top of a wooden structure about twenty feet in height, and is divided into a series of parallel narrow metal tanks. The water from these tanks is spread as a thin film over a series of wooden partitions suspended vertically about 3¼ inches apart within the tower. The tower is divided into two sets of partitions, corresponding to the number of metal tanks, and the water flows down the tower. From there down to the well is suspended a second set of partitions placed at right angles to the first set. This arrangement increases the rapidity of the downflow of the water, and also thoroughly mixes the water, thus affording a better cooling. A fan-blower at the base of the tower gives a strong current of air with a velocity of about twenty feet per second against the thin film of water running down over the partitions. It is estimated that for an effectual cooling two thousand times more air must be forced through the apparatus. With such a velocity of air the current absorbs about two per cent of aqueous vapor. The action of the current is twofold: first, it absorbs heat from the hot water by conduction; secondly, it warms by radiation; and, secondly, it increases the evaporation process, which in turn absorbs a great amount of heat. These two cooling processes are different during the different seasons of the year. During the summer months the direct cooling effect of the cold air is greater, while during the winter months the heat absorption by evaporation is the more important. Throughout all the year round, the effect remains very much the same, for the evaporation is never so great that the deficiency of water would be made up by the additional amount of water resulting from the condensation of the very cold winter months it may be necessary to collect the surplus water. It was found that the vacuum obtained

this continual use of the same condensing-water varied during between 27.5 and 28.7 inches. The great saving of space is evident in the fact that only the five-hundredth part of the floor-space is required if cooling tanks or ponds were used. For a 100-horse-power engine floor-space required is about four square yards by a height of two feet. For one horse-power 3.6 square yards cooling-surface is necessary. The vertical suspension of the partitions is very essential. With a vent of 10 inches in diameter and a tower 6 by 7 feet and 20 feet high, 10,500 gals. of water per hour were cooled from 104° F. to 68° F. The following was made at Mannheim, Germany: Vacuum in condenser, 28.1 inch; temperature of condensing-water entering at top of tower, 104°; temperature of water leaving the cooler, 66.2° to 71.6° F. The engine of the Sulzer compound type, of 130 horse-power. The amount necessary for the arrangement amounts to about three per cent of horse-power of the engine for the ventilator, and from one and one-third to three per cent for the lifting of the water to the top of the cooler, being four and one-half to six per cent.

A novel form of condenser has been used with considerable success in Germany and other parts of the Continent. The exhaust-steam of the engine passes through a series of brass pipes immersed in water, it gives up its heat. Between each section of tubes a number of glass disks are caused to rotate. These disks are cooled by a current supplied by a fan and pass down into the water, cooling it by absorbing the heat given out by the exhaust-steam and carrying it up and being driven off by the air-current. The disks serve also to agitate the water, thus aid it in abstracting the heat from the steam. With 23 inches vacuum the temperature of the cooling water was about 130° F. The consumption of water for condensing is guaranteed to be less than 1 lb. for each pound of steam condensed. For an engine 40 in. \times 50 in. running 100 revolutions per minute, 90 lbs. pressure, there is about 1150 sq. ft. of cooling surface. Another condenser, 1600 sq. ft. of condensing-surface, is used for three engines, 32 in. \times 48 in., 27 in. \times 40 in., and 30 in. \times 40 in., respectively. — *The Steamship.*

The Increase of Power that may be obtained by adding a vacuum giving a vacuum of 26 inches of mercury to a non-condensing engine may be approximated by considering it to be equivalent to a net gain of 1 lb. mean effective pressure per square inch of piston area. If A = area in square inches, S = piston-speed in ft. per minute, then $\frac{13.2AS}{33,000} = \text{H.P.}$ made available by the vacuum. If the vacuum = 13.2 lbs. per sq. in. of mercury, then $\text{H.P.} = AS \div 2500$.

The saving of steam for a given horse-power will be represented approximately by the shortening of the cut-off when the engine is run with a condenser. Clearance should be included in the calculation. To obtain the effective pressure non-condensing, with a given actual cut-off, considered, add 3 lbs. to obtain the approximate mean total pressure. From tables of expansion of steam find what actual cut-off gives this mean total pressure. The difference between this and the actual cut-off, divided by the latter and by 100, will give the per cent saving.

The following diagram (from catalogue of H. R. Worthington) shows the percentage of power that may be gained by attaching a condenser to a non-condensing engine, assuming that the vacuum is 12 lbs. per sq. in. The diagram also shows the mean pressure in the cylinder for a given cut-off, clearance and cut-off, clearance and compression not considered.

The pressures given in the diagram are absolute pressures above the atmosphere. To find the mean effective pressure produced in an engine-cylinder with 105 lbs. gauge (= 105 lbs. absolute) pressure, cut-off at $\frac{1}{4}$ stroke: find the initial pressure column, follow the horizontal line to the left until it intersects the oblique line that corresponds to the $\frac{1}{4}$ cut-off. From this intersection point, follow the vertical line down to the horizontal line representing the mean total pressure from the row of figures directly above the intersection, which in this case is 63 lbs. From this subtract the initial back pressure (say 3 lbs. for a condensing engine and 15 lbs. for a non-condensing engine exhausting into the atmosphere) to obtain the mean effective pressure, which in this case, for a non-condensing engine, would be 48 lbs. To find the gain of power by the use of a condenser with 12 lbs. vacuum, find the mean effective pressure for a condensing engine on the same scale the figures that correspond to position of the initial back pressure in this case 25. As the diagram does not show the effect of compression, the results are only approximate.

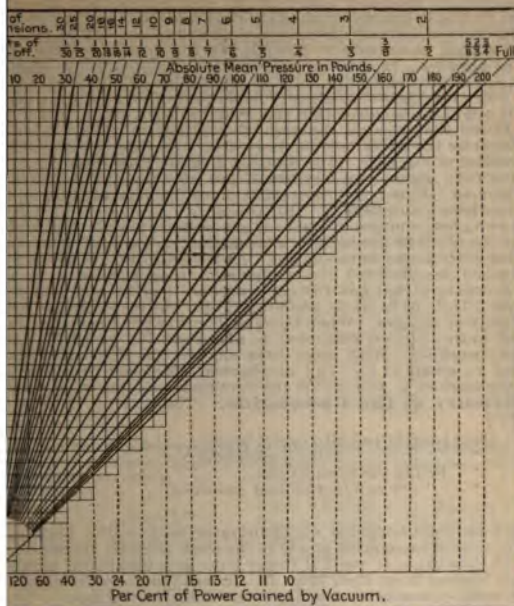


FIG. 151.

ators and Distillers are used with marine engines for the providing fresh water for the boilers or for drinking purposes. **vaporator** consists of a small horizontal boiler, contrived so as taken to pieces and cleaned. The water in it is evaporated from the main boilers passing through a set of tubes placed in its the steam generated in this boiler is admitted to the low-dive-box, so that there is no loss of energy, and the water condensed is returned to the main boilers.

Feed-heater the feed-water before entering the boiler is heated arly to boiling-point by means of the waste water and steam w-pressure valve-box of a compound engine.

PETROLEUM, AND HOT-AIR ENGINES.

gines.—For theory of the gas-engine, see paper by Dugald Inst. C. E. 1882, vol. lxi.; and Van Nostrand's Science Series, also Wood's Thermodynamics. For construction of gas-engines, on's Gas and Petroleum Engines; articles by Albert Spies in *Magazine*, 1893; also Appleton's Cyc. of Mechanics, and Modern

inary type of single-cylinder gas-engine (for example the Otto) **four-cycle engine** one ignition of gas takes place in one end of **every two revolutions** of the fly-wheel, or every two **double** **the following sequence of operations** takes place during **four** **strokes:** (a) **inspiration** during an entire stroke; (b) **cond** (return) stroke; (c) **ignition** at the dead-point, at **the third stroke;** (d) **expulsion** of the burnt gas during **the fourth stroke.** Beau de Rochas in 1862 laid down the law that

four conditions necessary to realize the best results from the blast of gas: (1) The cylinders should have the greatest capacity with the circumferential surface; (2) the speed should be as high as possible cut-off should be as early as possible; (4) the initial pressure should be as high as possible. In modern engines it is customary for ignition to take place, not at the dead point, as proposed by Beau de Rochas, but a little later, when the piston has already made part of its forward stroke, so that it might be supposed that this would entail a loss of power, but experience shows that though the area of the diagram is diminished, it is more than registered by the friction-brake is greater. Starting is also made easier by this method of working. (The Simplex Engine, Proc. Inst. M. E. 1892.)

In the Otto engine the mixture of gas and air is compressed to 10 to 15 atmospheres. When explosion takes place the temperature suddenly rises to somewhere about 2900° F. (Robinson.)

The two great sources of waste in gas-engines are: 1. The high temperature of the rejected products of combustion; 2. Loss of heat through the cylinder walls to the water-jacket. As the temperature of the water is increased the efficiency of the engine becomes higher.

With ordinary coal-gas the consumption may be taken at 30 to 40 cubic feet per I.H.P., or 24 cu. ft. per brake H.P. The consumption will vary with the quality of the gas. When burning Dowson producer-gas the consumption of anthracite (Welsh) coal is about 1.3 lbs. per I.H.P. per hour ordinary working. With large twin engines, 100 H.P., the consumption is reduced to about 1.1 lb. The mechanical efficiency of B.H.P. gas-engines is about 85%; the friction loss is less in larger engines.

Efficiency of the Gas-engine. (Thurston on Heat as a Working Agent.)

Heat transferred into useful work.....	52
" " to the jacket-water.....	16
" " lost in the exhaust-gas.....	15
" " by conduction and radiation.....	15

This represents fairly the distribution of heat in the best form of engine. The consumption of gas in the best engines ranges from 18 to 30 cu. ft. per I.H.P. per hour to a maximum exceed smaller engines 25 cu. ft. or 30 cu. ft. In small engines the consumption of gas per horse-power is one third greater than these figures.

The report of a test of a 170-H.P. Crossley (Otto) gas-engine in 1892, using producer-gas, shows a consumption of but .85 lb. of gas per hour, or an absolute combined efficiency of 21.3% for the engine and producer. The efficiency of the engine alone is in the neighborhood of 30%.

The Taylor gas-producer is used in connection with the Otto gas-engine. The works of Schleicher, Schumm & Co., of Philadelphia. The only loss of heat is by radiation through the walls of the producer and a small amount carried off in the water from the scrubber. Experiments on a 100 H.P. engine show a consumption of 97/100 lb. of carbon per I.H.P. per hour. This result is superior to any ever obtained on a steam-engine. (Proc. Inst. M. E. 1892.)

Tests of the Simplex Gas-engine. (Proc. Inst. M. E. 1892.) A cylinder 7 1/2 x 15 1/4 in., speed 160 revs. per min. Trials were made with gas of a heating value of 607 heat-units per cubic foot, and with gas, rich in CO, of about 150 heat-units per cubic foot.

	Town Gas.			Dowson	
	1.	2.	3.	1.	2.
Effective H.P.....	6.70	8.67	9.28	7.12	9.8
Gas per H.P. per hour, cu. ft..	21.55	20.12	20.73	88.02	114.8
Water per H.P. per hour, lbs.	54.7	44.4	45.8	58.3	
Temp. water entering, F.....	51°	51°	51°	48°	
" " effluent.....	135°	144°	172°	144°	

The gas volume is reduced to 32° F, and 30 in barometer. A 36-H.P. engine working 35 to 40 effective H.P. with Dowson generator consumes 1.48 to 1.3 lbs. per effective H.P. per hour. English anthracite per hour, equal to 1.48 to 1.3 lbs. per effective H.P. per hour. A 30-H.P. engine working 18 H.P. used 19.4 cu. ft. of gas per effective H.P. per hour. The four-mile of St. Louis, Mo., with a 320-horse-power fuel-gas engine, the machine gives 450 horse-power with a piston-stroke in 40 in., and the

Special arrangements have been devised in order to keep the parts of the machine at appropriate temperatures. The coal used is 1 lb. per indicated or 1.03 lb. per brake horse-power. The water used is 10 lbs. per brake horse-power per hour.

of an Otto Gas-engine. (*Jour. F. I.*, Feb. 1890, p. 115.)—En-
gine nominal; working capacity of cylinder .3594 cu. ft.; clearance
390 cu. in.

	° F.	Heat-units,	Per cent of Heat received.	
Temperature of gas supplied..	62.2			
" " exhaust..	774.3			
" entering water..	50.4	Transferred into work.....	22.84	
" exit water....	80.2	Taken by jacket-water.....	49.94	
Volume of gas, in. of water..	3.06	" " exhaust.....	27.22	
Revolutions per min., av'ge....	161.6	Composition of the gas:		
Losses missed per min.,		By Volume.	By Weight.	
friction.....	6.8	CO ₂	0.50%	1.92%
Effective pressure, lbs.		C ₂ H ₄	4.32	10.520
in.	59.	O	1.00	2.797
Power, indicated.....	4.94	CO	5.33	15.419
Power per explosion, foot-		CH ₄	27.18	38.042
pounds.....	2304.	H	51.57	9.021
Revolutions per minute.....	74.	N	9.06	22.273
Indicated per I.H.P. per hour,				
pounds.....	23.4		99.96	99.995

Temperatures and Pressures developed in a Gas-engine.
in the Gas-engine.)—Mixtures of air and Oldham coal-gas. Temper-
ature before explosion, 17° C.

Mixture.	Max. Press above Atmos., lbs. per sq. in.	Temp. of Explo- sion calculated from observed Pressure.	Theoretical Temp. of Explo- sion if all Heat were evolved.
14 vols. Air.	40.	806° C.	1786° C.
13 " "	51.5	1033	1912
12 " "	60.	1202	2058
11 " "	61.	1220	2228
9 " "	78.	1557	2670
7 " "	87.	1733	3334
6 " "	90.	1792	3808
5 " "	91.	1812	..
4 " "	80.	1595	..

of the Clerk Gas-engine. (*Proc. Inst. C. E.* 1882, vol. lxi.)—
mean available pressure 70.1 lbs.; 9
maximum pressure, 220 lbs. per sq. in. above atmosphere; pressure
at ignition, 41 lbs. above atm.; temperature before compression 60°
C.; compression, 313° F.; temperature after ignition calculated from
2,280° F.; gas required per I.H.P. per hour, 22 cu. ft.

Combustion of the Gas in the Otto Engine.—John Inray, in
his paper on Theory of the Gas-engine, says: The
mixture which Mr. Otto introduced, and which rendered the engine a success,
was not a mixture of gas and air, but a mixture of gas and
air, instead of burning in the cylinder an explosive mixture of gas and
air, and arranged in a certain way in respect
to the volume of incombustible gas which was heated by it, and which
governed the speed of combustion. W. R. Bousfield, in the same discus-
sion, says: In the Otto engine the charge varied from a charge which was
merely a mixture of gas and air at the point of ignition to a charge which was merely
fluid near the piston. When ignition took place there was an explosion
at the point of ignition that was gradually communicated through-
out the mass of the cylinder. As the ignition got farther away from the
point of ignition the rate of transmission became slower, and if the
ignition were not worked too fast the ignition should gradually cease
during its travel, all the combustible gas being thus
consumed. The theory of slow combustion is, however, disputed by Mr.
Inray, who says: The whole quantity of combustible gas is ignited in a
single instant. **Carburated Air in Gas-engines.**—Air

gasoline or volatile petroleum spirit of low sp. gr., 0.65 to 0.70, than some of the gasoline, and the air thus saturated with vapor is equal in heating or lighting power to ordinary coal-gas. It may therefore be used as fuel for gas-engines. Since the vapor is given off at ordinary temperature gasoline is very explosive and dangerous, and should be kept in an underground tank out of doors. A defect in the use of carburetted air for engines is that the more volatile products are given off first, leaving a residue which is often useless. Some of the substances in the oil that are taken up by the air are apt to form troublesome deposits and increase when burned in the engine cylinder.

The Otto Gasoline-engine. (*Eng'g News*, May 4, 1881.)—It is claimed that where but a small gasoline-engine is used and the gas bought at retail the liquid fuel will be on a par with a steam-engine that consumes 10 lbs. of coal per horse-power per hour, and coal at \$3.50 per ton, and besides save all the handling of the solid fuel and ashes, as well as the attendance for the boilers. As very few small steam-engines consume less than 6 lbs. of coal per hour, this is an exceptional showing for economy. It costs 8 cts. per gallon for gasoline and 1/10 gal. required per H.P. per hour, cost per H.P. per hour will be 0.8 cent.

The Priestman Petroleum-engine. (*Jour. Frank Inst.*, 1893.)—The following is a description of the operation of the engine:—An ordinary high-test (usually 150° test) oil is forced under air-pressure into an atomizer, where the oil is met by a current of air and broken up into a spray and sprayed into a mixer, where it is mixed with the proper proportion of supplementary air and sufficiently heated by the exhaust from the cylinder passing around this chamber. The mixture is then drawn by suction into the cylinder, where it is compressed by the piston and ignited by an electric spark, a governor controlling the supply of oil and air proportionate to the work performed. The burnt products are discharged through an exhaust-valve which is actuated by a cam. Part of the air supports the combustion of the oil, and the heat generated by the combustion of the oil expands the air that remains and the products resulting from the explosion and thus develops its power from air that it takes in while running. In other words, the engine exerts its power by inhaling air, heating it, and expelling the products of combustion when done with. In the smallest sizes the fuel is prepared in correct quantities varying from 1/2500 of a pint upward, according to whether the engine is running at full duty. The cycle of operations is the same as that of the Otto engine.

Trials of a 5-H.P. Priestman Petroleum-engine. W. C. Unwin, Proc. Inst. C. E. 1893.)—Cylinder, 8½ × 12 in., making 200 revs. per min. Two oils were used, Russian and American. The important results were given in the following table:

	Trial V. Full Power.	Trial I. Full Power.	Trial IV. Full Power.	Trial II. Half Power.
Oil used.....	Day- light.	Russo- lene.	Russo- lene.	Russo- lene.
Brake H.P.	7.722	6.705	6.882	3.02
I.H.P.	9.369	7.408	8.332	4.70
Mechanical efficiency...	0.824	0.91	0.876	0.769
Oil used per brake H.P. hour, lb.....	0.842	0.946	0.988	1.381
Oil used per indicated H.P. hour, lb.....	0.694	0.864	0.816	1.063
Lb. of air per lb. of oil..	33.4	31.7	43.2	21.7
Mean explosion pressure, lbs. per sq. in.....	151.4	134.3	128.5	48.5
Mean compression pres- sure, lbs. per sq. in..	35.0	27.6	26.0	14.8
Mean terminal pressure, lbs. per sq. in.....	35.4	23.7	25.5	15.6

To compare the consumption with that of a steam-engine, the oil is equivalent to 1½ lbs. of coal. Then the

engine was equivalent, in Trials I, IV., and V., to 1.42 lbs., 1.48 lbs., and 1.50 lbs. of coal per brake horse-power per hour. From Trial IV. the values of the expenditure of heat were obtained:

	Per cent.
work at brake.....	13.31
friction.....	2.81
shown on indicator-diagram.....	16.12
lost in jacket-water.....	47.54
in exhaust-gases.....	36.72
lost and unaccounted for.....	9.61
Total.....	99.99

Naphtha-engines are in use to some extent in small yachts and launches. The naphtha is vaporized in a boiler, and the vapor is used in the engine-cylinder, as steam is used; it is then condensed and returned to the boiler. A portion of the naphtha vapor is used for fuel under the boiler. According to the circular of the builders, the Gas Engine Co. of New York, a 2-H.P. engine requires from 3 to 4 quarts of naphtha per hour, and a 4-H.P. engine from 4 to 6 quarts. The chief advantage of the naphtha-engine and boiler for launches are the saving of weight and compactness of operation. A 2-H.P. engine weighs 200 lbs., a 4-H.P. 300 lbs. (only about two minutes to get under headway. (Modern Marine Engineering, p. 270.)

Hot-air (or Caloric) Engines.—Hot-air engines are used to some extent in their bulk is enormous compared with their effective power. For example, that of the largest hot-air engine ever built (a total failure) see the life of Ericsson. For theoretical investigation, see Rankine's Engineering and Rontgen's Thermodynamics. For description of the engine, see Appleton's Cyc. of Mechanics and Modern Mechanism, and its Substitutes for Steam, Trans. A. S. M. E., vii., p. 693.

Hot-air Engine (Robinson).—A vertical double-cylinder engine (Co.'s) 12 nominal H.P. engine gave 20.19 I.H.P. in the working cylinder and 11.38 I.H.P. in the pump, leaving 8.81 net I.H.P.; while the engine consumed 5.9 lbs. of coke, giving a mechanical efficiency of 67%. Consumption of coke, 3.7 lbs. per brake H.P. per hour. Mean pressure on the cylinder, 7 lbs. per square inch, and in pumps 15.9 lbs., the area of working cylinder being twice that of the pumps. The hot air supplied was about 100° F. above that rejected at end of stroke about 890° F.

Stirling's hert-engine was 2.7 lbs. per brake H.P. per hour. The engine's hot-air engine, 2 H.P. nominal, gave 4.3 I.H.P., 2.6 B.H.P.; mechanical efficiency 62%; estimated temperature at highest pressure 1500° F. at atmospheric pressure 700° F. Highest pressure, 14 lbs. per square inch at 1 atmosphere. Consumption of fuel, 7 lbs. per hour per brake H.P. of cooling water, 30 lbs.

LOCOMOTIVES.

Efficiency of Locomotives and Resistance of Trains.

(Henderson, Proc. Engrs. Club of Phila. 1886.)—The efficiency of a locomotive can be divided into two principal parts: the first depending on the size of the cylinders and wheels, the valve-gear, boiler and steam-jacket, of which the tractive power is a function; and the second upon the grade, curvature, and friction, which combine to produce the resistance.

The tractive power may be determined as follows:

Let P = tractive power;
 P_e = average effective pressure in cylinder;
 L = stroke of piston;
 D = diameter of cylinders;
 d = diameter of driving-wheels. Then

$$P = \frac{4\pi d^2 p S}{4\pi D} = \frac{d^2 p S}{D}$$

The average effective pressure can be obtained from an indicator-diagram, or by calculation, when the initial pressure and ratio of expansion are known, together with the other properties of the valve-motion. The subjoined table from "Auchincloss" gives the proportion of mean effective pressure to boiler-pressure above atmosphere for various proportions of cut-off.

Stroke, Cut off at—	M.E.P. (Boiler- pres. = 1),	Stroke, Cut off at—	(M.E.P. Boiler- pres. = 1),	Stroke, Cut off at—	M.E.P. (Boiler- pres. = 1),
.1	.15	.333 = $\frac{1}{3}$.5 = $\frac{1}{2}$.025 = $\frac{5}{200}$.79
.125 = $\frac{1}{8}$.2	.375 = $\frac{3}{8}$.55	.066 = $\frac{1}{15}$.82
.15	.24	.4	.57	.7	.85
.175	.28	.45	.62	.75 = $\frac{3}{4}$.89
.2	.32	.5 = $\frac{1}{2}$.67	.8	.93
.25 = $\frac{1}{4}$.4	.55	.72	.875 = $\frac{7}{8}$.98
.3	.46				

These values were deduced from experiments with an English locomotive by Mr. Gooch. As diagrams vary so much from different causes, this table will only fairly represent practical cases. It is evident that the cut-off must be such that the boiler will be capable of supplying sufficient steam at the given speed.

In the following calculations it is assumed that the adhesion of the engine is at least equal to the tractive power, which is generally the case—if the engine be well designed—except when starting, or running at a very low rate of speed, with a small expansive ratio. When running faster, economy, and also the size of the boiler, necessitate a higher ratio of expansion, thus reducing the tractive power below the adhesion. If the adhesion be less than the tractive power, substitute it for the latter in the following formulae.

The resistances can be computed in the following manner, first considering the train:

There is a resistance due to friction of the journals, pressure of wind, etc., which increases with the speed. Most of the experiments made with a view of determining the resistance of trains have been with European rolling-stock and on European railways. The few trials that have been made here seem to prove that with American systems this resistance is less.

The following table gives the resistance at different speeds, assumed for American practice:

Speed in miles per hour :												
<i>s</i> =	5	10	15	20	25	30	35	40	45	50	55	60
Resistance in pounds per ton of 2240 lbs.:												
<i>y</i> =	3.1	3.4	4.	4.8	5.8	7.1	8.6	10.2	12.1	14.3	16.8	19.2
Coefficient of resistance in terms of load :												
<i>l</i> =	.0015	.0017	.0020	.0024	.0029	.0035	.0043	.0051	.0060	.0071	.0084	.0096
	$l = .0015 \left(1 + \frac{s^2}{650} \right)$.											

The resistance due to curvature is about .5 lb. per ton per degree of curvature, or the coefficient = .0025*c*, where *c* = the curvature in degrees.

The effect of grades may be determined by the theory of the inclined plane.

Consider a load *L* on a grade of *m* feet per mile. The component of the weight *L* acting in the line of traction, or parallel to the track, is

$$L \sin \theta = \frac{Lm}{5280} = .00019Lm.$$

To combine these coefficients in one equation representing the resistance of the train:

Let *L* = weight of train, exclusive of engine, in pounds;

R = resistance of train, in pounds.

s, *c*, and *m*, as above. Then

$$R = L \left[.0015 \left(1 + \frac{s^2}{650} \right) + .0025c \pm .00019m \right].$$

sign meaning that this coefficient is positive for ascending and negative descending grades. For a grade upon which a train would descend by itself, take the last term minus and make $R = 0$, whence

$$m = 7.9 \left(1 + \frac{g^2}{650} \right) + 1.3c.$$

Locomotives usually have a long rigid wheel-base, the coefficient for m here had better be doubled. The resistance due to the friction of the g parts will be considered as being proportional to the tractive power, the effective tractive power will be represented by uP , the resistance $R = uP$.

Combining all these values, there results the equation between the tractive power and the weight of the train and engine:

$$uP - W(.0005c \pm .00019m) = Ll + .00025c \pm .00019m,$$

where L is the weight of engine and tender, and u being probably about .8. Reforming, we have

$$L = \frac{uP - W(.0005c \pm .00019m)}{1 + .00025c \pm .00019m},$$

$$P = \frac{L(1 + .00025c \pm .00019m) + W(.0005c \pm .00019m)}{u}$$

The deductions, says Mr. Henderson, agree well with railroad practice. The figures given above for resistances are very much less than those of the old formulæ (which were certainly wrong), but even Mr. Henderson's figures for high speed are too high, according to a diagram given by Barnes in *Eng'g Mag.*, June, 1894, from which the following figures are

Speed, miles per hour.....	50	60	70	80	90	100
Resistance, pounds per gross ton..	12	12.4	13.5	15	17	20

See *News*, March 8, 1894, gives a formula which for high speeds gives for resistance between those of Mr. Barnes and Mr. Henderson. See also *News* of June 9, 1892. The formula is, resistance in pounds per ton = $\frac{1}{4}$ velocity in miles per hour + 2. This gives for

Velocity, miles per hour.....	5	10	15	20	25	30	35	40	45	50	60	70	80	90	100
Resistance, pounds per ton.....	3.75	4.5	5.25	7	8.25	9.5	10.75	12	13.25	14.5	17	19.5	22	24.5	27

Tables showing that the resistance varies with the area exposed to the wind and friction of the air per ton of load, see Dashiell, *Trans. A. S. M. E.*, vol. xiii, p. 371.

Inertia and Resistances of Railroad Trains at Increasing Speeds.—A series of tables and diagrams is given in *R. R. Gaz.*, Oct. 31, 1893, showing the resistances due to inertia in starting trains and accelerating at different speeds.

The mechanical principles and formulæ from which these data were calculated are as follows:

- 1. V = average speed in miles per hour during the first mile run.
- 2. V^2 = velocity in feet per second at the end of a mile; then $V + 2 =$ average velocity in feet per second during the first mile run.
- 3. $V^2/2 =$ time in seconds required to run first mile = $10560 \div V$.
- 4. $(10560 \div V) = V^2 \div 10560 = .0000947V^2 =$ Constant gain in velocity or acceleration in feet per second necessary to the acquirement of a velocity V in feet per second.

5. Acceleration due to the force of gravity, i.e., 32.2 feet per second. The forces required to accelerate a given mass in a given time to different velocities are in proportion to those velocities. The weight of a body is the measure of the force which accelerates it in the case of gravity, and as we consider 1 lb., or the unit of weight, as the mass to be accelerated, the ratio of $(V^2 \div 10560) : 1$ is to the force required to accelerate 1 lb. to the velocity V at the end of a mile run, or, what is the same, to accelerate it at the rate of $V^2 \div 10560$ feet per second.

6. The pull on the drawbar—it is the same as the force required to accelerate a given mass in a given time to different velocities and is properly termed the inertia—in pounds per second = $(V^2 \div 10560 \times 32.2)$, which equals $.00000294V^2$.

tractive efficiency of locomotives; With simple two-cyl-
 ing four wheels coupled, experiments have been made
 tive superintendent of the Eastern Railway of France, M
 greatest possible care and with the best apparatus, and t
 was that out of 100 I.H.P in the cylinders 43 H.P. only w
 draw-bar. The loss of 57% was rather a high price to pa
 of the engine. How much of that loss was due to co
 could yet say; but a considerable amount of it must be
 cause it was known that large engines with a single pai
 not coupled were doing their work more economically, w
 motive engineers who had not yet gone in for compound
 going back to the single pair of driving-wheels. Moreov
 loss of 57% had been confirmed independently on the Pen
 trials made with an engine having 18 $\frac{1}{4}$ x 24-in. cylind
 wheels four-coupled; by taking indicator diagrams up t
 which were professed to be taken correctly, the powe
 was found to be only 42% of that in the cylinders, or only
 French experiments.

The Size of Locomotive Cylinders is usual
 that the engine will just overcome the adhesion of its wh
 der favorable circumstances.

The adhesion of the wheel is about one third the weig
 clean and sanded, but is usually assumed at 0.25. (Thurs

A committee of the American Association of Maste
 studying the performance reports of the best engines, p

ing formula for weight on driving-wheels: $W = \frac{0.85C}{D}$

mean pressure in the cylinder is taken at 0.85 of the
 starting, C is a numerical coefficient of adhesion, d the d
 in inches, D that of the drivers in inches, P the pressu
 pounds per square inch, S the stroke of piston in inches.
 for passenger engines, 0.34 for freight, and 0.22 for "sw

The common builder's rule for determining the size o
 locomotive is the following, in which we accept Mr. F
 that the steam-pressure at the engine may be taken as
 the boiler. The tractive force is approximately $P \times 0.3$

on Borries's rule for the diameter of the low-pressure cylinder of a compound locomotive is $d^2 = \frac{2ZD}{ph}$,

where d = diameter of l. p. cylinder in inches;
 D = diameter of driving-wheel in inches;
 p = mean effective pressure per sq. in., after deducting internal machine friction;
 h = stroke of piston in inches;
 Z = tractive force required, usually 0.14 to 0.16 of the adhesion.

The value of p depends on the relative volume of the two cylinders, and in indicator experiments may be taken as follows:

Class of Engine.	Ratio of Cylinder Volumes.	p in percentage of Boiler-pressure.	p for Boiler-pressure of 176 lbs.
Sea-tender eng's	1:2 or 1:2.05	42	74
Loco-engines	1:2 or 1:2.2	40	71

The Size of Locomotive Boilers. (Forney's Catechism of the Locomotive.)—They should be proportioned to the amount of adhesive weight and to the speed at which the locomotive is intended to work. Thus a locomotive with a great deal of weight on the driving-wheels could pull a heavier load, would have a greater cylinder capacity than one with little adhesive weight, would consume more steam, and therefore should have a larger boiler.

The weight and dimensions of locomotive boilers are in nearly all cases governed by the limits of weight and space to which they are necessarily confined. It may be stated generally that *within these limits a locomotive boiler cannot be made too large*. In other words, boilers for locomotives should always be made as large as is possible under the conditions that determine the weight and dimensions of the locomotives.

Footen's Locomotive. (Clark's Steam-engine; see also Jour. Am. Inst. 1891, and Modern Mechanism, p. 485.)—J. E. Wooten designed and constructed a locomotive boiler for the combustion of anthracite and coke, though specially for the utilization as fuel of the waste produced in mining and preparation of anthracite. The special feature of the engine is the fire-box, which is made of great length and breadth, extending clear to the wheels, giving a grate-area of from 64 to 85 sq. ft. The draught raised over these large areas is so gentle as not to lift the fine particles of fuel. A number of express-engines having this type of boiler are engaged on the fast trains between Philadelphia and Jersey City. The fire-box shell is 8 in. wide and 10 ft. 5 in. long; the fire-box is 8×9¼ ft., making 76 sq. ft. of grate-area. The grate is composed of bars and water-tubes alternately. Several regular types of cast-iron shaking grates are also used. The height of the fire-box is only 2 ft. 5 in. above the grate. The grate is terminated by a ledge of fire-brick, beyond which a combustion-chamber, 27 in. long, is set to the fire-tubes, about 184 in number, 1¾ in. diam. The cylinders are 18 in. diam., with a stroke of 22 inches. The driving-wheels, four-coupled, are 3 ft. 8 in. diam. The engine weighs 44 tons, of which 29 tons are on driving-wheels. The heating-surface of the fire-box is 135 sq. ft., that of the water-tubes is 982 sq. ft.; together, 1117 sq. ft., or 14.7 times the grate-area. It will pull 15 passenger-cars, weighing with passengers 360 tons, at an average speed of 42 miles per hour, over ruling gradients of 1 in 89, the engine consumes 62 lbs. of fuel per mile, or 3¼ lbs. per sq. ft. of grate per hour.

Qualities Essential for a Free-steaming Locomotive. (See also paper by A. E. Mitchell, read before the N. Y. Railroad Club; Eng. News, Jan. 24, 1891.)—Square feet of boiler-heating surface for bituminous coal should not be less than 4 times the square of the diameter in inches of a cylinder 1 inch larger than the cylinder to be used. One tenth of this should be in the fire-box. On anthracite locomotives more heating-surface is required in the fire-box, on account of the larger grate-area required, but the heating-surface of the flues should not be materially increased.

Grate-surface, Smoke-stacks, and Exhaust-nozzles for Locomotives. (Am. Mach., Jan. 8, 1891.)—For grate-surface for anthracite coal: Multiply the displacement in cubic feet of one piston during the stroke by 8.5; the product will be the area of the grate in square feet. For bituminous coal: Multiply the displacement in feet of one piston during the stroke by 6¼; the product will be the grate-area in square feet. For smoke-stacks with cylinders 12 in. in diameter and upwards. For

smaller cylinders the ratio of grate-area to piston-displacement should be $\frac{7}{8}$ to 1, or even more, if the design of the engine will admit this proportion.

The grate-areas in the following table have been found by the foregoing rules, and agree very closely with the average practice :

Snake-stacks.—The internal area of the smallest cross-section of the stack should be $\frac{1}{17}$ of the area of the grate in soft-coal-burning engines.

A. E. Mitchell, Supt. of Motive Power of the N. Y. L. E. & W. R. R., says that recent practice varies from this rule. Some roads use the same size of stack, $13\frac{1}{2}$ in. diam. at throat, for all engines up to 20 in. diam. of cylinder.

The area of the orifices in the exhaust-nozzles depends on the quantity and quality of the coal burnt, size of cylinder, construction of stack, and the condition of the outer atmosphere. It is therefore impossible to give rules for computing the exact diameter of the orifices. All that can be done is to give a rule by which an approximate diameter can be found. The exact diameter can only be found by trial. Our experience leads us to believe that the area of each orifice in a double exhaust-nozzle should be equal to $\frac{1}{400}$ part of the grate-surface, and for single nozzles $\frac{1}{200}$ of the grate-surface. These ratios have been used in finding the diameters of the nozzles given in the following table. The same sizes are often used for either hard or soft coal-burners.

Size of Cylinders, in inches.	Grate-area for Anthracite Coal, in sq. in.	Grate-area for Bituminous Coal, in sq. in.	Diameter of Stacks, in inches.	Double Nozzles.	Single Nozzles.
				Diam. of Orifices, in inches.	Diam. of Orifices, in inches.
12 × 20	1591	1217	$9\frac{1}{8}$	2	2 13/16
13 × 20	1873	1432	$10\frac{1}{8}$	$2\frac{1}{8}$	3
14 × 20	2179	1666	$11\frac{1}{4}$	2 5/16	$3\frac{1}{4}$
15 × 22	2742	2097	$12\frac{1}{2}$	2 9/16	3 11/16
16 × 24	3415	2611	14	$2\frac{3}{8}$	4 1/16
17 × 24	3856	2948	15	3 1/16	4 5/16
18 × 24	4321	3304	$15\frac{1}{4}$	$3\frac{1}{4}$	$4\frac{1}{2}$
19 × 24	4810	3678	$16\frac{1}{8}$	3 7/16	$4\frac{3}{8}$
20 × 24	5337	4081	$17\frac{1}{8}$	$3\frac{3}{8}$	5 1/16

Exhaust-nozzles in Locomotive Boilers.—A committee of the Am. Ry. Master Mechanics' Assn. in 1890 reported that they had, after two years of experiment and research, come to the conclusion that, owing to the great diversity in the relative proportions of cylinders and boilers, together with the difference in the quality of fuel, any rule which does not recognize each and all of these factors would be worthless.

The committee was unable to devise any plan to determine the size of the exhaust-nozzle in proportion to any other part of the engine or boiler, and believes that the best practice is for each user of locomotives to adopt a nozzle that will make steam freely and fill the other desired conditions, best determined by an intelligent use of the indicator and a check on the fuel account. The conditions desirable are : That it must create draught enough on the fire to make steam, and at the same time impose the least possible amount of work on the pistons in the shape of back pressure. It should be large enough to produce a nearly uniform blast without lifting or tearing the fire, and be economical in its use of fuel.

Fire-brick Arches in Locomotive Fire-boxes.—A committee of the Am. Ry. Master Mechanics' Assn. in 1890 reported strongly in favor of the use of brick arches in locomotive fire-boxes. They say : It is the unanimous opinion of all who use bituminous coal and brick arch, that it is most efficient in consuming the various gases composing black smoke, and by impeding and delaying their passage through the tubes, and mingling and subjecting them to the heat of the furnace, greatly lessens the volume ejected, and intensifies combustion, and does not in the least check but rather augments draught, with the consequent saving of fuel and increased steaming capacity that might be expected from such results. This in particular when used in connection with extension front.

Size, Weight, Tractive Power, etc., of Different Sizes of Locomotives. (J. G. A. Meyer, *Modern Locomotive Construction*, 66.)

Aug. 8, 1885.)—The tractive power should not be more or less than as shown. In column 3 of each table the adhesion is given, and since the adhesion and tractive power are expressed by the same number of pounds, the tractive power is obtained by finding the tractive power of each engine, for which purpose always using the small diameter of driving-wheels given in column 2. The weight on drivers is shown in column 4, which is obtained by multiplying the adhesion by 5 for all classes of engines. Column 5 gives the weight on the trucks, and these are based upon observations. Thus, the weight on the truck for an eight-wheeled engine is about one half of that on the drivers.

For Mogul engines we multiply the total weight on drivers by the decimal .33, and the product will be the weight on the truck.

For ten-wheeled engines the total weight on the drivers, multiplied by the decimal .32, will be equal to the weight on the truck.

For consolidation engines, the total weight on drivers multiplied by the decimal .16, will determine the weight on the truck.

When the total weight of each engine is given, which is obtained by adding the weight on the drivers to the weight on the truck. Dividing the total weight given in column 1 by 7½ will give the number of tons of 2000 lbs.

Each engine is capable of hauling on a straight and level track, column 7. The tractive power of engines given in these tables will be found to agree with the actual weights of locomotives recently built, although it is not to be expected that these weights will agree in every case with the weights, because the different builders do not build the engines alike.

The actual weight on trucks for eight-wheeled or ten-wheeled engines will be much from those given in the tables, because these weights depend on the difference between the total and rigid wheel-base, and these are often changed by the different builders. The proportion between the total and rigid wheel-base is generally the same.

The tractive power is generally the same. The proportion between the total and rigid wheel-base is generally the same.

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EIGHT-WHEELED LOCOMOTIVES.

TEN-WHEELED ENGINES.

No.	EIGHT-WHEELED LOCOMOTIVES.						TEN-WHEELED ENGINES.						
	Wheels.	Adhesion.	Weight on Drivers.	Weight on Truck.	Total Weight.	Hauling Capacity on Level Track in tons of 2000 lbs., including Tender.	Cylinders—Stroke.	Diameter of Driving-wheels.	Adhesion.	Weight on Drivers.	Weight on Truck.	Total Weight, with Water and Fuel.	Hauling Capacity on Level Track in tons of 2000 lbs., including Tender.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
-51	4000	20000	10000	30000	533	12×18	39-43	5981	29907	9570	39477	797	
-52	5324	26620	13310	39930	709	13×18	41-45	6677	33387	10683	44070	890	
-54	5940	29700	14850	44550	792	14×20	43-47	8205	41023	13127	54150	1093	
-57	6828	34140	17070	51210	910	15×22	45-50	9900	49500	15840	65340	1329	
-61	7697	38485	19243	57727	1026	16×24	48-54	11520	57600	18432	76032	1536	
-66	8836	44180	22090	66270	1178	17×24	51-56	13240	66200	20880	87080	1632	
-66	9533	47665	23833	71497	1271	18×24	51-56	13722	68611	21955	90566	1829	
-66	10404	52020	26010	78030	1387	19×24	54-60	14450	72200	23104	95304	1925	
-66	11472	57360	28680	86040	1529								

MOGUL ENGINES.

CONSOLIDATION ENGINES.

No.	MOGUL ENGINES.				CONSOLIDATION ENGINES.							
	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	in.	in.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	in.	in.
-40	4978	24891	4978	29869	663	14×16	36-38	7840	39200	6272	45472	10
-41	6480	32400	6480	38880	864	15×18	36-38	10125	50625	8100	58725	13
-42	7399	36997	7399	44396	986	20×24	48-50	18300	91500	14400	105900	25
-42	8646	43230	8646	51876	1206	22×24	50-52	20900	104500	16720	121220	25
-47	10607	53035	10607	63642	1414							
-51	12288	61440	12288	73728	1628							
-61	12739	63697	12739	76436	1698							
-61	13782	68911	13782	82693	1820							
-66	14440	72200	14440	86640	1925							

Leading American Types of Locomotive for Freight and Passenger Service.

1. The eight-wheel or "American" passenger type, having four coupled driving-wheels and a four-wheeled truck in front.
2. The "ten-wheel" type, for mixed traffic, having six coupled drivers and a leading four-wheel truck.
3. The "Mogul" freight type, having six coupled driving-wheels and a pony or two-wheel truck in front.
4. The "Consolidation" type, for heavy freight service, having eight coupled driving-wheels and a pony truck in front.

Besides these there is a great variety of types for special conditions of service, as four-wheel and six-wheel switching-engines, without trucks; the Forney type used on elevated railroads, with four coupled wheels under the engine and a four-wheeled rear truck carrying the water-tank and fuel; locomotives for local and suburban service with four coupled driving-wheels with a two-wheel truck front and rear, or a two-wheel truck front and a four-wheel truck rear, etc. "Decapod" engines for heavy freight service have ten coupled driving-wheels and a two-wheel truck in front.

Steam-distribution for High-speed Locomotives.

(C. H. Quereau, *Eng'g News*, March 8, 1894.)

Balanced Valves.—Mr. Philip Wallis, in 1886, when Engineer of Tests for the C. B. & Q. R. R., reported that while 6 H.P. was required to work up balanced valves at 40 miles per hour, for the balanced valves 2.2 H.P. only was necessary.

Effect of Speed on Average Cylinder-pressure.—Assume that a locomotive has a train in motion, the reverse lever is placed in the running notch, as the track is level; by what is the maximum speed limited? The resistance of the train and the load increase, and the power of the locomotive increases with increasing speed till the resistance and power are equal, when the speed becomes uniform. The power of the engine depends on the average pressure in the cylinders. Even though the cut-off and boiler pressure remain the same, this pressure decreases as the speed increases because of the higher piston-speed and more rapid valve-travel the steam has a shorter time in which to enter the cylinders at the higher speed. The following table, from indicator-cards taken from a locomotive at various speeds, shows the decrease of average pressure with increasing speed:

Miles per hour.....	46	51	51	53	54	57	60	62
Speed, revolutions.....	224	248	248	258	263	277	292	302
Average pressure per sq. in.:								
Actual.....	51.5	44.0	47.3	43.0	41.3	42.5	37.3	36
Calculated.....		46.5	46.5	44.7	43.8	41.6	39.5	36

The "average pressure calculated" was figured on the assumption that the mean effective pressure would decrease in the same ratio that the speed increased. The main difference lies in the higher steam-line at the lower speeds, and consequent higher expansion-line, showing that more steam entered the cylinder. The back pressure and compression-lines agree quite closely for all the cards, though they are slightly better for the slower speeds. That the difference is not greater may safely be attributed to the large exhaust-ports, passages, and exhaust tip, which is 5 in. diameter. These are matters of great importance for high speeds.

Boiler-pressure.—The increase of train resistance with increased speed is not as the square of the velocity, as is commonly supposed. It is more likely that it increases as the speed after about 20 miles an hour is reached. Assuming that the latter is true, and that an average of 50 lbs. per square inch is the greatest that can be realized in the cylinders of a given engine at 4 miles an hour, and that this pressure furnishes just sufficient power to keep the train at this speed, it follows that, to increase the speed to 50 miles, the mean effective pressure must be increased in the same proportion. To increase the capacity for speed of any locomotive its power must be increased at least by as much as the speed is to be increased. One way to accomplish this is to increase the boiler-pressure. That this is generally realized is shown by the increase in boiler-pressure in the last ten years. The best single-expansion locomotives described in the railway yearbooks of 1893 have steam-pressures are as follows: 3, 160 lbs.; 4, 160 lbs.; 5, 175 lbs.; 6, 190 lbs.

Valve-travel.—An increased average cylinder-pressure may also be obtained by increasing the valve-travel without raising the boiler-pressure, and better results will be obtained by increasing both. The longer travel gives a higher steam-pressure in the cylinders, a later exhaust-opening, later exhaust-closure, and a larger exhaust-opening—all necessary for high speeds and economy. I believe that a 20-in. port and 6½-in. (or even 7-in.) travel could be successfully used for high-speed engines, and that frequently so doing the cylinders could be economically reduced and the counterbalance lightened. Or, better still, the diameter of the drivers increased, giving lighter counterbalance and better steam-distribution.

Size of Drivers.—Economy will increase with increasing diameter of drivers, provided the work at average speed does not necessitate a cut-off longer than one fourth the stroke. The piston-speed of a locomotive with 19-in. drivers at 55 miles per hour is the same as that of one with 68-in. drivers at 61 miles per hour.

Steam-ports.—The length of steam-ports ranges from 15 in. to 23 in., and has considerable influence on the power, speed, and economy of the locomotive. In cards from similar engines the steam-line of the card from the valve with 23-in. ports is considerably nearer boiler-pressure than that of the card from the engine with 17¼-in. ports. That the higher steam-line is due to the greater length of steam-port there is little room for doubt. The 19-in. port produced 531 H.P. in an 18½-in. cylinder at a cost of 23.5 lbs. of indicated water per I.H.P. per hour. The 17¼-in. port, 424 H.P., at the rate of 22.9 lbs. of water, in a 19-in. cylinder.

Allen Valves.—There is considerable difference of opinion as to the advantage of the Allen ported-valve. (See *Eng. News*, July 6, 1893.)

Speed of Railway Trains.—In 1834 the average speed of trains on the Liverpool and Manchester Railway was twenty miles an hour; in 1838 it was twenty-five miles an hour. But by 1840 there were engines on the Great Western Railway capable of running fifty miles an hour with a train, and fifty miles an hour without. A speed of 86 miles per hour was made in England with the T. W. Worsdell compound locomotive. The total weight of the engine, tender, and train was 695,000 lbs.; indicator-cards were taken showing 1068.6 H.P. on the level. At a speed of 75 miles per hour on a level, and the same train, the indicator-cards showed 1040 H.P. developed. (*Trans. A. S. M. E.*, vol. xiii., 363.)

The limitation to the increase of speed of heavy locomotives seems to be due to the difficulty of counterbalancing the reciprocating parts. The unbalanced vertical component of the reciprocating parts causes the pressure of the driver on the rail to vary with every revolution. Whenever the speed is high, it is of considerable magnitude, and its change in direction is rapid that the resulting effect upon the rail is not inappropriately called "hammer blow." Heavy rails have been kinked, and bridges have been shaken to their fall under the action of heavily balanced drivers revolving at high speeds. The means by which the evil is to be overcome has not yet been made clear. See paper by W. F. M. Goss, *Trans. A. S. M. E.*, vol. xvi., Engine No. 999 of the New York Central Railroad ran a mile in 32 seconds, and a mile in 112 miles per hour, May 11, 1893.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Speed in miles per hour} &= \frac{\text{circum. of driving-wheels in in.} \times \text{no. of rev. per min.} \times 60}{62,360} \\ &= \text{diam. of driving-wheels in in.} \times \text{no. of rev. per min.} \times .003 \\ &\quad \text{(approximate, giving result } 8/10 \text{ of 1 per cent too great).} \end{aligned}$$

DIMENSIONS OF SOME LARGE AMERICAN LOCOMOTIVES, 1893.

The four locomotives described below were exhibited at the Chicago position in 1893. The dimensions are from *Engineering News*, June, 1893. The first, or Decapod engine, has ten-coupled driving-wheels. It is one of the heaviest and most powerful engines ever built for freight service. The Philadelphia & Reading engine is a new type for passenger service, with four-coupled drivers. The Rhode Island engine has six drivers, with a 4-wheel leading truck and a 2-wheel trailing truck. These three engines have 100,000-lb. cylinder. The fourth is a simple engine, of the standard American 2-wheel type, 4 driving-wheels, and a 4-wheel truck in front. It holds the world's record for speed (1893) for short distances, having run a mile in 32 seconds.

	Baldwin. N. Y., L. E. & W. R. R. Decapod Freight.	Baldwin. Phila. & Read. R. R. Express Passenger.	Rhode Isl. Locomotiv'e Works. Heavy Express.	N. Y. R. R. Es Es Es
Running-gear:				
Driving-wheels, diam	4 ft. 2 in.	6 ft. 6 in.	6 ft. 6 in.	7 1/2
Truck " "	2 " 6 "	4 " 0 "	2 " 9 "	3
Journals, driving-axes	9 × 10 in.	8 1/4 × 12 in.	8 " × 12 1/2 in.	0
" truck-	5 × 10 "	6 1/4 × 10 "	5 1/2 × 10 "	6 1/2
" tender-	4 1/2 × 9 "	4 1/2 × 8 "	4 1/4 × 8 "	6 1/2
Wheel-base:				
Driving	18 ft. 10 in.	6 ft. 10 in.	13 ft. 6 in.	8 1/2
Total engine	27 " 3 "	23 " 4 "	29 " 9 1/4 "	23
" tender	16 " 8 "	16 " 0 "	15 " 0 "	15 1/2
" engine and tender	53 " 4 "	47 " 3 "	50 " 6 3/4 "	47
Wt. in working-order:				
On drivers	170,000 lbs.	82,700 lbs.	88,500 lbs.	8
On truck-wheels	29,500 "	47,000 "	54,500 "	23
Engine, total	192,500 "	129,700 "	143,000 "	15
Tender	117,500 "	80,573 "	75,000 "	15 1/2
Engine and tender, loaded	310,000 "	210,273 "	218,000 "	28
Cylinders:				
h.p. (2)	16 × 28 in.	13 × 24 in.	one 21 × 26	7
l.p. (2)	27 × 28 "	22 × 24 "	one 31 × 20	23
Distance centre to centre	7 ft. 5 "	7 ft. 4 1/2 in.	7 ft. 1 in.	0
Piston-rod, diam.	4 in.	3 1/2 in.	3 1/2 in.	0
Connecting-rod, length	0' 8 7/16"	8 ft. 0 1/2 in.	10 ft. 3 1/2 in.	0
Steam-ports	28 1/2 × 2 in.	24 × 1 1/2 in.	11 1/2 × 20 and 1 1/2 × 25	0
Exhaust-ports	28 1/2 × 8 "	24 × 4 1/2 "	3 × 20 in.	0
Slide-valves, out. lap, h.p.	7 1/2 in.	7 1/2 in.	1 1/2 in.	0
" " out. lap, l.p.	7 1/2 "	9 1/2 "	1 in.	0
" " in. lap, h.p.	" "	(neg.) 1 1/2 in.	" "	0
" " in. lap, l.p.	" "	None	" "	0
" " max. travel	6 in.	5 in.	6 1/4 in.	0
" " lead, h.p.	1/16 in.	1 1/2 "	3/32 "	0
" " lead, l.p.	5/16 "	3/8 "	" "	0
Boiler—Type:				
Diam. of barrel inside	6 ft. 2 1/2 in.	4 ft. 8 1/4 in.	5 ft. 2 in.	0
Thickness of barrel-plates	3/4 in.	9/8 in.	9/8 in.	0
Height from rail to centre line	8 ft. 0 in.	" "	8 ft. 11 in.	0
Length of smoke-box	5 " 7 1/2 "	" "	6 " 1 "	0
Working steam-pressure	180 lbs.	180 lbs.	200 lbs.	0
Firebox—type:				
Length inside	10' 11 9/16"	Wootten	Radial stay	0
Width	8 ft. 2 1/2 in.	8 " 0 1/2 "	9 ft. 0 in.	0
Depth at front	4 " 6 "	3 " 2 3/4 "	2 " 9 1/2 "	0
Thickness of side plates	5/16 in.	5/16 in.	5/16 in.	0
" " back plate	5/16 "	5/16 "	9/8 "	0
Thickness of crown-sheet	5/8 "	5/16 "	9/8 "	0
" " tube	1 1/2 "	1 1/2 "	1 1/2 "	0
Grate-area	89.6 sq. ft.	76.8 sq. ft.	38 sq. ft.	0
Stay-bolts, diam., 1 1/2 in.	pitch, 1 1/4 in.	" "	4 in.	0
Tubes—iron:				
Pitch	354	324	272	0
Diam., outside	2 3/4 in.	2 1/16 in.	2 3/4 in.	0
Length betw'n tube-plates	2 "	1 1/2 in.	2 "	0
Heating-surface:				
Tubes, exterior	2,208.8 ft.	1,292 sq. ft.	" "	0
Fire-box	234.3 "	173 "	" "	0
Miscellaneous:				
Exhaust-nozzle, diam.	5 in.	5 1/2 in.	1 ft. 6 in.	0
Smokestack, small at diam.	1 ft. 6 "	1 ft. 6 in.	1 ft. 3 1/2 "	0
" " height from rail	15 " 6 1/2 "	14 ft. 0 3/4 in.	15 " "	0

Name of Railroad.	Passenger Freight	No. of Driv	Truck-wh	Diam. of Dr	Ing-wheels	Size of Cylinders, Inches.	Total Weig of Engine,	Total Weig on Driving wheels, lb	Area of Grn sq. ft.	Firebox He Infr-surface sq. ft.	Tube Healt surface, sq.	Steam-prs. ure per sq. ft.	Length of Tubes, ft. and in.	Diam. of Tub. in.	Ratio of (K Under-power Weig. Ave. able for Ac tion.
Central P. & O. R. R.	P.	4	4	4	4	10 x 24	86,000	54,000	15.5	110	801	160	11 0	22	0.461
Delaware & Chesapeake Bay R. R.	P.	4	4	4	4	19 x 24	105,900	75,900	37	188.5	1846.8	160	11 9 5/8	22	0.421
Delaware & Maryland R. R.	P.	6	4	4	4	21 x 26	123,000	103,300	28.2	177	1855.4	160	13 3 3/8	22	0.400
Delaware & Pennsylvania R. R.	P.	6	4	4	4	18 1/2 x 24	131,400	102,800	18.2	147	1885.4	160	13 4 1/8	22	0.394
Delaware & Washington R. R.	P.	4	4	4	4	19 x 24	123,000	81,000	36.2	144.3	1672.2	180	13 0	22	0.387
Delaware & Maryland R. R.	P.	4	4	4	4	19 x 24	123,000	82,300	37.3	144.3	1672.2	180	13 0	22	0.382
Delaware & Pennsylvania R. R.	P.	4	4	4	4	18 x 24	123,000	66,500	24.5	111	1801	160	12 0	22	0.436
Delaware & Maryland R. R.	P.	4	4	4	4	19 x 24	123,000	81,400	37.3	147.7	1670.7	180	12 0	22	0.385
Delaware & Pennsylvania R. R.	P.	4	4	4	4	18 1/2 x 24	129,280	86,500	31.3	143.7	1429.3	180	11 4	22	0.360
Delaware & Maryland R. R.	P.	4	4	4	4	20 x 24	137,600	100,000	39.5	186	1885	160	13 0	22	0.355
Delaware & Pennsylvania R. R.	P.	4	4	4	4	30 and 23 x 24	185,000	99,000	28.2	141.2	1839.5	180	13 0	22	0.359
Delaware & Maryland R. R.	P.	4	4	4	4	30 and 22 x 24	133,800	88,400	35.5	141.7	1811.5	180	13 0	22	0.404
Delaware & Pennsylvania R. R.	P.	4	4	4	4	14 and 24 x 24	129,000	100,000	29.3	147.7	1811.5	180	13 0	22	0.470
Delaware & Maryland R. R.	P.	4	4	4	4	13 and 22 x 24	129,000	83,000	29.3	147.7	1811.5	180	13 0	22	0.442
Delaware & Pennsylvania R. R.	P.	4	4	4	4	30 and 29 x 24	143,000	98,000	37.1	138.9	1561.7	170	14 0	22	0.433
Delaware & Maryland R. R.	P.	4	4	4	4	21 and 31 x 26	143,000	88,500	37.1	136	1380	160	12 8 1/2	22	0.417
Delaware & Pennsylvania R. R.	P.	8	4	4	4	19 x 26	136,870	110,550	29	136	1380	200	12 8 1/2	22	0.554
Delaware & Maryland R. R.	P.	10	4	4	4	22 x 28	150,300	150,300	37.5	180	2171	160	13 1 1/2	22	0.434
Delaware & Pennsylvania R. R.	P.	6	4	4	4	19 x 24	125,200	99,600	18.2	147	1885.4	160	14 6 1/2	22	0.453
Delaware & Maryland R. R.	P.	6	4	4	4	21 x 26	125,200	113,400	28.7	155	1584	160	13 7 1/2	22	0.391
Delaware & Pennsylvania R. R.	P.	6	4	4	4	20 x 26	127,500	101,500	32.5	146.2	1608	180	13 0	22	0.482
Delaware & Maryland R. R.	P.	6	4	4	4	19 x 24	129,000	96,000	34.5	136.7	2212.6	180	13 6 1/2	22	0.472
Delaware & Pennsylvania R. R.	P.	6	4	4	4	13 and 21 x 26	129,000	116,550	29	141.2	1788.3	175	13 11 1/2	22	0.538
Delaware & Maryland R. R.	P.	6	4	4	4	30 and 28 x 26	135,000	99,500	28.6	141.2	1788.3	180	13 0	22	0.525
Delaware & Pennsylvania R. R.	P.	6	4	4	4	16 and 27 x 28	200,550	173,700	39.6	182.5	2208	180	13 6 1/2	22	0.660
Delaware & Maryland R. R.	P.	6	4	4	4	14 and 24 x 28	130,000	133,000	35.3	182.5	2208	180	13 6 1/2	22	0.675
Delaware & Pennsylvania R. R.	P.	6	4	4	4	12 and 20 x 26	122,400	87,970	18.2	175	13 7 1/2	175	13 7 1/2	22	0.585
Delaware & Maryland R. R.	P.	6	4	4	4	20 and 29 x 26	125,500	107,900	36.1	180	11 0	180	11 0	22	0.512

Dimensions of Some American Locomotives.—The table on page 861 is condensed from one given by D. L. Barnes, in his paper "Distinctive Features and Advantages of American Locomotives," Trans. A.S.C.E., 1893. The formula from which column marked "Ratio of cylinder-power to weight available for adhesion" is calculated as follows:

$$\frac{2 \times \text{cylinder area} \times \text{boiler-pressure} \times \text{stroke}}{\text{Weight on drivers} \times \text{diameter of driving-wheel}}$$

(Ratio of cylinder-power of compound engines cannot be compared with that of the single-expansion engines.)

Where the boiler-pressure could not be determined from the description of the locomotives, as given by the builders and operators of the locomotives, it has been assumed to be 160 lbs. per sq. in. above the atmosphere.

For compound locomotives the figures in the last column of ratios are based on the capacity of the low-pressure cylinders only, the volume of the high-pressure being omitted. This has been done for the purpose of comparison, and because there is no accurate simple way of comparing the cylinder-power of single-expansion and compound locomotives.

Dimensions of Standard Locomotives on the N. Y. G. H. R. R. and Penna. R. R., 1882 and 1893.

C. H. Quereau, *Eng'g News*, March 8, 1894.

	N. Y. C. & H. R. R.				Pennsylvania R. R.			
	Through Passenger.		Through Freight.		Through Passenger.		Through Freight.	
	1882.	1893.	1882.	1893.	1882.	1893.	1882.	1893.
Grate surface, sq. ft.	17.87	27.3	17.87	29.8	17.6	33.2	21.1	34.1
Heating surface, sq. ft.	1353	1821	1353	1763	1057	1583	1200	1700
Boiler, diam., in.	50	58	50	58	50	57	54	61
Driver, diam., in.	70	78, 86	64	67	62	78	50	50
Steam-pressure, lbs.	150	180	150	160	125	175	125	175
Cylin., diam. and stroke.	17×24	19×24	17×24	19×26	17×24	18½×26	20×26	20×26
Valve-travel, ins.	5¼	5½	5¼	5¾	5	5½	5	5
Lead at full gear, ins.	1/16	1/16	1/16	1/16	1/16	0	¼	¼
Outside lap.	¾	1	¾	¾	¾	1	¾	¾
Inside lap or clearance.	0	0	1/16	3/32	0	3/64	1/32	1/32
Steam-ports, length.	15¼	18	15¼	18	16	17¼	16	16
" " width.	1¾	1¾	1¾	1¾	1¾	1¾	1¾	1¾
Type of engine.	Am.	Am.	Am.	Mog.	Am.	Am.	Comp.	Comp.

Indicated Water Consumption of Single and Compound Locomotive Engines at Varying Speeds.

C. H. Quereau, *Eng'g News*, March 8, 1894.

	Two-cylinder Compound.			Single-expansion.		
	Revolutions.	Speed, miles per hour.	Water per I.H.P. per hour.	Revolutions.	Miles per Hour.	Water per I.H.P. per hour.
100 to 150	21 to 31		18.33 lbs.	151	31	21.4
150 " 200	31 " 41		18.9 "	219	45	21.4
200 " 250	41 " 51		19.7 "	253	52	21.4
250 " 275	51 " 56		21.4 "	307	63	21.4
				321	66	21.4

It appears that the compound engine is the more economical at low speeds, the economy decreasing as the speed increases, and that the single-expansion engine increases in economy with increase of speed within ordinary limits. The compound engine is more economical than the compound at speeds of more than 40 miles per hour.

The C., B. & Q. two-cylinder compound, which was shown to be more economical than simple engines of the same class when tested at 40 miles per hour, has been shown to be 15% more economical than the simple engine at 60 miles per hour.

gle-expansion engine, and 29% more economical than the 40 simple engines of the same class on the same division. **Tests of a Locomotive at High Speed.** (*Locomotive*, 1893.)—Cards were taken by Mr. Angus Sinclair on the Empire State Express.

RESULTS OF INDICATOR-DIAGRAMS.

Miles per hour.	I.H.P.	Card No.	Revs.	Miles per hour.	I.H.P.
37.1	648.3	7	304	70.5	977
60.8	738	8	296	68.6	972
44	551	9	300	69.6	1,045
58	891	10	304	70.5	1,059
60	960	11	340	78.9	1,130
69	983	12	310	71.9	1,026

was of the eight-wheel type, built by the Schenectady works, with 19 x 24 in. cylinders, 78-in. drivers, and a large box. Details of important dimensions are as follows: of fire-box, 150.8 sq. ft.; of tubes, 1670.7 sq. ft.; of boiler, 27.3 sq. ft. Fire-box: length, 8 ft.; width, 3 ft 4 3/4 in. outside diameter, 2 in. Ports: steam, 18 x 1 1/4 in.; exhaust, 6 x 1 1/4 in. Outside lap, 1 in.; inside lap, 1/64 in. Piston-rod, 8 1/4 x 10 1/4 in.; truck-axle, 6 x 10 in.

Weight of four coaches, weighing, with estimated load, 340,000 lbs. Locomotive and tender weighed in working order 200,000 lbs., weight of the train about 270 tons. During the time that the train was being lifted into speed diagram No. 1 was taken. Its cylinder-pressure of 59 lbs. According to this, the power required to move the train is 6553 lbs., or 24 lbs. per ton. The weight of the train in hour. When a speed of nearly 60 miles an hour was reached, the average cylinder-pressure is 40.7 lbs., representing a total weight of 4520 lbs., without making deductions for internal friction. For friction, it leaves 15 lbs. per ton to keep the train going. Cards 6, 7, and 8 represent the work of keeping the train at 60 miles an hour. They were taken three miles apart, when the speed was not uniform. The average cylinder-pressure for the three cards is 40.7 lbs. Deducting 10% again for friction, this leaves 17.6 lbs. per ton to be exerted in keeping the train up to a velocity of 70 miles. The weight of water evaporated per lb. of coal. The weight of the train from New York to Albany was done on a coal consumption of 3 1/2 lbs. per H.P. per hour. The highest power recorded was 1120 H.P.

Testing Apparatus at the Laboratory of the University. (W. F. M. Goss, *Trans. A. S. M. E.*, vol. xiv, 826.)—The apparatus is mounted with its drivers upon supporting wheels which rotate on fixed bearings, thus allowing the engine to be turned in any position as a whole. Load is supplied by four weights suspended from the supporting shafts and offering resistance to the rotation of the supporting wheels. Traction is measured by a dynamometer attached to the draw-bar. The boiler is fired in the usual way, and an observer stands above the engine, but not in pipe connection with it, carries the fire given out at the stack.

Method of Conducting Locomotive-tests is given in a report of the A. S. M. E. in vol. xiv. of the Transactions, page 1312.

Efficiency in Locomotives.—In American practice economy is usually sacrificed to obtain greater economy due to heavy loads. Barnes, in *Eng. Mag.*, June, 1894, gives a diagram showing the efficiency of boilers due to high rates of combustion, from which the following figures are taken:

sq. ft. of grate per hour.....	12	40	80	120	160	200
lb. of boiler.....	80	75	67	59	51	43

These figures are given as representing stationary-boiler practice, 40 lbs. of steam per lb. of fuel, 120 lbs. average American, and 200 lbs. maximum locomotive practice.

Compound Locomotives.—Report of a Committee of the Master Mechanics' Association on Compound Locomotives (*1890*) gives the following summary of the advantages of compounding: (a) It has achieved a saving in the fuel by using reasonable boiler-pressures, with encouraging possibilities.

of further improvement in pressure and in fuel and water economy has lessened the amount of water (dead weight) to be hauled, so that tender and its load are materially reduced in weight. (d) It has lessened the possibilities of speed far beyond 60 miles per hour, without straining the motion, frames, axles, or axle-boxes of the engine. (e) It has increased the haulage-power at full speed, or, in other words, has increased the continuous H.P. developed, per given weight of engine and boiler. (f) Some classes has increased the starting-power. (g) It has materially lessened the slide-valve friction per H.P. developed. (h) It has equalized or reduced the turning force on the crank-pin, over a longer portion of the stroke, which, of course, tends to lengthen the repair life of the engine. (i) In the two-cylinder type it has decreased the oil consumption, and has done so in the Woolf four-cylinder engine. (j) Its smoother and steadier action on the fire is favorable to the combustion of all kinds of soft coal; the sparks thrown being smaller and less in number, it lessens the risk to the engine from destruction by fire. (k) These advantages and economies are gained without having to improve the man handling the engine, but left to his discretion (or careless indifference) than in the simple engine. Valve-motion, of every locomotive type, can be used in its best and most effective position. (m) A wider elasticity in locomotive design is permitted; as, if desired, side-rods can be dispensed with, or articulated with, of 100 tons weight, with independent trucks, used for sharp curves in main line service, as suggested by Mallet and Brunner.

Of 27 compound locomotives in use on the Phila. and Reading Railroads in 1892, 12 are in use on heavy mountain grades, and are designed to be equivalent of 22×24 in. simple consolidations; 10 are in somewhat lighter service and correspond to 20×24 in. consolidations; 5 are in fast passenger service. The monthly coal record shows:

Class of Engine.	No.	Gain in Fuel Economy
Mountain locomotives.	12	255 to 275
Heavy freight service.	10	125 to 135
Fast passenger.	5	95 to 110

(Report of Com. A. R. M. M. Assn. 1892.) For a description of the various types of compound locomotive, with discussion of their relative merits, see paper by A. Von Borries, of Germany, The Development of the Compound Locomotive, Trans. A. S. M. E. 1893, vol. xiv., p. 1172.

Counterbalancing Locomotives.—The following rules, as given by different locomotive-builders, are quoted in a paper by Prof. J. C. (Trans. A. S. M. E., x, 302):

A. "For the main drivers, place opposite the crank-pin a weight equal to one half the weight of the back end of the connecting-rod plus one half the weight of the front end of the connecting-rod, piston, piston-rod, and cross-head. For balancing the coupled wheels, place a weight opposite the crank-pin equal to one half the parallel rod plus one half of the weight of the front end of the main-rod, piston, piston-rod, and cross-head. The distance of gravity of the above weights must be at the same distance from the axis as the crank-pin."

B. The rule given by D. K. Clark: "Find the separate revolving weights of crank-pin boss, coupling-rods, and connecting-rods for each wheel, and the reciprocating weight of the piston and appendages, and one half of the connecting-rod, divide the reciprocating weight equally between each wheel, and add the part so allotted to the revolving weight on each wheel. The sums thus obtained are the weights to be placed opposite the crank-pin at the same distance from the axis. To find the counterweight to be placed when the distance of its centre of gravity is known, multiply the revolving weight by the length of the crank in inches and divide by the gravity distance." This rule differs from the preceding in that the same weight is placed in each wheel.

$$C. "W = \frac{S \times \left(w - \frac{w'}{f} \right)}{G}, \text{ in which } S = \text{one half the stroke, } G = \text{distance from centre of wheel to centre of gravity in counterbalancing, } w = \text{weight of crank-pin to be balanced, } W = \text{weight in counterbalancing, } f = \text{coefficient of friction so called, } = 5 \text{ in ordinary practice. The reciprocating weight is found by adding together the weights of the piston, piston-rod, and one half of the main rod. The revolving weight for the coupled wheels is found by adding together the weights of the crank-pin boss, and$$

from centre of wheel to centre of gravity in counterbalancing, $w =$ weight of crank-pin to be balanced, $W =$ weight in counterbalancing, $f =$ coefficient of friction so called, $= 5$ in ordinary practice. The reciprocating weight is found by adding together the weights of the piston, piston-rod, and one half of the main rod. The revolving weight for the coupled wheels is found by adding together the weights of the crank-pin boss, and

od, and one half of each parallel-rod connecting to this d the reciprocating weight divided by the number of lving weight for the remainder of the wheels is found in as for the main wheel, except one half of the main rod is eight of the crank-pin hub and the counterbalance does eight of the spokes, but of the metal inclosing them. This d for one cylinder and its corresponding wheels."

s nearly as possible the weights of crank-pin, additional boss for the same, add side rod, and main connections, ad, with cross-head on one side: the sum of these multi- pce in inches of the centre of the crank-pin from the centre l divided by the distance from the centre of the wheel to e of gravity of the counterweights, is taken for the total that side of the locomotive which is to be divided among t side."

e wheels of the locomotive with a weight equal to the pin, crank-pin hub, main and parallel rods, brasses, etc., the weight of the reciprocating parts (cross-head, piston ng)."

t weights of the revolving parts which are attached to xactness, and divide equally two thirds of the weights of parts between all the wheels. One half of the main rod is roccating, and the other as revolving weight."

on Counterbalancing Locomotives, in *R. R. & Eng. Jour.*, 1890, and a paper by W. F. M. Goss, in *Trans. A. S. M. E.*,

Safe Load for Steel Tires on Steel Rails.

, 786.)—Mr. Chanute's experiments led to the deduction ould be the limit of load for any one driving-wheel. Mr. jects to Mr. Chanute's figure of 12,000 lbs., and says that which has a light load on it is more injurious to the rail as a heavy load. In English practice 8 and 10 tons are Oberlin Smith has used steel castings for cam-rollers 4 in. ce, which stood well under loads of from 10,000 to 20,000 r Smith proposed a formula for the rolls of a pivot-bridge uced to the form: $\text{Load} = 1760 \times \text{face} \times \sqrt{\text{diam.}}$, all in

of some large American locomotives on pages 860 and 861. (" the load on each driving-wheel is 17,000 lbs., and on bs.

ge Railways in Manufacturing Works.— inches gauge, several miles in length, is in the works of d Yorkshire Railway. Curves of 13 feet radius are used. sed have the following dimensions (Proc. Inst. M. E., July, rs were 5 in. diameter with 6 in. stroke, and 2 ft. 3¼ in.

The wheels were 16¼ in. diameter, the wheel-base ne 7 ft. 4¼ in. long, and the extreme width of the engine of steel, 2 ft. 3 in. outside diameter and 2 ft. long between ing 55 tubes of 1¾ in. outside diameter; the fire-box, of al, 2 ft. 3 in. long and 17 in. inside diameter. The heating- t. in the fire-box and 36.12 in the tubes, total 46.54 sq. ft.; 8 sq. ft.; capacity of tank, 20¼ gallons; working-pressure, r tractive power, say, 1412 lbs., or 9.22 lbs. per lb. of effec- sq. in. on the piston. Weight, when empty, 2.80 tons; rking order, 3.19 tons.

of a system of narrow-gauge railways for manufactories, s C. W. Hunt Co., New York.

otives.—For dimensions of light ocomotives used for. or much valuable information concerning them, see cata- ter & Co., Pittsburgh.

urning Locomotives. (From Clark's Steam-en- sition of petroleum refuse in locomotives has been success- Mr. Thos. Urquhart, on the Grazi and Tsaritsin Railway, Since November, 1884, the whole stock of 143 loco- ndence has been fired with petroleum refuse. de through a tubular opening in the back of t steam, with an induced current of air. r or "regenerative or accumulative comb fire-box, into which the combined cur

spray against the rugged brickwork slope. In this arrangement the work is maintained at a white heat, and combustion is complete and less. The form, mass, and dimensions of the brickwork are the most important elements in such a combination.

Compressed air was tried instead of steam for injection, but no appreciable reduction in consumption of fuel was noticed.

The heating-power of petroleum refuse is given as 19,830 heat units equivalent to the evaporation of 20.53 lbs. of water from and at 212° F. 17.1 lbs. at 8½ atmospheres, or 125 lbs. per sq. in., effective pressure. Highest evaporative duty was 14 lbs. of water under 8½ atmospheres of the fuel, or nearly 82% efficiency.

There is no probability of any extensive use of petroleum as fuel for locomotives in the United States, on account of the unlimited supply of coal and the comparatively limited supply of petroleum.

Fireless Locomotive.—The principle of the Franco locomotive that it depends for the supply of steam on its spontaneous generation of a body of heated water in a reservoir. As steam is generated and off the pressure falls; but by providing a sufficiently large volume of water heated to a high temperature, at a pressure correspondingly high, a surplus pressure may be secured, and means may thus be provided for supplying the required quantity of steam for the trip.

The fireless locomotive designed for the service of the Metropolitan Railway of Paris has a cylindrical reservoir having segmental ends, 46 in. in diameter, 26¼ ft. in length, with a capacity of about 630 cubic feet. Four fifths of the capacity is occupied by water, which is heated by a powerful jet of steam supplied from stationary boilers. The water is heated until equilibrium is established between the boilers and the reservoir. The temperature is raised to about 390° F., corresponding to a pressure of 225 lbs. per sq. in. The steam from the reservoir is passed through a valve, by which the steam is reduced to the required pressure. It is then passed through a tubular superheater situated within the receiver of the upper part, and thence through the ordinary regulator to the cylinders. The exhaust-steam is expanded to a low pressure, in order to obtain a free escape. In certain cases the exhaust-steam is condensed in special vessels, which are only in part filled with water. In the upper free part of the pipe is placed, into which the steam is exhausted. Within this pipe a smaller pipe is fixed, perforated, from which cold water is projected into the exhaust-steam, so as to effect the condensation as completely as possible. The heated water falls on an inclined plane, and flows off without disturbing the cold water. The condensing water is circulated by means of a centrifugal pump driven by a small three-cylinder engine.

In working off the steam from a pressure of 225 lbs. to 67 lbs., 33 cubic feet of water at 390° F. is sufficient for the traction of the trains, for the circulation of water for the condensers, for the brakes, and for the lighting of the train. At the stations the locomotive takes from 225 to 250 lbs. of steam—nearly the same as the weight of steam consumed during run between two consecutive charging-stations. There is 210 cubic feet of condensing water. Taking the initial temperature at 60° F., the temperature rises to about 180° F. after the longest runs underground.

The locomotive has ten wheels, on a base 24 ft. long, of which the extreme wheels are 4½ ft. in diameter. The extreme wheels are on radial axle cylinders are 23½ in. in diameter, with a stroke of 23¼ in.

The engine weighs, in working order, 53 tons, of which 36 tons are on the coupled wheels. The speed varies from 15 miles to 25 miles per hour. Trains weigh about 140 tons.

Compressed-air Locomotives.—For an account of the Mallet and other compressed-air locomotives see page 509, ante.

SHAFTING.

also TORSIONAL STRENGTH; also SHAFTS OF STEAM-ENGINES.)

eters of shafts to resist torsional strains only, Molesworth gives
 $\frac{P}{d^3}$, in which d = diameter in inches, P = twisting force in pounds
 the end of a lever-arm whose length is l in inches, K = a coeffi-
 ce values are, for cast iron 1500, wrought iron 1700, cast steel 3200,
 e 460, brass 425, copper 350, tin 220, lead 170. The value given for
 probably applies only to high-carbon steel.
 gives:

d shafts well against	}	H.P. = $\frac{d^3 R}{125}$; $d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{125 \text{ H.P.}}{R}}$, for iron;
		H.P. = $\frac{d^3 R}{75}$; $d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{75 \text{ H.P.}}{R}}$, for cold-rolled iron.
ne shafting, ft. apart:	}	H.P. = $\frac{d^3 R}{90}$; $d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{90 \text{ H.P.}}{R}}$, for iron;
		H.P. = $\frac{d^3 R}{55}$; $d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{55 \text{ H.P.}}{R}}$, for cold-rolled iron.
mission sim- leys:	}	H.P. = $\frac{d^3 R}{62.5}$; $d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{62.5 \text{ H.P.}}{R}}$, for iron;
		H.P. = $\frac{d^3 R}{35}$; $d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{35 \text{ H.P.}}{R}}$, for cold-rolled iron.

orse-power transmitted, d = diameter of shaft in inches, R = rev-
er minute.

ncis gives for turned-iron shafting $d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{100 \text{ H.P.}}{R}}$.

d Laughlins give the same formulæ as Prof. Thurston, with the
ceptions: For line shafting, hangers 8 ft. apart:

$$\text{cold-rolled iron, H.P.} = \frac{d^3 R}{50}, \quad d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{50 \text{ H.P.}}{R}}.$$

ly transmitting power and short counters:

$$\text{turned iron, H.P.} = \frac{d^3 R}{50}, \quad d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{50 \text{ H.P.}}{R}};$$

$$\text{cold-rolled iron, H.P.} = \frac{d^3 R}{30}, \quad d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{30 \text{ H.P.}}{R}}.$$

o give the following notes: Receiving and transmitting pulleys
ys be placed as close to bearings as possible; and it is g
e short "headers" between the main tie-beams of a
he main receivers, carried by the head shafts, with
side as is contemplated in the formulæ. But if it i
for the shaft to span the full width of the "bay"

intermediate bearings, or for the pulley to be placed away from towards or at the middle of the bay, the size of the shaft must be increased to secure the *stiffness* necessary to support the load due deflection. Shafts may not deflect more than 1/80 of an foot of clear length with safety.

To find the diameter of shaft necessary to carry safely the weight at the centre of a bay: Multiply the fourth power of the diameter above formula by the length of the "bay," and divide this product by the distance from centre to centre of the bearings when the shaft is required by the formula. The fourth root of this quotient will be the diameter required.

The following table, computed by this rule, is practically correct.

Diameter of Shaft given by the Formula for Head Shafts.	Diameter of Shaft necessary to carry the Load at the Centre of a Bay, which is from Centre to Centre of Bearings.						
	2½ ft.	3 ft.	3½ ft.	4 ft.	5 ft.	6 ft.	8 ft.
in.	in.	in.	in.	in.	in.	in.	in.
2	2½	2¼	2¾	2¼	2¾	2¾	2¾
2½	2½	2¾	2¾	2¾	3	3	3
3	3	3¼	3¼	3½	3½	3½	3½
3½	3½	3¾	3¾	4	4	4
4	4	4½	4½	4½	4½	4½
4½	4½	4¾	4¾	5	5
5	5	5	5	5	5
5½	5½	5½	6	6
6	6	6	6	6

As the strain upon a shaft from a load upon it is proportional to the product of the parts of the shaft multiplied into each other, should the load be applied near one end of the span or bay instead of at the centre, multiply the fourth power of the diameter of the shaft which would carry the load at the centre of the span or bay by the product of the two parts of the shaft when the load is near one end, and divide this product by the product of the two parts of the shaft when the load is at the centre. The fourth root of this quotient will be the diameter required.

The shaft in a line which carries a receiving-pulley, or a transmitting-pulley to drive another line, should always be of the same diameter as the head-shaft, and should be of the size given by the rules for shafts carrying pulleys or gears.

Deflection of Shafting. (Pencoyd Iron Works.)—As the deflection of steel and iron is practically alike under similar conditions of stress and loads, and as shafting is usually determined by its transverse strength rather than its ultimate strength, nearly the same dimensions may be used for steel as for iron.

For continuous line-shafting it is considered good practice to allow a deflection to a maximum of 1/100 of an inch per foot of length. The weight of bare shafting in pounds = $2.8d^2L = W$, or when as fully supported by pulleys as is customary in practice, and allowing 40 lbs. per foot for the vertical pull of the belts, experience shows the load in pounds = $13d^2L = W$. Taking the modulus of transverse elasticity of steel as 30,000,000 lbs., we derive from authoritative formulae the following:

$$L = \sqrt[4]{873d^2}, \quad d = \sqrt[4]{\frac{L^2}{873}} \text{ for bare shafting;}$$

$$L = \sqrt[4]{175d^2}, \quad d = \sqrt[4]{\frac{L^2}{175}} \text{ for shafting carrying pulleys}$$

L being the maximum distance in feet between bearings, and d the diameter of the shafting subjected to bending stress alone, $d = \text{diam. in. inches}$. The transverse stress is inversely proportional to the velocity of the shafting. The transverse stress will not be reduced in the same ratio as the velocity. To write a formula covering the whole of the shafting, the diameter of the shafting should be written as $d = \text{diam. in. inches}$.

simple for practical application, but the following rules are correct for the range of velocities usual in practice. For continuous shafting so proportioned as to deflect not more than 1/100 inch per foot of length, allowance being made for the weakening of key-seats,

$$L = \sqrt[3]{\frac{50 \text{ H.P.}}{R}}, \quad L = \sqrt[3]{720d^2}, \text{ for bare shafts;}$$

$$L = \sqrt[3]{\frac{70 \text{ H.P.}}{R}}, \quad L = \sqrt[3]{140d^2}, \text{ for shafts carrying pulleys, etc.}$$

am, in inches, L = length in feet, R = revs. per min.

The following table (by J. B. Francis) gives the greatest admissible distance between the bearings of continuous shafts subject to no transverse stress except from their own weight, as would be the case were the power taken off from the shaft equal on all sides, and at an equal distance from the bearings.

Diam. of Shaft, in inches.	Distance between Bearings, in ft.		Diam. of Shaft, in inches.	Distance between Bearings, in ft.	
	Wrought-iron Shafts.	Steel Shafts.		Wrought-iron Shafts.	Steel Shafts.
6	15.46	15.89	6	22.30	22.92
7	17.70	18.19	7	23.48	24.13
8	19.48	20.02	8	24.55	25.23
9	20.99	21.57	9	25.53	26.24

These conditions, however, do not usually obtain in the transmission of power by belts and pulleys, and the varying circumstances of each case make it impracticable to give any rule which would be of value for universal application.

For example, the theoretical requirements would demand that the bearings be nearer together on those sections of shafting where most power is derived from the shaft, while considerations as to the location and contiguity of the driven machines may render it impracticable to locate the driving-pulleys by the intervention of a hauger at the theoretically required location. (Joshua Rose.)

Horse-power Transmitted by Turned Iron Shafting at Different Speeds.

TIME MOVER OR HEAD SHAFT CARRYING MAIN DRIVING-PULLEY OR GEAR, WELL SUPPORTED BY BEARINGS. Formula: $\text{H.P.} = d^2R + 125$.

Number of Revolutions per Minute.											
60	80	100	125	150	175	200	225	250	275	300	
H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.
2.6	3.4	4.3	5.4	6.4	7.5	8.6	9.7	10.7	11.8	12.9	
3.8	5.1	6.4	8	9.6	11.2	12.8	14.4	16	17.6	19.2	
5.4	7.3	8.1	10	12	14	16	18	20	22	24	
7.5	10	12.5	15	18	22	25	28	31	34	37	
10	13	16	20	24	28	32	36	40	44	48	
13	17	20	25	30	35	40	45	50	55	60	
16	22	27	34	40	47	54	61	67	74	81	
20	27	34	42	51	59	68	76	85	93	102	
25	33	42	52	63	73	84	94	105	115	126	
30	41	51	64	76	89	102	115	127	140	153	
43	58	72	90	108	126	144	162	180	198	216	
60	80	100	125	150	175	200	225	250	275	300	
80	106	133	166	199	233	266	299	333	366	400	

AS SECOND MOVERS OR LINE-SHAFTING, BEARINGS 8 FT. APART.
Formula: H.P. = $d^2R + 90$.

Diam. of Shaft.	Number of Revolutions per Minute.										
	100	125	150	175	200	225	250	275	300	325	350
Ins.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.
1 1/4	6	7.4	8.9	10.4	11.9	13.4	14.9	16.4	17.9	19.4	20.9
1 1/2	7.3	9.1	10.9	12.7	14.5	16.3	18.2	20	21.8	23.6	25.5
1 3/4	8.9	11.1	13.3	15.5	17.7	20	22.2	24.4	26.6	28.8	31
2	10.6	13.2	15.9	18.5	21.2	23.8	26.5	29.1	31.8	34.4	37
2 1/4	12.6	15.8	19	22	25	28	31	35	38	41	44
2 1/2	15	18	22	26	29	33	37	41	44	48	51
2 3/4	17	21	26	30	34	39	43	47	52	56	60
3	23	29	34	40	46	52	58	64	69	75	80
3 1/4	30	37	45	52	60	67	75	82	90	97	105
3 1/2	38	47	57	66	76	85	95	104	114	123	133
3 3/4	47	59	71	83	95	107	119	131	143	155	167
4	58	73	88	102	117	132	146	162	176	190	205
4 1/4	71	89	107	125	142	160	178	196	215	231	249

FOR SIMPLY TRANSMITTING POWER.
Formula: H.P. = $d^2R + 50$.

Diam. of Shaft.	Number of Revolutions per Minute.										
	100	125	150	175	200	225	250	275	300	325	350
Ins.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.
1 1/4	6.7	8.4	10.1	11.8	13.5	15.7	17.9	20.3	22.5	24.8	27.1
1 1/2	8.6	10.7	12.8	15	17.1	20	22.8	25.8	28.6	31.5	34.4
1 3/4	10.7	13.4	16	18.7	21.5	25	28	32	36	40	44
1 3/2	13.2	16.5	19.7	23	26.4	31	35	39	44	48	53
2	16	20	24	28	32	37	42	48	53	59	64
2 1/4	19	24	29	33	38	44	51	57	63	70	76
2 1/2	22	28	34	39	45	52	60	68	75	83	90
2 3/4	27	33	40	47	53	62	70	79	88	98	107
3	31	39	47	54	62	73	83	93	104	114	125
3 1/4	41	52	62	73	83	97	111	125	139	153	167
3 1/2	54	67	81	94	108	126	144	162	180	198	216
3 3/4	68	86	103	120	137	160	182	205	228	250	273
4	85	107	128	150	171	200	228	257	285	313	342

Horse-power Transmitted by Cold-rolled Iron Shafting at Different Speeds.

AS PRIME MOVER OR HEAD SHAFT CARRYING MAIN DRIVING-PULLEY IN GEAR, WELL SUPPORTED BY BEARINGS. Formula: H.P. = $d^2R + 50$.

Diam. of Shaft.	Number of Revolutions per Minute.										
	60	80	100	125	150	175	200	225	250	275	300
Ins.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.
1 1/4	2.7	3.6	4.5	5.6	6.7	7.9	9.0	10	11	12	13
1 1/2	4.3	5.6	7.1	8.9	10.6	12.4	14.2	16	18	19	21
1 3/4	6.4	8.5	10.7	13	16	19	21	24	26	28	30
2	9	12	15	19	23	26	30	34	38	42	46
2 1/4	12	17	21	26	31	36	41	47	52	57	62
2 1/2	16	22	27	35	41	48	55	62	70	78	86
2 3/4	21	29	36	45	54	63	73	81	90	99	108
3	27	36	45	57	68	80	91	103	114	125	136
3 1/4	34	45	57	71	86	100	114	129	142	155	168
3 1/2	42	56	70	87	105	123	140	158	174	192	209
3 3/4	51	69	85	106	128	149	170	192	212	233	254
4	61	81	101	125	151	182	212	243	273	303	333

SECOND MOVERS OR LINE-SHAFTING, BEARINGS 8 FT. APART.

Formula: $H.P. = d^3R + 50$.

Number of Revolutions per Minute.

	125	150	175	200	225	250	275	300	325	350
P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.
.7	8.4	10.1	11.8	13.5	15.2	16.8	18.5	20.2	21.9	23.6
.6	10.7	12.8	15	17.1	19.3	21.5	23.6	25.7	28.0	31
.7	13.4	16	18.7	21.5	24.2	26.8	29.5	32.1	34.8	39
.2	16.5	19.7	23	26.4	29.6	32.9	36.2	39.5	42.8	46
	20	24	28	32	36	40	44	48	52	56
	24	29	33	38	43	48	52	57	62	67
	28	34	39	45	50	56	61	68	74	80
	33	40	47	53	60	67	73	80	86	93
	39	47	54	62	69	78	86	93	101	109
	52	62	73	83	93	104	114	125	135	145
	67	81	94	108	121	134	148	162	175	189
	86	103	120	137	154	172	188	205	222	240
	107	128	150	171	192	214	235	257	278	300

FOR SIMPLY TRANSMITTING POWER AND SHORT COUNTERS.

Formula: $H.P. = d^3R + 30$.

Number of Revolutions per Minute.

	125	150	175	200	225	250	275	300	325	350
P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.	H.P.
.5	8.1	9.7	11.3	13	15.2	17.4	19.5	21.7	23.9	26
.5	10.7	12.8	15	17	19.8	22.7	25.5	28.4	31	34
.2	14	16.8	19.6	22.5	26	30	33	37	41	45
.2	17.7	21.2	24.8	28.4	32	38	42	47	52	57
	22	27	31	35	41	47	53	59	65	71
	27	33	38	44	51	58	65	72	79	87
	33	40	46	53	62	71	80	88	97	106
	40	47	55	63	73	84	95	105	116	127
	47	57	66	76	89	101	114	127	139	152
	55	66	77	88	102	118	133	148	163	178
	65	78	91	104	121	138	155	172	190	207
	84	99	113	128	146	164	184	203	224	247
	112	135	157	180	210	240	270	300	330	360

OF SHAFTING.—Machine shops 120 to 180
 Wood-working 250 to 300
 Cotton and woollen mills 300 to 400

are in some factories lines 1000 ft. long, the power being applied at e.

w Shafts.—Let d be the diameter of a solid shaft, and d_1, d_2 the and internal diameters of a hollow shaft of the same material, shafts will be of equal torsional strength when $d^3 = \frac{d_1^4 - d_2^4}{d_1}$. hollow shaft with internal diameter of 4 inches will weigh 16% less id 10-inch shaft, but its strength will be only 2.56% less. If the hole ased to 5 inches diameter the weight would be 25% less than that d shaft, and the strength 4.25% less.

for Laying Out Shafting.—The table on the opposite page *Stevens Indicator*, April, 1892) is used by Wm. Sellers & Co. *be laying out of shafting.* *-cuts at the head of this table show the position of + of couplings, either for the case of extension in bo of al head-shaft or extension in one direction from the*

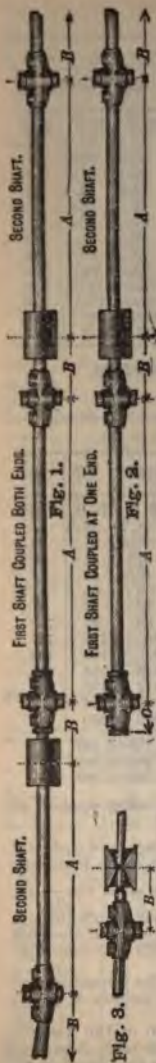


Table for Laying Out Shafting.

Length of Coupled End for 1st Shaft, ins.	Nominal Size of 2d Shaft, ins.	11 1/2"	13 1/2"	2"	2 1/4"	2 1/2"	2 3/4"	3"	3 1/4"	3 1/2"	4"	4 1/2"	5"	5 1/2"	6"	6 1/2"	7"	7 1/2"	8"	Length of Box, ins.	Length, Inches.	Diameter, Inches.																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																						
3/16	1 1/2	9 1/2	11	11 1/2	11 3/4	12	12 1/4	12 1/2	12 3/4	13	13 1/4	13 1/2	13 3/4	14	14 1/4	14 1/2	14 3/4	15	15 1/4	15 1/2	15 3/4	16	16 1/4	16 1/2	16 3/4	17	17 1/4	17 1/2	17 3/4	18	18 1/4	18 1/2	18 3/4	19	19 1/4	19 1/2	19 3/4	20	20 1/4	20 1/2	20 3/4	21	21 1/4	21 1/2	21 3/4	22	22 1/4	22 1/2	22 3/4	23	23 1/4	23 1/2	23 3/4	24	24 1/4	24 1/2	24 3/4	25	25 1/4	25 1/2	25 3/4	26	26 1/4	26 1/2	26 3/4	27	27 1/4	27 1/2	27 3/4	28	28 1/4	28 1/2	28 3/4	29	29 1/4	29 1/2	29 3/4	30	30 1/4	30 1/2	30 3/4	31	31 1/4	31 1/2	31 3/4	32	32 1/4	32 1/2	32 3/4	33	33 1/4	33 1/2	33 3/4	34	34 1/4	34 1/2	34 3/4	35	35 1/4	35 1/2	35 3/4	36	36 1/4	36 1/2	36 3/4	37	37 1/4	37 1/2	37 3/4	38	38 1/4	38 1/2	38 3/4	39	39 1/4	39 1/2	39 3/4	40	40 1/4	40 1/2	40 3/4	41	41 1/4	41 1/2	41 3/4	42	42 1/4	42 1/2	42 3/4	43	43 1/4	43 1/2	43 3/4	44	44 1/4	44 1/2	44 3/4	45	45 1/4	45 1/2	45 3/4	46	46 1/4	46 1/2	46 3/4	47	47 1/4	47 1/2	47 3/4	48	48 1/4	48 1/2	48 3/4	49	49 1/4	49 1/2	49 3/4	50	50 1/4	50 1/2	50 3/4	51	51 1/4	51 1/2	51 3/4	52	52 1/4	52 1/2	52 3/4	53	53 1/4	53 1/2	53 3/4	54	54 1/4	54 1/2	54 3/4	55	55 1/4	55 1/2	55 3/4	56	56 1/4	56 1/2	56 3/4	57	57 1/4	57 1/2	57 3/4	58	58 1/4	58 1/2	58 3/4	59	59 1/4	59 1/2	59 3/4	60	60 1/4	60 1/2	60 3/4	61	61 1/4	61 1/2	61 3/4	62	62 1/4	62 1/2	62 3/4	63	63 1/4	63 1/2	63 3/4	64	64 1/4	64 1/2	64 3/4	65	65 1/4	65 1/2	65 3/4	66	66 1/4	66 1/2	66 3/4	67	67 1/4	67 1/2	67 3/4	68	68 1/4	68 1/2	68 3/4	69	69 1/4	69 1/2	69 3/4	70	70 1/4	70 1/2	70 3/4	71	71 1/4	71 1/2	71 3/4	72	72 1/4	72 1/2	72 3/4	73	73 1/4	73 1/2	73 3/4	74	74 1/4	74 1/2	74 3/4	75	75 1/4	75 1/2	75 3/4	76	76 1/4	76 1/2	76 3/4	77	77 1/4	77 1/2	77 3/4	78	78 1/4	78 1/2	78 3/4	79	79 1/4	79 1/2	79 3/4	80	80 1/4	80 1/2	80 3/4	81	81 1/4	81 1/2	81 3/4	82	82 1/4	82 1/2	82 3/4	83	83 1/4	83 1/2	83 3/4	84	84 1/4	84 1/2	84 3/4	85	85 1/4	85 1/2	85 3/4	86	86 1/4	86 1/2	86 3/4	87	87 1/4	87 1/2	87 3/4	88	88 1/4	88 1/2	88 3/4	89	89 1/4	89 1/2	89 3/4	90	90 1/4	90 1/2	90 3/4	91	91 1/4	91 1/2	91 3/4	92	92 1/4	92 1/2	92 3/4	93	93 1/4	93 1/2	93 3/4	94	94 1/4	94 1/2	94 3/4	95	95 1/4	95 1/2	95 3/4	96	96 1/4	96 1/2	96 3/4	97	97 1/4	97 1/2	97 3/4	98	98 1/4	98 1/2	98 3/4	99	99 1/4	99 1/2	99 3/4	100	100 1/4	100 1/2	100 3/4	101	101 1/4	101 1/2	101 3/4	102	102 1/4	102 1/2	102 3/4	103	103 1/4	103 1/2	103 3/4	104	104 1/4	104 1/2	104 3/4	105	105 1/4	105 1/2	105 3/4	106	106 1/4	106 1/2	106 3/4	107	107 1/4	107 1/2	107 3/4	108	108 1/4	108 1/2	108 3/4	109	109 1/4	109 1/2	109 3/4	110	110 1/4	110 1/2	110 3/4	111	111 1/4	111 1/2	111 3/4	112	112 1/4	112 1/2	112 3/4	113	113 1/4	113 1/2	113 3/4	114	114 1/4	114 1/2	114 3/4	115	115 1/4	115 1/2	115 3/4	116	116 1/4	116 1/2	116 3/4	117	117 1/4	117 1/2	117 3/4	118	118 1/4	118 1/2	118 3/4	119	119 1/4	119 1/2	119 3/4	120	120 1/4	120 1/2	120 3/4	121	121 1/4	121 1/2	121 3/4	122	122 1/4	122 1/2	122 3/4	123	123 1/4	123 1/2	123 3/4	124	124 1/4	124 1/2	124 3/4	125	125 1/4	125 1/2	125 3/4	126	126 1/4	126 1/2	126 3/4	127	127 1/4	127 1/2	127 3/4	128	128 1/4	128 1/2	128 3/4	129	129 1/4	129 1/2	129 3/4	130	130 1/4	130 1/2	130 3/4	131	131 1/4	131 1/2	131 3/4	132	132 1/4	132 1/2	132 3/4	133	133 1/4	133 1/2	133 3/4	134	134 1/4	134 1/2	134 3/4	135	135 1/4	135 1/2	135 3/4	136	136 1/4	136 1/2	136 3/4	137	137 1/4	137 1/2	137 3/4	138	138 1/4	138 1/2	138 3/4	139	139 1/4	139 1/2	139 3/4	140	140 1/4	140 1/2	140 3/4	141	141 1/4	141 1/2	141 3/4	142	142 1/4	142 1/2	142 3/4	143	143 1/4	143 1/2	143 3/4	144	144 1/4	144 1/2	144 3/4	145	145 1/4	145 1/2	145 3/4	146	146 1/4	146 1/2	146 3/4	147	147 1/4	147 1/2	147 3/4	148	148 1/4	148 1/2	148 3/4	149	149 1/4	149 1/2	149 3/4	150	150 1/4	150 1/2	150 3/4	151	151 1/4	151 1/2	151 3/4	152	152 1/4	152 1/2	152 3/4	153	153 1/4	153 1/2	153 3/4	154	154 1/4	154 1/2	154 3/4	155	155 1/4	155 1/2	155 3/4	156	156 1/4	156 1/2	156 3/4	157	157 1/4	157 1/2	157 3/4	158	158 1/4	158 1/2	158 3/4	159	159 1/4	159 1/2	159 3/4	160	160 1/4	160 1/2	160 3/4	161	161 1/4	161 1/2	161 3/4	162	162 1/4	162 1/2	162 3/4	163	163 1/4	163 1/2	163 3/4	164	164 1/4	164 1/2	164 3/4	165	165 1/4	165 1/2	165 3/4	166	166 1/4	166 1/2	166 3/4	167	167 1/4	167 1/2	167 3/4	168	168 1/4	168 1/2	168 3/4	169	169 1/4	169 1/2	169 3/4	170	170 1/4	170 1/2	170 3/4	171	171 1/4	171 1/2	171 3/4	172	172 1/4	172 1/2	172 3/4	173	173 1/4	173 1/2	173 3/4	174	174 1/4	174 1/2	174 3/4	175	175 1/4	175 1/2	175 3/4	176	176 1/4	176 1/2	176 3/4	177	177 1/4	177 1/2	177 3/4	178	178 1/4	178 1/2	178 3/4	179	179 1/4	179 1/2	179 3/4	180	180 1/4	180 1/2	180 3/4	181	181 1/4	181 1/2	181 3/4	182	182 1/4	182 1/2	182 3/4	183	183 1/4	183 1/2	183 3/4	184	184 1/4	184 1/2	184 3/4	185	185 1/4	185 1/2	185 3/4	186	186 1/4	186 1/2	186 3/4	187	187 1/4	187 1/2	187 3/4	188	188 1/4	188 1/2	188 3/4	189	189 1/4	189 1/2	189 3/4	190	190 1/4	190 1/2	190 3/4	191	191 1/4	191 1/2	191 3/4	192	192 1/4	192 1/2	192 3/4	193	193 1/4	193 1/2	193 3/4	194	194 1/4	194 1/2	194 3/4	195	195 1/4	195 1/2	195 3/4	196	196 1/4	196 1/2	196 3/4	197	197 1/4	197 1/2	197 3/4	198	198 1/4	198 1/2	198 3/4	199	199 1/4	199 1/2	199 3/4	200	200 1/4	200 1/2	200 3/4	201	201 1/4	201 1/2	201 3/4	202	202 1/4	202 1/2	202 3/4	203	203 1/4	203 1/2	203 3/4	204	204 1/4	204 1/2	204 3/4	205	205 1/4	205 1/2	205 3/4	206	206 1/4	206 1/2	206 3/4	207	207 1/4	207 1/2	207 3/4	208	208 1/4	208 1/2	208 3/4	209	209 1/4	209 1/2	209 3/4	210	210 1/4	210 1/2	210 3/4	211	211 1/4	211 1/2	211 3/4	212	212 1/4	212 1/2	212 3/4	213	213 1/4	213 1/2	213 3/4	214	214 1/4	214 1/2	214 3/4	215	215 1/4	215 1/2	215 3/4	216	216 1/4	216 1/2	216 3/4	217	217 1/4	217 1/2	217 3/4	218	218 1/4	218 1/2	218 3/4	219	219 1/4	219 1/2	219 3/4	220	220 1/4	220 1/2	220 3/4	221	221 1/4	221 1/2	221 3/4	222	222 1/4	222 1/2	222 3/4	223	223 1/4	223 1/2	223 3/4	224	224 1/4	224 1/2	224 3/4	225	225 1/4	225 1/2	225 3/4	226	226 1/4	226 1/2	226 3/4	227	227 1/4	227 1/2	227 3/4	228	228 1/4	228 1/2	228 3/4	229	229 1/4	229 1/2	229 3/4	230	230 1/4	230 1/2	230 3/4	231	231 1/4	231 1/2	231 3/4	232	232 1/4	232 1/2	232 3/4	233	233 1/4	233 1/2	233 3/4	234	234 1/4	234 1/2	234 3/4	235	235 1/4	235 1/2	235 3/4	236	236 1/4	236 1/2	236 3/4	237	237 1/4	237 1/2	237 3/4	238	238 1/4	238 1/2	238 3/4	239	239 1/4	239 1/2	239 3/4	240	240 1/4	240 1/2	240 3/4	241	241 1/4	241 1/2	241 3/4	242	242 1/4	242 1/2	242 3/4	243	243 1/4	243 1/2	243 3/4	244	244 1/4	244 1/2	244 3/4	245	245 1/4	245 1/2	245 3/4	246	246 1/4	246 1/2	246 3/4	247	247 1/4	247 1/2	247 3/4	248	248 1/4	248 1/2	248 3/4	249	249 1/4	249 1/2	249 3/4	250	250 1/4	250 1/2	250 3/4	251	251 1/4	251 1/2	251 3/4	252	252 1/4	252 1/2	252 3/4	253	253 1/4	253 1/2	253 3/4	254	254 1/4	254 1/2	254 3/4	255	255 1/4	255 1/2	255 3/4	256	256 1/4	256 1/2	256 3/4	257	257 1/4	257 1/2	257 3/4	258	258 1/4	258 1/2	258 3/4	259	259 1/4	259 1/2	259 3/4	260	260 1/4	260 1/2	260 3/4	261	261 1/4	261 1/2	261 3/4	262	262 1/4	262 1/2	262 3/4	263	263 1/4	263 1/2	263 3/4	264	264 1/4	264 1/2	264 3/4	265	265 1/4	2

PULLEYS.

Proportions of Pulleys. (See also Fly-wheels, pages 820 to 823.)—
 number of arms, D = diameter of pulley, S = thickness of belt, t =
 thickness of rim at edge, T = thickness in middle, B = width of rim, β =
 thickness of belt, h = breadth of arm at hub, h_1 = breadth of arm at rim, e =
 thickness of arm at hub, e_1 = thickness of arm at rim, c = amount of crown-
 projections in inches.

	Unwin.	Reuleaux.
Thickness of rim.....	$9/8(\beta + 0.4)$	$9/8\beta$ to $5/4\beta$
Thickness at edge of rim.....	$0.7S + .005D$	(thick. of rim.) $1/3h$ to $1/4h$
" middle of rim.....	$2t + c$
Breadth of arm at hub.....	For single belts = $.6337\sqrt{\frac{BD}{n}}$	$\frac{1}{4} + \frac{B}{4} + \frac{D}{20n}$
	For double belts = $.798\sqrt{\frac{BD}{n}}$	
" " " rim.....	$\frac{2}{3}h$	$0.8h$
Thickness of arm at hub.....	$0.4h$	$0.5h$
" " " rim.....	$0.4h_1$	$0.5h_1$
Number of arms, for a set, {	$3 + \frac{BD}{150}$	$\frac{1}{3}(5 \times \frac{D}{3B})$
Thickness of hub.....	{ not less than $2.5S$, is often $\frac{2}{3}B$.	{ B for sin.-arm pulleys. $2B$ " double-arm "
Thickness of metal in hub.....	h to $\frac{3}{4}h$
Thickness of pulley.....	$1/24B$

Number of arms is really arbitrary, and may be altered if necessary.

Two or three sets of arms may be considered as two or three pulleys combined in one, except that the proportions of the arms are 0.8 or 0.7 time that of single-arm pulleys. (Reuleaux.)

Ex.—Dimensions of a pulley 60" diam., 18" face, for double belt $\frac{1}{2}$ "

on by....	n	h	h_1	e	e_1	t	T	L	M	c
.....	9	3.79	2.53	1.52	1.01	.65	1.97	10.7	3.8	.67

Following proportions are given in an article in the *Amer. Machinist*, not stated:
 $2SD + .5$ in., $h_1 = .04D + 3125$ in., $e = .035D + .2$ in., $e_1 = .016D +$

For the above example: $h = 4.25$ in., $h_1 = 2.71$ in., $e = 1.7$ in.,

The section of the arms in all cases is taken as elliptical. The following solution for breadth of arm is proposed by the author: Let the belt pull of 45 lbs. per inch of width of a single belt, that the arm is taken in equal proportions on one half of the arms, and that the arm is a beam loaded at one end and fixed at the other. We have the modulus of rupture of the cast iron, $fP = .0982 \frac{Rbd^2}{l}$, in which P = the

modulus of rupture of the cast iron, b = breadth, d = depth, l = length of the beam, and f = factor of safety. Assume a modulus of 36,000 lbs., a factor of safety of 10, and an additional allowance in taking $l = \frac{1}{2}$ the diameter of the pulley instead of $\frac{1}{4}$ the diameter of the hub.

Let h = the breadth of the arm at the hub, and $b = e = 0.4h$, the

We then have $fP = 10 \times \frac{45B}{n+2} = 900 \frac{B}{n} = \frac{3525 \times 0.4h^3}{\frac{1}{2}D}$, whence

$$\frac{BD}{n} = .633 \sqrt{\frac{BD}{n}}$$

which is practically the same as that given in the preceding table from a different set of assumptions.

Convexity of Pulleys.—Authorities differ. Morin gives a rise of 1/10 of the face; Molesworth, 1/24; others from 1/4 to 1/8. Smith says the crown should not be over 1/8 inch for a 24-inch face. Fell for shifting belts should be "straight," that is, without crowing.

CONE OR STEP PULLEYS.

To find the diameters for the several steps of a pair of cone-pulleys:

1. **Crossed Belts.**—Let D and d be the diameters of two pulleys connected by a crossed belt, L = the distance between their centres, and the angle either half of the belt makes with a line joining the centres of

pulleys: then total length of belt = $(D + d)\frac{\pi}{2} + (D + d)\frac{\pi\beta}{180} + 2L \cos \beta$
 β = angle whose sine is $\frac{D+d}{2L}$. $\cos \beta = \sqrt{L^2 - \left(\frac{D+d}{2}\right)^2}$. The length

of the belt is constant when $D + d$ is constant; that is, in a pair of pulleys the belt tension will be uniform when the sum of the diameters of each opposite pair of steps is constant. Crossed belts are seldom used on cone-pulleys, on account of the friction between the rubbing parts of the belt.

To design a pair of tapering speed-cones, so that the belt is equally tight in all positions: When the belt is crossed, use a pair of similar cones tapering opposite ways.

2. **Open Belts.**—When the belt is uncrossed, use a pair of equal similar conoids tapering opposite ways, and bulging in the middle, according to the following formula: Let L denote the distance between the centres of the conoids; R the radius of the larger end of each; r the radius of the smaller end; then the radius in the middle, r_0 , is found as follows:

$$r_0 = \frac{R+r}{2} + \frac{(R-r)^2}{6.28L}. \quad (\text{Rankine.})$$

If D_0 = the diameter of equal steps of a pair of cone-pulleys, D and d the diameters of unequal opposite steps, and L = distance between axes, $D_0 = \frac{D+d}{2} + \frac{(D-d)^2}{12.566L}$.

If a series of differences of radii of the steps, $R - r$, be assumed for each pair of steps $\frac{R+r}{2} = r_0 - \frac{(R-r)^2}{6.28L}$, and the radii of each computed from their half sum and half difference, as follows:

$$R = \frac{R+r}{2} + \frac{R-r}{2}; \quad r = \frac{R+r}{2} - \frac{R-r}{2}.$$

A. J. Frith (Trans. A. S. M. E., x, 298) shows the following applies Rankine's method: If we had a set of cones to design, the extreme diameters of which, including thickness of belt, were 40" and 10", and the desired 4, 3, 2, and 1, we would make a table as follows, L being 100"

Trial Sum of $D+d$.	Ratio.	Trial Diameters.		Values of $\frac{(D-d)^2}{12.56L}$	Amount to be Added.	Corrected Values	
		D	d			D	d
50	4	40	10	.7165	.0000	40	10
50	3	37.5	12.5	.4975	.2190	37.7190	12.2810
50	2	33.333	16.666	.2212	.4953	33.8287	16.1713
50	1	25	25	.0000	.7165	25.7165	24.2835

The above formulae are approximate, and they do not give valid results when the difference of diameters of opposite steps is large and the axes of the pulleys are near together, giving a large belt-angle. The following more accurate solution of the problem is given by C. A. Smith (Trans. A. S. M. E., x, 269) (Fig 152):

Let O be the centre distance CO or EO , and draw the circles D_0 and d_0 of the pair of pulleys, which are always previously known. Draw HI tangent to the circles D_0 and d_0 at H and I . From E add F , erect the perpendicular BQ , making

CONE OR STEP PULLEYS.

$EG = .314C$. With G as a centre, draw a circle tangent to HL . Get this circle will be outside of the belt-line, as in the cut, but when C is small and the first pulleys D_1 and d_1 are large, it will fall on the inside of the belt-line. The belt-line of any other pair of pulleys must be tangent to the circle G ; hence any line, as JK or LM , drawn tangent to the circle G , will

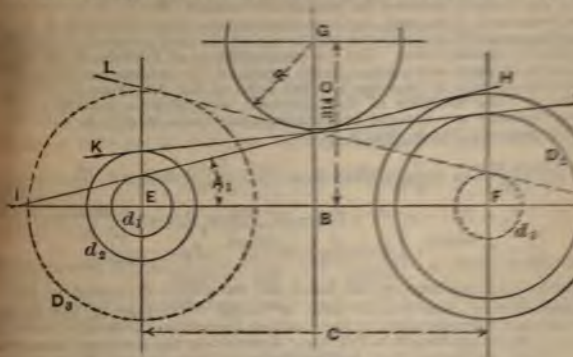


FIG. 152.

the diameters D_2, d_2 or D_1, d_1 of the pulleys drawn tangent to them from the centres E and F .

The above method is to be used when the belt-angle A does not exceed 18° . When it is between 18° and 30° a slight modification is made. In addition to the point G , locate another point a on the line BC above B . Draw a tangent line to the circle G , making an angle of 18° with the line of centres EF , and from the point a draw an arc tangent to the tangent line. All belt-lines with angles greater than 18° are tangent to this arc. The following is the summary of Mr. Smith's mathematical method:

- A = angle in degrees between the centre line and the belt of any pulleys;
- a = .314 for belt-angles less than 18° , and .295 for angles between 18° and 30° ;
- B° = an angle depending on the velocity ratio;
- C = the centre distance of the two pulleys;
- D, d = diameters of the larger and smaller of the pair of pulleys;
- E° = an angle depending on B° ;
- L = the length of the belt when drawn tight around the pulleys;
- r = $D + d$, or the velocity ratio (larger divided by smaller).

$$(1) \sin A = \frac{D - d}{2C}; \quad (2) \tan B^\circ = \frac{2a(r - 1)}{r + 1};$$

$$(3) \sin E^\circ = \sin B^\circ \left(\cos A - \frac{D + d}{4aC} \right);$$

(4) $A = B^\circ - E^\circ$ when $\sin E^\circ$ is positive; = $B^\circ + E^\circ$ when $\sin E^\circ$ is negative;

$$(5) d = \frac{2C \sin A}{r - 1}; \quad = .3183(L - 2C) \text{ when } A = 0 \text{ and } r = 1;$$

$$(6) D = rd;$$

$$(7) L = 2C \cos A + .01745d[180 + (r - 1)(90 + A)].$$

Equation (1) is used only once for any pair of cones to obtain the belt-angle A , by the aid of tables of sines and cosines, for use in eq.

BELTING.

Theory of Belts and Bands.—A pulley is driven by a belt by means of the friction between the surfaces in contact. Let T_1 be the tension on the driving side of the belt, T_2 the tension on the loose side; then $S = T_1 - T_2$ is the total friction between the band and the pulley, which is equal to the tractive or driving force. Let f = the coefficient of friction, θ the angle of the length of the arc of contact to the length of the radius, α = the angle of the arc of contact in degrees, e = the base of the Napierian logarithm = 2.71828, m = the modulus of the common logarithms = 0.43429. The following formulæ are derived by calculus (Rankine's Mach'y & Mill-work, p. 351; Carpenter's Exper. Eng'g, p. 178):

$$\frac{T_1}{T_2} = e^{f\theta}; \quad T_2 = \frac{T_1}{e^{f\theta}}; \quad T_1 - T_2 = T_1 - \frac{T_1}{e^{f\theta}} = T_1(1 - e^{-f\theta}).$$

$$T_1 - T_2 = T_1(1 - e^{-f\theta}) = T_1(1 - 10^{-f\theta m}) = T_1(1 - 10^{-.00758f\alpha});$$

$$\frac{T_1}{T_2} = 10^{.00758f\alpha}; \quad T_1 = T_2 \times 10^{.00758f\alpha}; \quad T_2 = \frac{T_1}{10^{.00758f\alpha}}.$$

If the arc of contact between the band and the pulley expressed in turns and fractions of a turn = n , $\theta = 2\pi n$; $e^{f\theta} = 10^{2.7288f/n}$; that is, $e^{f\theta}$ is the natural number corresponding to the common logarithm $2.7288f/n$.

The value of the coefficient of friction f depends on the state and material of the rubbing surfaces. For leather belts on iron pulleys, $Murinson$ takes $f = .56$ when dry, $.36$ when wet, $.23$ when greasy, and $.15$ when oily. In calculating the proper mean tension for a belt, the smallest value, $f = .35$, is to be taken if there is a probability of the belt becoming wet with oil. The experiments of Henry R. Towne and Robert Briggs, however (Jour. Frasn. Inst., 1868), show that such a state of lubrication is not of ordinary occurrence; and that in designing machinery we may in most cases safely take $f = 0.42$. *Reuleaux* takes $f = 0.25$. The following table shows the values of the coefficient $2.7288f$, by which n is multiplied in the last equation, corresponding to different values of f ; also the corresponding values of $e^{f\theta}$ ratios among the forces, when the arc of contact is half a circumference:

$f = 0.15$	0.25	0.42	0.56
$2.7288f = 0.41$	0.68	1.15	1.53

Let $\theta = \pi$ and $n = \frac{1}{2}$, then

$T_1 + T_2 = 1.608$	3.183	3.758	5.821
$T_1 + S = 2.66$	1.84	1.86	1.21
$T_1 + T_2 + 2S = 2.16$	1.34	0.86	0.71

In ordinary practice it is usual to assume $T_2 = S$; $T_1 = 2S$; $T_1 + T_2 + 2S = 1.5$. This corresponds to $f = 0.22$ nearly.

For a wire rope on cast iron f may be taken as 0.15 nearly; and if the groove of the pulley is bottomed with gutta-percha, 0.25. (Rankine.)

Centrifugal Tension of Belts.—When a belt or band runs at high velocity, centrifugal force produces a tension in addition to that existing when the belt is at rest or moving at a low velocity. This centrifugal tension diminishes the effective driving force.

Rankine says: If an endless band, of any figure whatsoever, runs at a given speed, the centrifugal force produces a uniform tension at each cross section of the band, equal to the weight of a piece of the band whose length is twice the height from which a heavy body must fall, in order to acquire the velocity of the band. (See Cooper on Belting, p. 101.)

If T_c = centrifugal tension;

V = velocity in feet per second;

g = acceleration due to gravity = 32.2;

W = weight of a piece of the belt 1 ft. long and 1 sq. in. sectional area.

Leather weighing 56 lbs. per cubic foot gives $W = 28 + 144 = 172$.

$$T_c = \frac{WV^2}{g} = \frac{.388V^2}{32.2} = .012V^2.$$

ing Practice, Handy Formulae for Belting.— Since practical application of the above formulae the value of the coefficient must be assumed, its actual value varying within wide limits (15%), and since the values of T_1 and T_2 also are fixed arbitrarily, it is customary in practice to substitute for these theoretical formulae more simple and rules, some of which are given below.

d = diam. of pulley in inches; πd = circumference;
 V = velocity of belt in ft. per second; v = vel. in ft. per minute;
 α = angle of the arc of contact;
 L = length of arc of contact in feet = $\pi d \alpha \div (12 \times 360)$;
 F = tractive force per square inch of sectional area of belt;
 w = width in inches; t = thickness;
 S = tractive force per inch of width = $F \div t$;
 N = revs. per minute; rps. = revs. per second = rpm. \div 60.

$$F = \frac{\pi d}{12} \times \text{rps.} = \frac{\pi d}{12} \times \frac{\text{rpm.}}{60} = .004363d \times \text{rpm.} = \frac{d \times \text{rpm.}}{229.2};$$

$$S = \frac{\pi d}{12} \times \text{rpm.}; = .3618d \times \text{rpm.}$$

$$\text{power, H.P.} = \frac{Svw}{33000} = \frac{SVw}{550} = \frac{Swd \times \text{rpm.}}{126050} = .00007983Swd \times \text{rpm.}$$

= working tension per square inch = 275 lbs., and $t = 7/32$ inch, $S =$ nearly, then

$$\text{H.P.} = \frac{vw}{550} = .109Vw = .000476wd \times \text{rpm.} = \frac{wd \times \text{rpm.}}{2101} \quad (1)$$

= 150 lbs. per square inch, and $t = 1/6$ inch, $S = 89$ lbs., then

$$\text{H.P.} = \frac{vw}{1100} = .055Vw = .000238wd \times \text{rpm.} = \frac{wd \times \text{rpm.}}{4202} \quad (2)$$

the working strain is 60 lbs. per inch of width, a belt 1 inch wide travelling 100 ft. per minute will transmit 1 horse-power. If the working strain is 45 lbs. per inch of width, a belt 1 inch wide, travelling 1100 ft. per minute, will transmit 1 horse-power. Numerous rules are given by different writers which vary between these extremes. A rule commonly used is: wide travelling 1000 ft. per min. = 1 H.P.

$$\text{H.P.} = \frac{vw}{1000} = .06Vw = .000262wd \times \text{rpm.} = \frac{wd \times \text{rpm.}}{3820} \quad (3)$$

corresponds to a working strain of 33 lbs. per inch of width.

Some writers give as safe practice for single belts in good condition a working tension of 45 lbs. per inch of width. This gives

$$\text{H.P.} = \frac{vw}{733} = .0618Vw = .000357wd \times \text{rpm.} = \frac{wd \times \text{rpm.}}{2800} \quad (4)$$

For double belts of average thickness, some writers say that the transmitting efficiency is to that of single belts as 10 to 7, which would give

$$\text{for double belts} = \frac{vw}{513} = .1169Vw = .00051wd \times \text{rpm.} = \frac{wd \times \text{rpm.}}{1960} \quad (5)$$

Some authorities, however, make the transmitting-power of double belts that of single belts, on the assumption that the thickness of a double-belt is twice that of a single belt.

Some of the rules for horse-power of belts are sometimes based on the number of feet of surface of the belt which pass over the pulley in a minute, per min. = $vcw \div 12$. The above formulae translated into this form

For $S = 60$ lbs. per inch wide;	H.P. = 46 sq. ft. per minute.
" $S = 80$ " " " "	H.P. = 92 " " "
" $S = 83$ " " " "	H.P. = 83 " " "
" $S = 45$ " " " "	H.P. = 61 " " "
" $S = 64.3$ " " " "	H.P. = 43 " " (double belt)

The above formulæ are all based on the supposition that the arc of contact is 180° . For other arcs, the transmitting power is approximately proportional to the ratio of the degrees of arc to 180° .

Some rules base the horse-power on the length of the arc of contact in feet. Since $L = \frac{\pi da}{12 \times 360}$ and $H.P. = \frac{Srw}{33000} = \frac{Sw}{33000} \times \frac{\pi d}{12} \times \text{rpm.} \times \frac{1}{12}$ obtain by substitution $H.P. = \frac{Sw}{16500} \times L \times \text{rpm.}$, and the five formulæ take the following form for the several values of S :

$$H.P. = \frac{wL \times \text{rpm.}}{275} \quad (1); \quad \frac{wL \times \text{rpm.}}{550} \quad (2); \quad \frac{wL \times \text{rpm.}}{500} \quad (3); \quad \frac{wL \times \text{rpm.}}{367} \quad (4)$$

$$H.P. \text{ (double belt)} = \frac{wL \times \text{rpm.}}{257} \quad (5).$$

None of the handy formulæ take into consideration the centrifugal force of belts at high velocities. When the velocity is over 3000 ft. per minute the effect of this tension becomes appreciable, and it should be taken account of as in Mr. Nagle's formula, which is given below.

Horse-power of a Leather Belt One Inch wide.

Formula: $H.P. = CVtw(S - .012V^2) \div 550$.

For $f = .40$, $\alpha = 180^\circ$, $C = .715$, $w = 1$.

Velocity in ft. per sec.	LACED BELTS, $S = 275$.							RIVETED BELTS, $S = 400$.						
	Thickness in inches = t .							Thickness in inches = t .						
	1/7	1/6	3/16	7/32	1/4	5/16	1/3	7/32	1/4	5/16	1/3	3/8	7/8	
10	.51	.59	.63	.73	.84	1.05	1.18	15	1.69	1.94	2.42	2.58	2.91	
15	.75	.88	1.00	1.16	1.32	1.66	1.77	20	2.24	2.57	3.21	3.42	3.82	
20	1.00	1.17	1.32	1.54	1.75	2.19	2.31	25	2.79	3.19	3.98	4.25	4.78	
25	1.23	1.43	1.61	1.88	2.16	2.69	2.86	30	3.31	3.79	4.74	5.05	5.57	
30	1.47	1.72	1.93	2.25	2.58	3.23	3.44	35	3.82	4.37	5.46	5.82	6.36	
35	1.69	1.97	2.22	2.59	2.96	3.70	3.94	40	4.34	4.95	6.19	6.60	7.12	
40	1.90	2.22	2.49	2.90	3.32	4.15	4.44	45	4.85	5.49	6.86	7.32	8.43	
45	2.09	2.45	2.75	3.21	3.67	4.58	4.89	50	5.36	6.01	7.51	8.02	9.02	
50	2.27	2.65	2.98	3.48	3.98	4.97	5.30	55	5.88	6.50	8.12	8.66	9.74	
55	2.44	2.84	3.19	3.72	4.26	5.32	5.69	60	6.09	6.76	8.70	9.28	10.43	
60	2.58	3.01	3.38	3.95	4.51	5.61	6.02	65	6.45	7.17	9.22	9.83	11.06	
65	2.71	3.16	3.55	4.14	4.74	5.92	6.32	70	6.78	7.55	9.69	10.34	11.67	
70	2.81	3.27	3.68	4.29	4.91	6.14	6.54	75	7.09	8.11	10.13	10.83	12.16	
75	2.89	3.37	3.79	4.42	5.05	6.31	6.73	80	7.36	8.41	10.51	11.21	12.61	
80	2.94	3.43	3.86	4.50	5.15	6.46	6.86	85	7.58	8.66	10.82	11.55	13.00	
85	2.97	3.47	3.90	4.55	5.20	6.50	6.93	90	7.74	8.85	11.06	11.80	13.25	
90	2.97	3.47	3.90	4.55	5.20	6.50	6.93	100	7.96	9.10	11.37	12.13	13.63	

The H.P. becomes a maximum at 87.41 ft. per sec. = 5245 ft. p. min.

The H.P. becomes a maximum at 105.4 ft. per sec. = 6324 ft. per min.

In the above table the angle of subtenion, α , is taken at 180° .

Should it be...
Multiply above values by | .65 | .70 | .75 | .79 | .83 | .87 | .91 | .94 | .97

A. F. Nagle's Formula (Trans. A. S. M. E., vol. II., 1882).
Tables published in 1882.)

$$H.P. = CVtw \left(\frac{S - .012V^2}{550} \right);$$

$C = 1 - 10^{-.00753f\alpha}$;

$V =$ velocity in feet per sec.

$f =$ coefficient of friction;

$\alpha =$ angle of contact in degrees;

$t =$ thickness in inches;

$V =$ velocity in feet per sec.

$S =$ stress upon belt per sq. in.

WIDTH OF BELT FOR A GIVEN HORSE-POWER. 879

Taking 8 at 275 lbs. per sq. in. for laced belts and 400 lbs. per sq. in. for lapped and riveted belts, the formula becomes

$$\text{H.P.} = CVtw(.50 - .0000218V^2) \text{ for laced belts;}$$

$$\text{H.P.} = CVtw(.727 - .0000218V^2) \text{ for riveted belts.}$$

$$\text{VALUES OF } C = 1 - 10^{-.00758fa}. \quad (\text{NAGLE.})$$

$f = \text{coeff. of friction}$	Degrees of contact = a .										
	90°	100°	110°	120°	130°	140°	150°	160°	170°	180°	200°
.15	.210	.230	.250	.270	.288	.307	.325	.342	.359	.376	.408
.20	.270	.295	.319	.342	.364	.386	.408	.438	.448	.467	.503
.25	.325	.354	.381	.407	.432	.457	.480	.503	.524	.544	.582
.30	.376	.408	.435	.467	.494	.520	.544	.567	.590	.610	.649
.35	.423	.457	.489	.520	.548	.575	.600	.624	.646	.667	.705
.40	.467	.502	.536	.567	.597	.624	.649	.673	.695	.715	.753
.45	.507	.544	.579	.610	.640	.667	.692	.715	.737	.757	.792
.50	.548	.587	.624	.654	.684	.713	.739	.763	.785	.805	.833
.55	.587	.629	.668	.701	.731	.759	.785	.813	.832	.848	.877
.60	.610	.654	.694	.728	.758	.785	.813	.832	.848	.864	.892
.65	.629	.674	.715	.750	.780	.807	.832	.853	.869	.885	.913
.70	.649	.695	.737	.773	.803	.829	.853	.873	.889	.905	.933
.75	.667	.714	.757	.794	.824	.850	.873	.892	.908	.924	.952
.80	.684	.732	.776	.813	.843	.869	.892	.911	.927	.943	.971
.85	.699	.748	.793	.830	.860	.886	.909	.928	.944	.960	.988
.90	.715	.764	.809	.846	.876	.902	.925	.944	.960	.976	1.004

The following table gives a comparison of the formulae already given for the case of a belt one inch wide, with arc of contact 180°.

Horse-power of a Belt One Inch wide, Arc of Contact 180°.
COMPARISON OF DIFFERENT FORMULÆ.

Velocity in ft. per sec.	Sq. ft. of Belt p. min.	Form. 1	Form. 2	Form. 3	Form. 4	Form. 5	Nagle's Form.	
		H.P. =	H.P. =	H.P. =	H.P. =	H.P. =	7/32" single belt	
		$\frac{wv}{550}$	$\frac{wv}{1100}$	$\frac{wv}{1000}$	$\frac{wv}{733}$	$\frac{wv}{513}$	Laced.	Riveted
600	50	1.09	.55	.60	.82	1.17	.73	1.14
1200	100	2.18	1.09	1.20	1.64	2.34	1.54	2.34
1800	150	3.27	1.64	1.80	2.46	3.51	2.25	3.31
2400	200	4.36	2.18	2.40	3.27	4.68	2.90	4.33
3000	250	5.45	2.73	3.00	4.09	5.85	3.48	5.26
3600	300	6.55	3.27	3.60	4.91	7.02	3.95	6.09
4200	350	7.63	3.82	4.20	5.73	8.19	4.29	6.78
4800	400	8.73	4.36	4.80	6.55	9.36	4.50	7.36
5400	450	9.82	4.91	5.40	7.37	10.53	4.55	7.74
6000	500	10.91	5.45	6.00	8.18	11.70	4.41	7.96
6600	550	4.05	7.97
7200	600	3.49	7.75

Width of Belt for a Given Horse-power.—The width of belt required for any given horse-power may be obtained by transposing the former horse-power so as to give the value of w . Thus:

$$\text{Formula (1), } w = \frac{550 \text{ H.P.}}{v} = \frac{9.17 \text{ H.P.}}{V} = \frac{2101 \text{ H.P.}}{d \times \text{rpm.}} = \frac{275 \text{ H.P.}}{L \times \text{rpm.}}$$

$$\text{Formula (2), } w = \frac{1100 \text{ H.P.}}{v} = \frac{18.33 \text{ H.P.}}{V} = \frac{4202 \text{ H.P.}}{d \times \text{rpm.}} = \frac{530 \text{ H.P.}}{L \times \text{rpm.}}$$

$$\text{Formula (3), } w = \frac{1000 \text{ H.P.}}{v} = \frac{16.67 \text{ H.P.}}{V} = \frac{3830 \text{ H.P.}}{d \times \text{rpm.}} = \frac{500 \text{ H.P.}}{L \times \text{rpm.}}$$

$$\text{Formula (4), } w = \frac{733 \text{ H.P.}}{v} = \frac{12.22 \text{ H.P.}}{V} = \frac{2800 \text{ H.P.}}{d \times \text{rpm.}} = \frac{360 \text{ H.P.}}{L \times \text{rpm.}}$$

$$\text{Formula (5), } w = \frac{513 \text{ H.P.}}{v} = \frac{8.56 \text{ H.P.}}{V} = \frac{1960 \text{ H.P.}}{d \times \text{rpm.}} = \frac{257 \text{ H.P.}}{L \times \text{rpm.}}$$

double belts.

Many authorities use formula (1) for double belts and formula (2) for single belts.

To obtain the width by Nagle's formula, $w = \frac{550 \text{ H.P.}}{CV(S - .012V^2)}$ or the given horse-power by the figure in the table corresponding to the thickness of belt and velocity in feet per second.

The formula to be used in any particular case is largely a matter of judgment. A single belt proportioned according to formula (1) if tightly stretched, and if the surface is in good condition, will transmit horse-power calculated by the formula, but one so proportioned is objectionable, first, because it requires so great an initial tension that it stretches, slips, and require frequent restretching and relacing; and second, because this tension will cause an undue pressure on the pulley and therefore an undue loss of power by friction. To avoid these difficulties formula (2), (3), or (4), or Mr. Nagle's table, should be used; the latter especially in cases in which the velocity exceeds 4000 ft. per min.

Taylor's Rules for Belting.—F. W. Taylor (Trans. A. S. M. E., xv. 304) describes a nine years' experiment on belting in a machine giving results of tests of 42 belts running night and day. Some of the belts were run on cone pulleys and others on shifting, or fast-and-loose leys. The average net working load on the shifting belts was only that of the cone belts.

The shifting belts varied in dimensions from 39 ft. 7 in. long, 3.5 in. wide, .25 in. thick, to 51 ft. 5 in. long, 6.5 in. wide, .37 in. thick. The cone belts varied in dimensions from 24 ft. 7 in. long, 2 in. wide, .35 in. thick, to 10 in. long, 4 in. wide, .37 in. thick.

Belt-clamps were used having spring-balances between the two clamps, so that the exact tension to which the belt was subjected accurately weighed when the belt was first put on, and each time tightened.

The tension under which each belt was spliced was carefully figured to place it under an initial strain—while the belt was at rest immediately after tightening—of 71 lbs. per inch of width of double belts. This is the result, in the case of

Oak tanned and fullled belts,	to 192 lbs. per sq. in. section.
Oak tanned, not fullled belts,	to 229 " " " " "
Semi-raw-hide belts,	to 253 " " " " "
Raw-hide belts,	to 284 " " " " "

From the nine years' experiment Mr. Taylor draws a number of conclusions, some of which are given in an abridged form below.

In using belting so as to obtain the greatest economy and the most satisfactory results, the following rules should be observed:

	Oak Tanned and Fullled Leather Belts.	Other Leathers and Rubber Belts.
A double belt, having an arc of contact of 180°, will give an effective pull on the face of a pulley per inch of width of belt of....	35 lbs.	30
Or, a different form of same rule:		
The number of sq. ft. of double Belt passing around a pulley per minute required to transmit one horse power is.....	80 sq. ft.	90
Or: The number of lineal feet of double-beltting 1 in. wide passing around a pulley per minute required to transmit one horse-power is.....	950 ft.	1100
Or: A double belt 6 in. wide, running 4000 to 5000 ft. per min., will transmit.....	30 H.P.	25

The terms "initial tension," "effective pull," etc., are those used by Mr. Taylor. When pulleys upon which belts are tightened are of different diameters, the terms "initial tension" and "effective pull" are under the same name. The terms "initial tension," "initial tension," or "tension which..."

the stress per in. of width, or sq. in. of section, to which one of the ends of the belt is tightened, when at rest. After the belts are in motion (transmitting power, the stress on the slack side, or strand, of the belt is less, while that on the tight side—or the side which does the pulling—is greater than when the belt was at rest. By the term "total stress" we mean the total stress per in. of width, or sq. in. of section, on the belt while in motion.

The difference between the stress on the tight side of the belt and its slack side in motion, represents the effective force or pull which is transmitted from one pulley to another. By the terms "working load," "net load," or "effective pull," we mean the difference in the tension on the tight and slack sides of the belt per in. of width, or sq. in. of section, in motion, or the net effective force that is transmitted from one pulley to another per in. of width or sq. in. of section.

The discovery of Messrs. Lewis and Bancroft (Trans. A. S. M. E., vii. 749)

shows that the "sum of the tension on both sides of the belt does not remain constant," upsets all previous theoretical belting formulae.

The belt speed for maximum economy should be from 4000 to 4500 ft. per

minute. The best distance from centre to centre of shafts is from 20 to 25 ft.

Pulleys work most satisfactorily when located on the slack side of about one quarter way from the driving-pulley.

Belts are more durable and work more satisfactorily made narrow and thick rather than wide and thin.

The most safe and advisable to use: a double belt on a pulley 12 in. diameter or larger; a triple belt on a pulley 20 in. diameter or larger; a quadruple belt on a pulley 30 in. diameter or larger.

As the belts increase in width they should also be made thicker.

The ends of the belt should be fastened together by splicing and cementing, or by lacing, wiring, or using hooks or clamps of any kind.

Splices should be used on triple and quadruple belts and when idlers are used. Stepped splice, coated with rubber and vulcanized in place, is best for all other belts.

For double belting the rule works well of making the splice for all belts 10 in. wide, 10 in. long; from 10 in. to 18 in. wide the splice should be 10 in. wide as the belt, 18 in. being the greatest length of splice required for double belting.

Belts should be cleaned and greased every five to six months.

Leather belts will last well when repeatedly tightened under a tension (when at rest) of 71 lbs. per in. of width, or 240 lbs. per sq. in. section. It is not possible to maintain this tension for any length of time, however.

Clamps having spring-balances between the two pairs of clamps are used for weighing the tension of the belt accurately each time it is tightened.

The cost, durability, cost of maintenance, etc., of belts proportioned

according to the ordinary rules of a total load of 111 lbs. per inch of width, corresponding to an effective pull of 65 lbs. per inch of width, and (B)

according to a more economical rule of a total load of 54 lbs., corresponding to an effective pull of 26 lbs. per inch of width, are found to be as follows:

It is impracticable to accurately weigh the tension of a belt in tightness. It is safe to shorten a double belt one half inch for every 10 ft. of length (A) and one inch for every 10 ft. for (B), if it requires tightening.

Leather belts, when treated with great care and run at night and day at moderate speed, should last for 7 years (A); 18 years (B).

The cost of all labor and materials used in the maintenance and repairs of belts, added to the cost of renewals as they give out, through a term of years, will amount on an average per year to 37% of the original cost of the belt (A); 14% or less (B).

When making the total expense of belting, and the manufacturing cost added to this account, by far the largest item is the time lost on the shafts while belts are being relaced and repaired.

The total stretch of leather belting exceeds 6% of the original length.

The stretch during the first six months of the life of belts is 2% of their original length (A); 1% (B).

The stretch of a belt will stretch 47/100 of 1% of its length before requiring to be relaced (A); 81/100 of 1% (B).

It is an important consideration in making up tables and rules for the cost of belting is how to secure the minimum of interruptions to the belt from this source.

The average double belt (A), when running night and day in a machine shop, will cause at least 26 interruptions to manufacture during its life of 18 months, or 14 interruptions per year, but with (B) interruptions to manufacture will be an average of ten for each belt than one in sixteen months.

The oak-tanned and felled belts showed themselves to be superior in all respects except the coefficient of friction to either the oak-tanned and felled or the semi-raw-hide, or raw-hide with tanned face.

Belts of any width can be successfully shifted backward and forward on tight and loose pulleys. Belts running between 5000 and 6000 ft. per min. and driving 300 H.P. are now being daily shifted on tight and loose pulleys to throw lines of shafting in and out of use.

The best form of belt-shifter for wide belts is a pair of rollers transmitting the width of belt, either of which can be pressed onto the flat surface of the belt on its slack side close to the driven pulley, the axis of the rollers making an angle of 75° with the centre line of the belt.

Remarks on Mr. Taylor's Rules. (Trans. A. S. M. E. 17, p. 10.)—The most notable feature in Mr. Taylor's paper is the great difference between his rules for proper proportioning of belts and those given by other writers. A very commonly used rule is, one horse-power may be transmitted by a single belt 1 in. wide running x ft. per min., substituting for x the values, according to the ideas of different engineers, ranging usually from 550 to 1100.

The practical mechanic of the old school is apt to swear by the figure 600 as being thoroughly reliable, while the modern engineer is more apt to use the figure 1000. Mr. Taylor, however, instead of using a figure from 600 to 1100 for a single belt, uses 950 to 1100 for double belts. If we assume that a double belt is twice as strong, or will carry twice as much power as a single belt, then he uses a figure at least twice as large as that used in modern practice, and would make the cost of belting for a given shop twice as large as if the belting were proportioned according to the most liberal of the customary rules.

This great difference is to some extent explained by the fact that the problem which Mr. Taylor undertakes to solve is quite a different one from that which is solved by the ordinary rules with their variations. The problem of the latter generally is, "How wide a belt must be used, or how narrow a belt may be used, to transmit a given horse-power?" Mr. Taylor's problem is: "How wide a belt must be used so that a given horse-power may be transmitted with the minimum cost for belt repairs, the longest life to the belt, and the smallest loss and inconvenience from stopping the machine while the belt is being tightened or repaired?"

The difference between the old practical mechanic's rule of a 1½-in. wide single belt, 600 ft. per min., transmits one horse-power, and the rule commonly used by engineers, in which 1000 is substituted for 600, is due to the belief of the engineers, not that a horse-power could not be transmitted by the belt proportioned by the older rule, but that such a proportion involved undue strain from overtightening to prevent slipping, which strain entailed too much journal friction, necessitated frequent tightening, and decreased the length of the life of the belt.

Mr. Taylor's rule substituting 1100 ft. per min. and doubling the belt is a further step, and a long one, in the same direction. Whether it will be taken in any case by engineers will depend upon whether they appreciate the extent of the losses due to slippage of belts slackened by use under overstrain, and the loss of time in tightening and repairing belts, to such a degree as to induce them to allow the first cost of the belts to be doubled in order to avoid these losses.

It should be noted that Mr. Taylor's experiments were made on rather narrow belts, used for transmitting power from shafting to machinery, and his conclusions may not be applicable to heavy and wide belts, such as engine fly-wheel belts.

MISCELLANEOUS NOTES ON BELTING.

Formulas are useful for proportioning belts and pulleys, but they furnish no means of estimating how much power a particular belt may be capable of transmitting at any given time, any more than the size of the engine's cylinder, or of the load it is actually drawing, or the known strength of a rope, or the weight of the load on the wagon. The only reliable measure of the power transmitted is some form of dynamometer.

is wide a partial vacuum is formed between the belt and the pulley, which tends to increase the tensions in the belt, and the resistance to slipping is to the disadvantage of permitting a greater power to be transmitted and of diminishing the strain on the shafting.

On the other hand, some writers claim that the belt tends to slip itself and the pulley, which tends to diminish the frictional or tractive force. On this theory some manufacturers put numerous holes to let the air escape.

Care of Belts.—Leather belts should be well polished and even loose steam and other moisture.

Belts of coarse, loose leather will do better service in wet or moist situations the finest and firmest leather (Hoyt & Co.)

Do not allow oil to drip upon the belts. It destroys the leather belting cannot safely stand above 110° of heat.

Strength of Belting.—The ultimate tensile strength does not generally enter as a factor in calculations of power.

The strength of the solid leather in belts is from 300 to 500 lbs. per square inch; at the lacings, even if well put together, only 150 to 200 lbs. per square inch. If riveted, the joint should have half the strength of the solid belt. The strain on the driving side is generally taken at no more than one sixth of the strength of the lacing, or from one eighth to one sixth of the strength of the solid belt. Dr. Hartig found that the tension in a lacing is from 30 to 53½ lbs. per square inch, averaging 273 lbs.

Adhesion Independent of Diameter. (Hoyt & Co.)

1. The adhesion of the belt to the pulley is the same in all degrees of contact, aggregate tension or weight belt, reference to width of belt or diameter of pulley.
2. A belt will slip just as readily on a pulley four feet in diameter as on a pulley two feet in diameter, provided the conditions of pulleys, the arc of contact, the tension, and the number of revolutions per minute are the same in both cases.
3. A belt of a given width, and making any given number of revolutions per minute, will transmit as much power running on pulleys four feet in diameter, provided the tension, and conditions of pulley faces are the same in both cases.
4. To obtain a greater amount of power from belt

and belts this belt would be designed for 332 H.P. By Mr. Taylor's be used to transmit only 123 H.P. may be taken as examples of what a belt may be made to do, and not be used as precedents in designing. It is not stated how was lost by the journal friction due to over-tightening of these

Beltings.—We advise, when the belt is pliable, and only dry and application of blood-warm tallow. This applied, and dried in by sun, will tend to keep the leather in good working condition. Tallow passes into the tallow of the leather, serving to soften and earline is left on the outside, to fill the pores and leave a smooth addition of resin to the tallow for belts, if used in wet or damp of service and help preserve their strength. Belts which have and dry should have an application of neat's-foot or liver oil, a small quantity of resin. This prevents the oil from injuring the belts to preserve it. There should not be so much resin as to leave dry. (J. B. Hoyt & Company.)

Belts should not be soaked in water before oiling, and penetrating oils seldom be used, except occasionally when a belt gets very dry or from neglect. It may then be moistened a little, and have neat's-foot. Frequent applications of such oils to a new belt render the belt and flabby, thus causing it to stretch, and making it liable to slip. A composition of tallow and oil, with a little resin or beeswax, is better to use. Prepared castor-oil dressing is good, and may be used with a brush or rag while the belt is running. (Alexander Bros.)

For Cloth or Leather. (Molesworth).—16 parts gutta-serena, 2 pitch, 1 sheilac, 2 linseed-oil, cut small, melted together and well mixed.

Belting.—The advantages claimed for rubber belting are its elasticity in width and thickness; it will endure a great degree of strain without injury; it is also specially adapted for use in damp or where exposed to the action of steam; it is very durable, and of great tensile strength, and when adjusted for service it has the most perfect grip on the pulleys, hence is less liable to slip than leather.

Do not use animal oil or grease on rubber belts, as it will greatly injure and shorten their life.

Belts will be improved, and their durability increased, by putting a fine coat of primer's brush, and letting it dry, a composition made of equal parts of red lead, black lead, French yellow, and litharge, mixed with boiled linseed-oil and japan enough to make it dry quickly. The effect of this will be to give a finely polished surface. If, from dust or other cause, the belt slips, it should be lightly moistened on the side next the pulley with linseed-oil. (From circulars of manufacturers.)

GEARING.

TOOTHED-WHEEL GEARING.

Pitch-circle, etc.—If two cylinders with parallel axes are brought together and one of them is rotated on its axis, it will drive the other by the friction between the surfaces. The cylinders may be considered as a pair of spur-wheels with an infinite number of very small teeth. If the teeth are formed upon the cylinders, making alternate elevations and depressions in the cylindrical surfaces, the distance between the axes being the same, we have a pair of gear-wheels which will drive one another. The pressure upon the faces of the teeth, if the teeth are properly formed, making the teeth the cylindrical surface may entirely disappear. The position it occupied may still be considered as a cylindrical surface. This surface is called the "pitch-surface," and its trace on the end of the wheel in a plane cutting the wheel at right angles to its axis, is called the "pitch-circle" or "pitch-line." The diameter of this circle is called the "pitch-diameter," and the distance from the face of one tooth to the corresponding face of the next tooth on the same wheel, measured on an arc of the pitch-circle, is called the "pitch of the tooth," or the circular pitch. If two wheels having teeth of the same pitch are geared together so that their teeth touch, it is a property of the pitch-circles that their diameters are proportional to the number of teeth in the wheels, and vice versa.

Chordal pitch = diam. of pitch-circle \times sine of $\frac{180^\circ}{\text{No. of teeth}}$ (The pitch of a wheel of 10 in. pitch diameter and 10 teeth, $10 \times \sin 2^\circ = 3.416$ in. Circular pitch of same wheel = 3.1416. Chordal pitch is used with spur sprocket wheels, to conform to the pitch of the chain.)

Formulae for Determining the Dimensions of Small Gears
(Brown & Sharpe Mfg. Co.)

P = diametral pitch, or the number of teeth to one inch of diameter of pitch-circle;

D = diameter of pitch circle.....	Larger Wheel.	These wheels mesh together.
D = whole diameter.....		
N = number of teeth.....		
V = velocity.....	Smaller Wheel.	
d = diameter of pitch-circle.....		
d = whole diameter.....		
n = number of teeth.....		
v = velocity.....		

a = distance between the centres of the two wheels;

b = number of teeth in both wheels;

t = thickness of tooth or cutter on pitch-circle;

s = addendum;

D' = working depth of tooth;

f = amount added to depth of tooth for rounding the corners and clearance;

$D' + f$ = whole depth of tooth;

$\pi = 3.1416$.

P' = circular pitch, or the distance from the centre of one tooth to the centre of the next measured on the pitch-circle.

Formulae for a single wheel:

$$P = \frac{N+2}{D}; \quad D' = \frac{D \times N}{N+2}; \quad D'' = \frac{2}{P} = 2s; \quad s = \frac{1}{P} = \frac{P'}{\pi} = .3183P'$$

$$P = \frac{N}{D'}; \quad D' = \frac{N}{P}; \quad \frac{N - PD'}{N} = PD - 2; \quad s = \frac{D'}{N} = \frac{D}{N+2};$$

$$P = \frac{\pi}{P'}; \quad D = \frac{N+2}{P}; \quad f = \frac{t}{10}; \quad s + f = \frac{1}{P} \left(1 + \frac{\pi}{20} \right) = .32$$

$$P = \frac{\pi}{P'}; \quad D = D' + \frac{2}{P}; \quad t = \frac{1.57}{P} = \frac{1}{2}P'$$

Formulae for a pair of wheels:

$$b = 2aP; \quad n = \frac{PD'V}{v}; \quad D = \frac{2a(N+2)}{b};$$

$$N = \frac{nv}{V}; \quad v = \frac{PD'V'}{n}; \quad d = \frac{2a(n+2)}{b};$$

$$n = \frac{NV}{v}; \quad v = \frac{NV'}{n}; \quad a = \frac{b}{2P};$$

$$N = \frac{bv}{v+V}; \quad V = \frac{nv}{N}; \quad a = \frac{D'+d'}{2};$$

$$n = \frac{bV}{v+V}; \quad D' = \frac{2aV}{v+V}; \quad d' = \frac{2aV'}{v+V'}$$

The following proportions of gear wheels are recommended by the American Society of Mechanical Engineers (Sterns Indicator, April, 1892.)

Proportions of Gear-wheels.

Circular Pitch.	Outside of Pitch-line. $P \times .3$	Inside of Pitch-line.		Width of Space.	
		For Cast or Cut Bevels or for Cast Spurs. $P \times .4$	For Cut Spurs. $P \times .35$	For Cast Spurs or Bevels. $P \times .325$	For Cut Bevels or Spurs. $P \times .31$
$\frac{1}{4}$.075	.100	.088	.131	.128
.2618	.079	.105	.092	.137	.134
.31416	.094	.126	.11	.165	.16
$\frac{3}{8}$.113	.150	.131	.197	.191
.3627	.118	.157	.137	.206	.2
.4477	.134	.179	.157	.235	.228
$\frac{1}{2}$.15	.20	.175	.263	.255
.5226	.167	.209	.183	.275	.267
$\frac{9}{16}$.169	.225	.197	.295	.287
$\frac{5}{8}$.188	.25	.219	.328	.319
.6282	.188	.251	.22	.33	.32
$\frac{3}{4}$.225	.3	.263	.394	.383
.7854	.236	.314	.275	.412	.401
$\frac{7}{8}$.263	.35	.307	.459	.446
1	.3	.4	.35	.525	.51
1.0472	.314	.419	.364	.55	.534
$1\frac{1}{8}$.338	.45	.394	.591	.574
1.1434	.343	.457	.40	.6	.583
$1\frac{1}{4}$.375	.5	.438	.656	.638
1.25664	.377	.503	.44	.66	.641
$1\frac{3}{8}$.413	.55	.481	.722	.701
$1\frac{1}{2}$.45	.6	.525	.78	.765
1.3708	.471	.628	.55	.825	.801
$1\frac{3}{4}$.525	.7	.613	.919	.893
2	.6	.8	.7	1.05	1.02
2.0944	.628	.838	.733	1.1	1.068
$2\frac{1}{4}$.675	.9	.788	1.101	1.148
$2\frac{1}{2}$.75	1.0	.875	1.313	1.275
$2\frac{3}{4}$.825	1.1	.93	1.442	1.403
3	.9	1.2	1.05	1.575	1.53
3.1416	.942	1.257	1.1	1.649	1.602
$3\frac{1}{4}$.975	1.3	1.138	1.706	1.657
$3\frac{1}{2}$	1.05	1.4	1.225	1.838	1.785

Thickness of rim below root = depth of tooth.

Width of Teeth.—The width of the faces of teeth is generally made 2 to 3 times the circular pitch:—from 6.28 to 9.42 divided by the diam-pitch. There is no standard rule for width.

The following sizes are given in a stock list of cut gears in "Grant's S—"

Circular pitch.... 3 4 6 8 12 16
inches.... 3 and 4 $2\frac{3}{8}$ $1\frac{3}{4}$ and 2 $1\frac{1}{4}$ and $1\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{3}{4}$ and 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ and $\frac{3}{8}$

Walker Mfg. Co. give:

Diam pitch, in... $\frac{1}{8}$ $\frac{5}{8}$ $\frac{3}{4}$ $\frac{7}{8}$ 1 $1\frac{1}{8}$ 2 $2\frac{1}{8}$ 3 4 5 6
in..... $1\frac{1}{4}$ $1\frac{1}{2}$ $1\frac{3}{4}$ 2 $2\frac{1}{2}$ $4\frac{1}{2}$ 6 $7\frac{1}{2}$ 9 12 16 20

Rules for Calculating the Speed of Gears and Pulleys.—

Relations of the size and speed of driving and driven gear wheels are the same as those of belt pulleys. In calculating for gears, multiply or divide by the diameter of the pitch-circle or by the number of teeth, as may be required. In calculating for pulleys, multiply or divide by their diameter in inches.

D = diam. of driving wheel, d = diam. of driven, R = revolutions per minute of driver, r = revs. per min. of driven.

$R = rd + D$; $r = RD + d$; $D = dr + R$; $d = DR + r$.
Number of teeth of driver = d ; n = number of teeth of driven,
 $N = nr + R$; $n = NR + r$; $R = rn + N$; $r = RN + n$.

The rack in the cycloidal system is equivalent to a wheel with an infinite number of teeth. The pitch is equal to the circular pitch of the gear. Both faces and flanks are cycloids formed by rolling the generating circle of the mating gear-wheel on each side of the straight pitch-line of the rack.

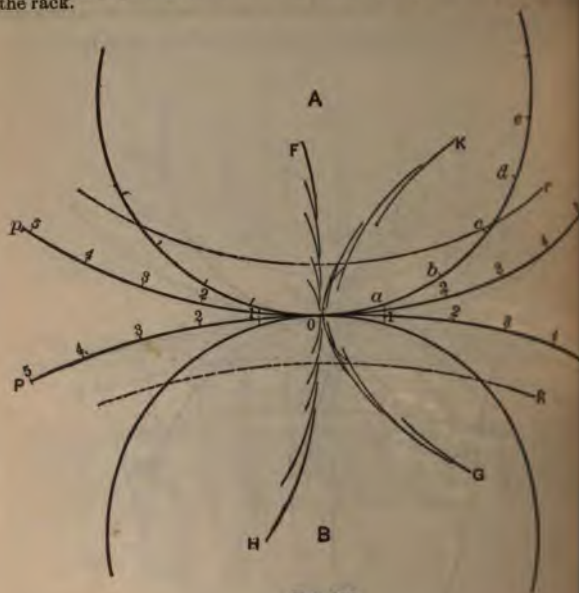


FIG. 155.

Another method of drawing the cycloidal curves is shown in Fig. 155. It is known as the method of tangent arcs. The generating circles, as they are drawn with equal radii, the length of the radius being less than the radius of pl , the smaller pitch-circle. Equal divisions 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 are marked off on the pitch-circles and divisions of the same length are marked on one of the generating-circles, as $oabc$, etc. From the points 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, the line po , with radii successively equal to the chord distances oa , ob , oc , etc., draw the five small arcs F . A line drawn through the centers of these small arcs, tangent to them all, will be the hypocyloidal curve H , flank of a tooth below the pitch-line pl . From the points 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, etc., on the line ol , with radii as before, draw the small arcs G . A line tangent to these arcs will be the epicycloid for the face of the same tooth for which the curve has already been drawn. In the same way, from centres on the line po , and ol , with the same radii, the tangent arcs H and K may be drawn which will give the tooth for the gear whose pitch-circle is PL .

If the generating-circle had a radius just one half of the radius of the pitch-circle PL , the hypocyloidal curve would be a straight line, and the flank of the tooth would have been radial.

The Involute Tooth.—In drawing the involute tooth curve, the angle of obliquity, or the angle which a common tangent to the teeth makes when they are in contact at the pitch-point, makes with a line joining the centers of the wheels, is first arbitrarily determined. It is customary to take the angle of obliquity as $14\frac{1}{2}^\circ$. The pitch-lines pl and PL being drawn in contact at O , the line AB is drawn through O normal to a common tangent to the pitch-circles at the angle of obliquity to a common tangent to the pitch-circles.

angle is 20° . From the centres of the pitch-circles draw circles *c* tangent to the line *AB*. These circles are called base-lines or base-circles, which the involutes *F* and *K* are drawn. By laying off conveniences 0, 1, 2, 3, which should each be less than $1/10$ of the diameter circle, small arcs can be drawn with successively increasing radii will form the involute. The involute extends from the points *F*

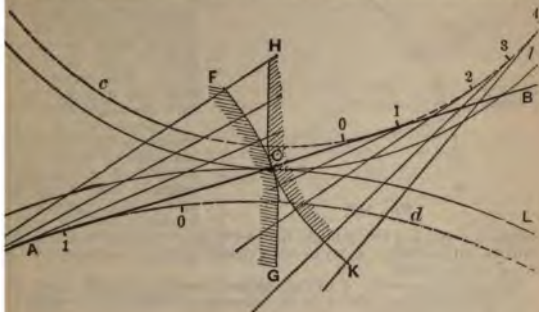


FIG. 156.

to their respective base-circles, where a tangent to the involute is a radius of the circle, and the remainders of the tooth curves, are radial straight lines.

In the involute system the customary standard form of tooth is one of an angle of obliquity of 15° (Brown and Sharpe use $14\frac{1}{2}^\circ$), an addendum of one third the circular pitch, and a clearance of about one percent addendum. In this system the smallest gear of a set has 12 teeth, being the smallest number of teeth that will gear together when this angle of obliquity. In gears with less than 30 teeth the teeth must be slightly rounded over to avoid interference (see *Form of Gears*). All involute teeth of the same pitch and with the same angle of obliquity work smoothly together. The rack to gear with an involute wheel has straight faces on its teeth, which make an angle of obliquity equal to the angle of obliquity, or in the case of bevel gears the faces are inclined at an angle of 30° with each other. The pitch-line of a rack which is to gear with an involute wheel (Fig. 157) is the pitch-line of the rack and $AI = H'I' =$ the pitch. Through

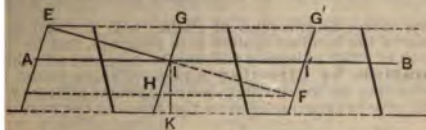


FIG. 157.

point *I* draw *EF* at the given angle of obliquity. Draw *AE* and *EG* tangential to *EF*. Through *E* and *F* draw lines *EGG'* and *FHH'* perpendicular to the pitch-line. *EGG'* will be the addendum-line and *FHH'* the flank-line. Draw *IK* perpendicular to *AB* equal to the greatest addendum of the wheel of the given pitch and obliquity plus an allowance equal to $\frac{1}{2}$ of the addendum. Through *K*, parallel to *AB*, draw a line. The fronts of the teeth are planes perpendicular to *EF* and the backs are planes inclined at the same angle to *AB* in the convex direction. The outer half of the working face *AE* may be slightly convex if a circular arc drawn from a centre on the pitch-

completing the drawing and the pattern of the gear-wheels. The curve is connected to the clearance by a fillet, which should be possible to give increased strength to the tooth, provided it is not high to cause interference.

It gives the following method of construction by circular arcs; a radial line at the edge of the tooth on the pitch-line, lay off the angle of 75° with the radial line; on this line will be the centres of the circles AB and the point EF . The lines struck from these centres will be the thick lines. Circles drawn through centres thus found will be the remaining centres will be. The radius DA for the circle through A and D is = pitch + the thickness of the tooth. The radius DF for the circle through F and D is = the pitch.

B. Grant says: It is sometimes attempted to construct the curve by empirical rule, but such methods are generally

Stepped Gears.—Two gears of the same pitch and diameter mounted on the same shaft will act as a single gear. If one gear is keyed so that the teeth of the two wheels are not in line, but the second wheel slightly in advance of the other, the two gears form a single gear. If mated with a similar stepped gear on a parallel shaft the teeth in contact will be twice as great as in an ordinary gear, and will increase the strength of the gear and its smoothness of action.

Double Teeth.—If a great number of very thin gears were placed on one shaft slightly in advance of the other, they would still act as a single gear.

Continuing the subdivision until the teeth of each separate gear is infinitesimal, the teeth instead of being in steps take the form of a spiral or twisted surface, and we have a double helical tooth. The twist may take any shape, and if it is a right-hand twist for half the width of the gear and in the opposite direction for the other half, we have what is called a herring-bone or double helical tooth. The teeth of the twisted tooth if twisted in one direction will exert a thrust on the shaft, but if the herring-bone twist is used, the opposite obliquities neutralize each other.

This form of tooth is much used in heavy machinery practice, where great strength and resistance to wear are necessary. They are frequently made of cast iron (Fig. 160). The angle of the tooth with a radial line to the axis of the gear is usually 30° .

Spiral Gears.—If a twisted gear has a uniform twist it becomes a spiral gear. The line in which the pitch-surface intersects the face of the gear is a part of a helix drawn on the pitch-surface. A spiral wheel may be made with only one helical tooth wrapped around the cylinder several times which it becomes a screw or worm. If it has two or three teeth on it, it is a double- or triple-threaded screw or worm. A spiral-gear rack is used to drive the table of some forms of planing-

Bevel-gearing.—When the axes of two spiral gears are at right angles to each other, a wheel of one, two, or three threads works with a larger wheel of one, two, or three threads, it becomes a worm-gear, or endless screw, the smaller



FIG. 160.

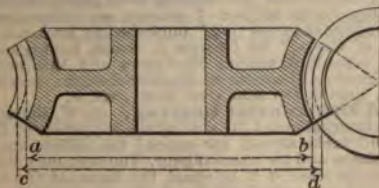


FIG. 161.

being called the worm, and the larger, or driven wheel. With this arrangement a high velocity ratio may be obtained with a pair of wheels. For a one-threaded wheel the velocity

the number of teeth in the worm-wheel. The worm and wheel must be constructed that the worm will drive the wheel, but the wheel will not drive the worm.

To find the diameter of a worm-wheel at the throat, number of teeth, and pitch of the worm being given: Add 2 to the number of teeth, and multiply by 0.3183, and by the pitch of the worm in inches.

To find the number of teeth, diameter at throat and pitch of worm being given: Divide 3.1416 times the diameter by the pitch, and subtract the quotient.

In Fig. 161 ab is the diam. of the pitch-circle, cd is the diam. at the throat. EXAMPLE.—Pitch of worm $\frac{1}{4}$ in., number of teeth 70, required diameter at the throat. $(70 + 2) \times .3183 \times .25 = 5.73$ in.

Teeth of Bevel-wheels. (Rankine's Machinery and Milling.) The teeth of a bevel-wheel have acting surfaces of the conical surface, generated by the motion of a line traversing the apex of the conical surface, while a point in it is carried round the traces of the teeth on the spherical surface described about that apex.

The operations of drawing the traces of the teeth of bevel-wheels, whether by involutes or by rolling curves, are in every respect analogous to those for drawing the traces of the teeth of spur-wheels; except that in the case of bevel-wheels all those operations are to be performed on the surface of a sphere described about the apex, instead of on a plane, with poles for centres and great circles for straight lines.

In consideration of the practical difficulty, especially in the case of bevel-wheels, of obtaining an accurate spherical surface, and of drawing the traces of the teeth when obtained, the following approximate method, proposed by Tredgold, is generally used:

Let O , Fig. 162, be the common apex of the pitch-cones, ORI a pair of bevel-wheels; OC, OC' , the axes of those cones; OI their line of contact. Perpendicular to OI draw AIA' , cutting the axes in A and A' , making the outer rims of the wheels portions of the cones $ABI, A'B'I$, of which the zones occupied by the teeth may be sufficiently near for practical purposes to a spherical surface described about O . As the cones are cut the pitch-cones at right angles, the outer pitch-circles IB, IB' may be called the normal circles. To find the traces of the teeth on the normal cones, draw on a flat surface circular arcs, ID, ID' , with centres A, A' ; those arcs will be the developments of arcs of the circles IB, IB' when the cones

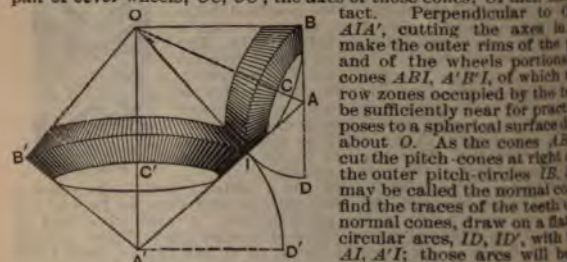


FIG. 162.

faces $ABI, A'B'I$ are spread out flat. Describe the traces of teeth on the normal cones, so as to make them coincide with the pitch-circle trace the teeth on the conical surfaces.

For formulae and instructions for designing bevel-gears, and for more valuable information on the subject of gearing, see "Practical Tooth Gearing," and "Formulas in Gearing," published by Brown & Shreve Co.; and "Teeth of Gears," by George B. Grant, Lexington, Mass. The student may also consult Rankine's Machinery and Millwork, B. 1, and Unwin's Elements of Machine Design. See also Gearing, by C. W. MacCord in App. Cyc. Mech., vol. ii.

Annular and Differential Gearing. (S. W. Baile, Aug. 24, 1893.)—In internal gears the sum of the diameters of the pitch-circles for faces and flanks should not exceed the difference in the diameters of the pinion and its internal gear. The sum may be equal to the difference or it may be less; if it is equal, the faces of the two wheels will drive the faces as well as the flanks of the teeth of the wheel. The teeth will therefore make contact with each other at the same time.

Cycloidal tooth-curves for interchangeable gears are formed by the rolling circles of about $\frac{1}{4}$ the pitch diameter of the smallest gear to admit two such circles between the pitch-circles of the pinion

number of teeth in the internal gear should exceed the number in the external gear by 12 or more, if the teeth are of the customary proportions and used in interchangeable gearing.

A smaller difference is desirable, and the teeth may be modified in order to make this possible.

The tooth curves resulting from smaller describing circles may be used. These will give teeth which are more rounding and narrower at the tips and therefore not as desirable as the regular forms.

The tips of the teeth may be rounded until they clear. This is a method which aims at modifying the teeth to such outlines as if they were on ribbing circles would give.

Some of the describing circles may be omitted and one only used. This will be equal to the difference between the pitch-circles. This will give a method of meshing of gears differing by six teeth. It will usually prove to be a method to put wheels in inside gears that differ by much less than 12 teeth.

The diametral pitch and standard tooth forms are determined on the basis of the pitch to which the internal gear-blank is to be bored is calculated by dividing the number of teeth, and dividing the remainder by the diametral pitch.

The outlines are the match of a spur-gear of the same number of teeth and diametral pitch, so that the spur-gear will fit the internal gear as if it were a die, except that the teeth of each should fall to bottom in the spaces of the other by the customary clearance of one tenth the diametral pitch of the teeth.

Bevel-gearing is particularly valuable when employed in differential motion. It is a mechanical movement in which one of the wheels is mounted on a crank so that its centre can move in a circle about the centre of the other wheel. Means are added to the device which restrain the wheel from turning over and confine it to the revolution of the crank. The ratio of the number of teeth in the revolving wheel compared with the number of teeth in the other will represent the ratio between the revolutions of the crank-shaft by which the other is carried. The advantage of bevel-gearing in the change of speed with such an arrangement, as compared with ordinary spur-gearing, lies in the almost entire absence of consequent wear of the teeth.

The limitation that the difference between the wheels must not be less than 12 teeth, so that the possible ratio of speed might be increased almost indefinitely. The solution of the problem is properly worked out with bevel-gears this limitation is completely set aside, and external and internal bevel-gears, but a single tooth if need be, made to mesh perfectly with each other.

Internal bevel-gears have been used with advantage in mowing-machine gears. A description of their construction and operation is given by Mr. Lewis in the article from which the above extracts are taken.

EFFICIENCY OF GEARING.

A series of experiments on the efficiency of gearing, chiefly on spiral gearing, is described by Wilfred Lewis in Trans. A. S. M. E., Vol. 18, p. 100. The average results are shown in a diagram, from which the following approximate average figures are taken:

EFFICIENCY OF SPUR, SPIRAL, AND WORM GEARING.

Gearing.	Pitch.	Velocity at Pitch line in feet per min.				
		3	10	40	100	200
.....		.90	.935	.97	.98	.985
.....	45°	.81	.87	.93	.955	.965
.....	30	.75	.815	.89	.93	.945
.....	20	.67	.75	.845	.90	.92
.....	15	.61	.70	.805	.87	.90
.....	10	.51	.615	.74	.82	.88
.....	7	.43	.53	.72	.765	.81
.....	5	.34	.43	.60	.70	.75

The values of s in the above table are given by Mr. Lewis tentatively, in the absence of sufficient data upon which to base more definite values, but they have been found to give satisfactory results in practice.

Mr. Lewis gives the following example to illustrate the use of the table. Let it be required to find the working strength of a 12-toothed pinion of 1-inch pitch, $2\frac{1}{2}$ -inch face, driving a wheel of 60 teeth at 100 feet or less of line per minute, and let the teeth be of the 20-degree involute form.



FIG. 163.

In the formula $W = spfy$ we have for a cast-iron pinion $s = 8000$, $pf = 2.5$, and $y = .078$; and multiplying these values together, we have $W = 1560$ pounds. For the wheel we have $y = .134$ and $W = 2680$ pounds.

The cast-iron pinion is, therefore, the measure of strength; but if a steel pinion be substituted we have $s = 30,000$ and $W = 3900$ pounds, in which case the wheel is the weaker, and it therefore becomes the measure of strength.

For bevel-wheels Mr. Lewis gives the following, referring to Fig. 106: D = large diameter of bevel; d = small diameter of bevel; p = pitch at large diameter; n = actual number of teeth; f = face of bevel; N = formative number of teeth = $n \times \sec \alpha$, or the sum corresponding to radius R ; y = factor depending upon shape of tooth and formative number N ; W = working load on teeth.

$$W = spfy \frac{D^3 - d^3}{3D^2(D - d)}; \text{ or, more simply, } W = spfy \frac{d}{D}$$

which gives almost identical results when d is not less than $\frac{3}{4} D$, as in case in good practice.

In *Am. Mach.*, June 22, 1893, Mr. Lewis gives the following formula for the working strength of the three systems of gearing, which agree closely with those obtained by use of the table:

$$\text{For involute, } 20^\circ \text{ obliquity, } W = spf \left(.154 - \frac{.912}{n} \right);$$

$$\text{For involute } 15^\circ, \text{ and cycloidal, } W = spf \left(.124 - \frac{.684}{n} \right);$$

$$\text{For radial flank system, } W = spf \left(.075 - \frac{.276}{n} \right);$$

in which the factor within the parenthesis corresponds to y in the formula. For the horse-power transmitted, Mr. Lewis's general

$W = spfy = \frac{33,000 \text{ H.P.}}{v}$, may take the form $\text{H.P.} = \frac{spfyo}{33,000}$ in which v = velocity in feet per minute; or since $v = d\pi \times \text{rpm.} + 12 = .2618d \times \text{rpm.}$ which d = diameter in inches and rpm. = revolutions per minute,

$$\text{H.P.} = \frac{Wv}{33,000} = \frac{spfyo \times d \times \text{rpm.}}{126,050} = .00007933dspfyo \times \text{rpm.}$$

It must be borne in mind, however, that in the case of machines which consume power intermittently, such as punching and shearing in the gear, the gearing should be designed with reference to the maximum power which can be brought upon the teeth at any time, and not upon the average power transmitted.

Comparison of the Harkness and Lewis Formulas. Take an average case in which the safe working strength of the steel is $s = 6000$, $v = 200$ ft. per min., and $y = .100$, the value in Mr. Lewis's for an involute tooth of 15° obliquity, or a cycloidal tooth, the number of teeth in the wheel being 27.

$$\text{H.P.} = \frac{spfyo}{33,000} = \frac{6000pfy \times .100}{33,000} = \frac{pfy}{55} = 1.36pfV,$$

if V is taken in feet per second.

$$\text{Prof. Harkness gives H.P.} = \frac{0.910Vpf}{\sqrt{1 + 0.65V}} \quad \text{if the } V \text{ is in the } \dots$$

n at 200 + 60 = 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ feet per second, $\sqrt{1 + 0.65V} = \sqrt{3.167} = 1.78$,
 $P. = \frac{.910}{1.78} Vpf = .571pfV$, or about 52% of the result given by Mr. Lewis's

a. This is probably as close an agreement as can be expected, since Harkness derived his formula from an investigation of ancient precedent and rule-of-thumb practice, largely with common cast gears, while Lewis's formula was derived from considerations of modern practice machine moulded and cut gears.

Lewis takes into consideration the reduction in working strength of a tooth to increase in velocity by the figures in his table of the values of working stress s for different speeds. Prof. Harkness gives expressing the same reduction by means of the denominator of his formula,

$0.65V$. The decrease in strength as computed by this formula is less than that given in Mr. Lewis's table, and as the figures given in his table are not based on accurate data, a mean between the values given by his formula and the table is probably as near to the true value as may be ascertained from our present knowledge. The following table gives the working stress s , for cast-iron 8000, and for steel 20,000 lbs. at speeds of 100 ft. per minute and less:

Speed of teeth, ft. per min.	100	200	300	600	900	1200	1800	2400
" " ft. per sec..	1%	3 $\frac{1}{2}$ %	5	10	15	20	30	40
Working stress s , cast-iron, Lewis's table	8000	6000	4800	4000	3000	2400	2000	1700
do. s + 8000	1	.75	.6	.5	.375	.3	.25	.2125
$\sqrt{1 + 0.65V}$.6930	.5621	.4850	.3650	.3050	.2672	.2208	.1924
val. $c + .693$	1	.811	.700	.526	.439	.385	.318	.277
$100 \times (c + .693)$	8000	6488	5600	4208	3512	3080	2544	2216
Working stress s_1 , cast-iron = s_2	8000	6200	5200	4100	3300	2700	2300	2000
" " for steel = s_2	20000	15500	13000	10300	8100	6800	5700	4900
Working stress for steel, Lewis's table	20000	15000	12000	10000	7500	6000	5000	4300

Comparing the two formulæ for the case of $s = 8000$, corresponding to a speed of 100 ft. per min., we have

$$\text{H.P.} = 1 + \sqrt{1 + 0.65V} \times .910Vpf = .693 \times .91 \times 1\frac{1}{2}pf = 1.051pf'$$

$$\text{H.P.} = \frac{spf v}{33,000} = \frac{spf y V}{550} = \frac{8000 \times 1\frac{1}{2}pf y}{550} = 24.24pf y.$$

where y varies according to the shape and number of the teeth.

Radial-flank gear with 12 teeth $y = .052$; $24.24pf y = 1.260pf$;
 20° involute, 19 teeth, or 15° inv., 27 teeth $y = .100$; $24.24pf y = 2.424pf$;
 5° involute, 300 teeth $y = .150$; $24.24pf y = 3.636pf$.

The weakest-shaped tooth, according to Mr. Lewis, will transmit 20% more horse-power than is given by Prof. Harkness's formula, inasmuch as the shape of the tooth is not considered, and the average-shaped tooth, according to Mr. Lewis, will transmit more than double the horse-power given by Prof. Harkness's formula.

Comparison of Other Formulæ.—Mr. Cooper, in summing up his own experience, selected an old English rule, which Mr. Lewis considers as probably correct expression of good general averages, viz.: $X = 2000pf$, where X is the breaking load of tooth in pounds, $p =$ pitch, $f =$ face. If a factor of safety of 10 be taken, this would give for safe working load $W = 200pf$. Mr. B. Grant, in his *Teeth of Gears*, page 33, takes the breaking load of tooth, and, with a factor of safety of 10, gives $W = 350pf$. Mr. Halsey's *Pocket-Book*, 20th ed., 1891, says: "The strength and durability of iron teeth require that they shall transmit a force of 80 lbs. per inch of face and per inch breadth of face." This is equivalent to $W = 80pf$, or 8% of that given by the English rule.

Mr. Halsey (*Clark's Pocket Book*) gives a table calculated from the following formulæ:
 $\text{H.P.} = pfd \times \text{rpm.} \div 850$.
 Mr. Laughlin gives $\text{H.P.} = pfd \times \text{rpm.} \div 550$.
 Mr. Halsey's formulæ transformed give $W = 128pf$ and $W = 218pf$, respec-

Unwin, on the assumption that the load acts on the corners of the teeth, derives a formula $p = K \sqrt{W}$, in which K is a coefficient derived from testing wheels, its values being: for slowly moving gearing not subject to much vibration or shock $K = .04$; in ordinary mill-gearing, running at greater speed and subject to considerable vibration, $K = .05$; and in wheels subjected to excessive vibration and shock, and in mortise gearing, $K = .06$. Reduced to the form $W = Cpf$, assuming that $f = 2p$, these values of K give $W = 262pf$, $300pf$, and $139pf$, respectively.

Unwin also gives the following formula, based on the assumption that the pressure is distributed along the edge of the tooth: $p = K_1 \sqrt{\frac{F}{f}}$, where $K_1 =$ about .0707 for iron wheels and .0848 for mortise wheels, if the breadth of face is not less than twice the pitch. For the case of $f = 2p$, and the given values of K_1 , this reduces to $W = 300pf$ and $W = 139pf$, respectively.

Box, in his Treatise on Mill Gearing, gives H.P. = $\frac{12p^2f \sqrt{dn}}{1000}$, in which $n =$ number of revolutions per minute. This formula differs from the modern formulæ in making the H.P. vary as p^2f , instead of as pf , and in this respect it is no doubt incorrect.

Making the H.P. vary as \sqrt{dn} or as \sqrt{v} , instead of directly as v , and taking the velocity a factor of the working strength as in the Harkness and Lewis formulæ, the relative strength varying as $\frac{\sqrt{v}}{v}$, or as $\frac{1}{\sqrt{v}}$, which for different velocities is as follows:

Speed of teeth in ft. per min.,	$v = 100$	200	300	600	900	1200	1800
Relative strength	$= 1$.707	.574	.408	.333	.289	.231

Showing a somewhat more rapid reduction than is given by Mr. Lewis. For the purpose of comparing different formulæ they may in general be reduced to either of the following forms:

$$\text{H.P.} = Cpfv, \quad \text{H.P.} = C_1pf d \times \text{rpm.}, \quad W = c_1f^2$$

in which $p =$ pitch, $f =$ face, $d =$ diameter, all in inches; $v =$ velocity in feet per minute, rpm. revolutions per minute, and C , C_1 and c coefficients for transformation are as follows:

$$\text{H.P.} = \frac{Wv}{33000} = \frac{W \times d \times \text{rpm.}}{126,050};$$

$$W = \frac{33,000 \text{ H.P.}}{v} = \frac{126,050 \text{ H.P.}}{d \times \text{rpm.}} = 33,000Cpf; \quad pf = \frac{\text{H.P.}}{Cv} = \frac{\text{H.P.}}{C_1d \times \text{rpm.}}$$

$$C_1 = .2618C; \quad c = 33,000C; \quad C = 3.82C_1, \quad c = \frac{c}{33,000}; \quad c = 126,050C$$

In the Lewis formula C varies with the form of the tooth and with the speed, and is equal to $sy + 33,000$, in which y and s are the values taken from the table, and $c = sy$.

In the Harkness formula C varies with the speed and is equal to $\frac{.01517}{\sqrt{v}}$ (v being in feet per second), $= \frac{.01517}{\sqrt{1 + .011v}}$.

In the Box formula C varies with the pitch and also with the velocity, and equals $\frac{12p \sqrt{d} \times \text{rpm.}}{1000v} = .32345 \frac{p}{\sqrt{v}}$, $c = 33,000C = 774 \frac{p}{\sqrt{v}}$.

For $v = 100$ ft. per min. $C = 77.4p$; for $v = 600$ ft. per min. $C = 77.4p \sqrt{6}$. In the other formulæ considered C , C_1 , and c are constants. In reducing the several formulæ to the form $W = cpf$, we have the following

COMPARISON OF DIFFERENT FORMULÆ FOR STRENGTH OF GEAR-TEETH.

Let p = working pressure per inch pitch and per inch of face, or value of c in $W = cpf$:

	$v = 100$ ft. per min.	$v = 600$ ft. per min.
Weak form of tooth, radial flank, 12 teeth...	$c = 416$	308
Medium tooth, inv. 15°, or cycloid, 27 teeth...	$c = 800$	400
Strong form of tooth, or cycloid, 300 teeth...	$c = 1300$	600
Average tooth.....	$c = 347$	184
Hub of 1 inch pitch.....	$c = 77.4$	31.6
" 3 inches pitch.....	$c = 232$	95

In which c is independent of form and speed: Old English rule, $c = 300$; Grant, $c = 350$; Nystrom, $c = 80$; Halsey, $c = 123$; Jones & Co., $c = 218$; Unwin, $c = 262, 300$, or 139, according to speed, shock, condition.

Those given by Nystrom and those given by Box for teeth of small size are much smaller than those given by the other authorities that they are rejected as having an entirely unnecessary surplus of strength. The figures given by Mr. Lewis seem to rest on the most logical basis, the form of teeth as well as the velocity being considered; and since they are said to be satisfactory in an extended machine practice, they may be considered reliable for gears that are so well made that the pressure bears on the face of the teeth instead of upon the corners. For rough order of estimate the old English rule $W = 300pf$ is probably as good as any, except the figure 300 may be too high for weak forms of tooth and for small sizes.

The formula $W = 200pf$ is equivalent to H.P. = $\frac{pfd \times \text{rpm.}}{630} = \frac{pfv}{165}$, or

$$1587.3 pfd \times \text{rpm.} = .006063 pfv.$$

Maximum Speed of Gearing.—A. Towler, *Eng'g*, April 19, 1889, gives the maximum speeds at which it was possible under favorable conditions to run toothed gearing safely as follows:

	Ft. per min.
Gray cast-iron wheels.....	1800
" " " ".....	2400
" " " ".....	2400
Gray cast-steel wheels.....	2600
" " " ".....	3000
" " " ".....	3000
" " " ".....	3000

Wheeler & Sellers (*Stevens Indicator*, April, 1892) recommends that gears should not run over 1200 ft. per minute, to avoid great noise. The figures given by Mr. Towler for cast-iron wheels are excessive, and for wood and iron (mortise gears) are excessive, and should be reduced. The Corliss engine at the Philadelphia Exhibition (1876) had a wheel 30 ft. in diameter running 35 rpm. geared into a pinion 12 ft. in diameter, the speed of the pitch-line was 3300 ft. per min.

Heavy Machine-cut Spur-gear.—A heavy spur-gear was made in 1891 by the Westinghouse Co., Cleveland, O., for a diamond mine in South Africa, with the following data: Number of teeth, 192; pitch diameter, 30' 6.66"; face width, 6'; bore, 27"; diameter of hub, 9' 2"; weight of hub, 15 tons; weight of gear, 66¾ tons. The rim was made in 12 segments, the joints between segments being fastened with two bolts each. The spokes were bolted to the rim and to the hub with four bolts in each end.

Frictional Gearing.—In frictional gearing the wheels are toothless, and the driving wheel drives the other by means of the friction between the two wheels which are pressed together. They may be used where the power transmitted is not very great; when the speed is so high that toothed gearing would be noisy; when the shafts require to be frequently put into reverse; or to have their relative direction of motion reversed; or when it is desired to change the velocity-ratio while the machinery is in motion. The case of disk friction-wheels for changing the feed in machine

is the normal pressure in pounds at the line of contact by which the wheels are pressed together. T = tangential resistance of the driven wheel at the line of contact, f = the coefficient of friction, V = the velocity of the surface in feet per second, and H.P. = horse-power; the value of f is equal to or less than fP ; H.P. = $TV \div 550$. The value of f is

metal on metal may be taken at .15 to .20; for wood on metal, $\frac{25}{100}$ to $\frac{30}{100}$ for wood on compressed paper, .30. The tangential driving force T may be as high as 80 lbs. per inch width of face of the driving surface, but this is accompanied by great pressure and friction on the journal-bearings.

In frictional grooved gearing circumferential wedge-shaped grooves cut in the faces of two wheels in contact. If P = the force pressing wheels together, and N = the normal pressure on all the grooves, $(\sin \alpha + f \cos \alpha)$, in which 2α = the inclination of the sides of the grooves and the maximum tangential available force $T = fN$. The inclination of the grooves to a plane at right angles to the axis is usually 30° .

Frictional Grooved Gearing.—A set of friction-gears for transmitting 150 H.P. is on a steam-dredge described in Proc. Inst. M. E. 1883. Two grooved pinions of 54 in. diam., with 9 grooves of $1\frac{1}{2}$ in. pitch angle of 40° cut on their face, are geared into two wheels of $12\frac{1}{2}$ in. diam. similarly grooved. The wheels can be thrown in and out of gear by operating eccentric bushes on the large wheel-shaft. The circumferential speed of the wheels is about 500 ft. per min. Allowing for engine efficiency if half the power is transmitted through each set of gears the tangential force at the rims is about 3960 lbs., requiring, if the angle is 40° and coefficient of friction 0.18, a pressure of 7534 lbs. between the wheels and pinion to prevent slipping.

The wear of the wheels proving excessive, the gears were replaced by gear wheels and brake-wheels with steel brake-bands, which arrangement has proven more durable than the grooved wheels. Mr. Daniel A. Fox states that if the frictional wheels had been run at a higher speed the wear would have been better, and says they should run at least 50 ft. per

HOISTING.

Approximate Weight and Strength of Cordage.
(See also pages 339 to 345.)

Size in Circumference.	Size in Diameter.	Weight of 100 ft. Manila, in lbs.	Strength of Manila Rope, in lbs.	Size in Circumference.	Size in Diameter.	Weight of 100 ft. Manila, in lbs.
2	$\frac{5}{8}$	13	4,000	4 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 9/16	72
2 $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	16	5,000	5	$1\frac{1}{8}$	80
3	13/16	20	6,250	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{4}$	97
3 $\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{7}{8}$	24	7,500	6	2	113
4	1	28	9,000	6 $\frac{1}{2}$	$2\frac{1}{8}$	131
4 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 1/16	33	10,500	7	$2\frac{1}{4}$	153
5	$1\frac{1}{8}$	38	12,250	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	$2\frac{3}{8}$	174
5 $\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{1}{4}$	45	14,000	8	$2\frac{7}{8}$	211
6	1 5/16	51	16,000	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	$3\frac{1}{8}$	236
6 $\frac{1}{2}$	$1\frac{3}{8}$	58	18,062	9	3	262
7	$1\frac{1}{2}$	65	20,250			

Working Strength of Blocks. (B. & L. Block Co.)

Regular Mortise-blocks Single and Double, or Two Double Iron-strapped Blocks, will hoist about—

inch.	lbs.
5	250
6	350
7	600
8	1,300
9	2,000
10	4,000
12	10,000
14	16,000

Wide Mortise and Extra Single and Double, or Two Iron-strapped Blocks, will hoist about—

inch.	lbs.
8	2,000
10	5,000
12	12,000
14	24,000
16	38,000
18	52,000
20	66,000

When double and triple block are used together, a certain amount of weight can be safely hoisted, as larger block

Comparative Efficiency in Chain-blocks both in Hoisting and Lowering.

(Tests by Prof. R. H. Thurston, *Hoisting*, March, 1881.)

Number of Block.	WORK OF HOISTING. Load of 3000 lbs.				WORK OF LOWERING. Load of 3000 lbs., lowered 7 ft. in each case					
	Waste by Friction, per cent.	Actual Efficiency, per cent.	Relative Effi- ciency.	Velocity ratio.	Exclusive of Factor of Time.			Inclusive of Time.		
					Pull on Hand Chain, lbs.	Length of Hand Chain, feet.	Work performed, ft.-lbs.	Relative Force expended by Operator.	Time in Min.	Relative Efficiency.
1	20.50	79.50	1.00	22.50	8.00	227.	1,815	1.00	0.75	1.000
2	68.00	32.00	.40	62.44	11.00	436.	6,104	3.33	1.30	.186
3	69.00	31.00	.39	30.00	92.30	196.	18,000	10.00	1.50	.053
4	71.30	28.70	.36	28.00	92.60	165.	15,556	8.60	2.50	.035
5	73.96	26.04	.33	25.00	73.30	17.5	1,382	0.71	2.80	.280
6	75.66	24.34	.31	23.00	56.60	379.	20,342	11.60	1.80	.096
7	77.00	23.00	.29	44.30	55.00	310.	17,650	9.40	2.75	.029
8	81.03	18.97	.24	61.00	48.50	436.	20,000	11.60	3.75	.018

No. 1 was Weston's triplex block; No. 3, Weston's differential; No. 4 Weston's imported. The others were from different makers, whose names are not given. All the blocks were of one-ton capacity.

Proportions of Hooks.—The following formulæ are given by Henry R. Towne, in his *Treatise on Cranes*, as a result of an extensive experimental and mathematical investigation. They apply to hooks of capacities from 250 lbs. to 20,000 lbs. Each size of hook is made from some commercial size of round iron. The basis in each case is, therefore, the size of iron of which the hook is to be made, indicated by A in the diagram. The dimension D is arbitrarily assumed. The other dimensions, as given by the formulæ, are those which, while preserving a proper bearing-face on the interior of the hook or the ropes or chains which may be passed through it, give the greatest resistance to spreading and to ultimate rupture, which the amount of material in the original bar admits of. The symbol Δ is used to indicate the nominal capacity of the hook in tons of 2000 lbs. The formulæ which determine the lines of the other parts of the hooks of the several sizes are as follows, the measurements being all expressed in inches:

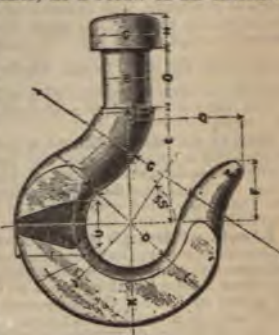


FIG. 164.

$$\begin{aligned}
 D &= .5 \Delta + 1.25 & G &= .75D. & H &= 1.08A & L &= 1.05A \\
 E &= .64 \Delta + 1.60 & O &= .363 \Delta + .66 & I &= 1.33A & M &= .50A \\
 F &= .33 \Delta + .85 & Q &= .64 \Delta + 1.60 & J &= 1.20A & N &= .85B - .10 \\
 & & & & K &= 1.13A & U &= .866A
 \end{aligned}$$

The dimensions A are necessarily based upon the ordinary merchant size of round iron. The sizes which it has been found best to select are as follows:

Capacity of hook:

$\frac{1}{8}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{3}{8}$	1	$1\frac{1}{2}$	2	3	4	5	6	8	10
$\frac{11}{16}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	$1\frac{1}{16}$	$1\frac{1}{4}$	$1\frac{3}{8}$	$1\frac{5}{8}$	$1\frac{3}{4}$	2	$2\frac{1}{4}$	$2\frac{3}{8}$	$2\frac{3}{4}$	

h_1 = reduced length of rope in t attached to ascending cage;
 h_2 = increased length of rope in t attached to descending cage;
 w = weight of rope per foot in pounds. Then

$$A = \frac{\left[\left(\frac{Wv^2}{2gt} \right) + \left\{ \left(\frac{vt}{L} \right) - \frac{h_1 w + h_2 w t}{2} \right\} R \right]}{PNSC.}$$

Applying the above formula when designing new engines, Mr. found that 30 inches diameter of cylinders would produce equal results, to those of the 36-inch cylinder in use, the latter being balanced.

Counterbalancing may be employed in the following methods:

(a) *Tapering Rope*.—At the initial stage the tapering rope ends wind from greater depths than is possible with ropes of uniform thickness of such a rope at any point should only be such as bear the load on it at that point.

With tapering ropes we obtain a smaller difference between the final load, but the difference is still considerable, and for perfection of the load we must rely on some other resource. The tapering ropes is to obtain a rope of uniform strength, thinner at the cage, the weight is least, and thicker at the drum end where it is greatest.

(b) *The Counterpoise System* consists of a heavy chain works down a staple pit, the motion being obtained by means of a small drum placed on the same axis as the winding drum. It is so arranged the chain hangs in full length down the staple pit at the commencing the winding; in the centre of the run the whole of the chain rests at the bottom of the pit, and, finally, at the end of the winding the coil has been rewound upon the small drum, and is in the same condition as at the commencement.

(c) *Loaded-wagon System*.—A plan, formerly much employed, have a loaded wagon running on a short incline in place of this the rope actuating this wagon being connected in the same manner above to a subsidiary drum. The incline was constructed steep at commencement, the inclination gradually decreasing to nothing. At the end of a wind the wagon was at the top of the incline, and during the winding of the run gradually passed down it till, at the meet of cages, it was exerted on the engine—the wagon by this time being at the bottom of the latter part of the wind the resistance was all against the engine its having to pull the wagon up the incline, and this resistance being from nothing at the meet of cages to its greatest quantity at the end of the lift.

(d) *The Endless-rope System* is preferable to all others, if the engine sump room and the shaft is free from tubes, cross timbers, and other impediments. It consists in placing beneath the cages a tail rope of diameter to the winding rope, and, after conveying this down to the bottom, attaching beneath the other cage.

(e) *Flat Ropes Coiling on Reels*.—This means of winding allows of equalization, for the radius of the coil of ascending rope constantly increases, while that of the descending one continues to diminish. The variation in the leverage is a constant quantity, and is equal to the thickness of the rope where it is wound on the drum.

By the above means a remarkable uniformity in the load is obtained, the only objection being the use of flat ropes, which wear and only last about two thirds the time of round ones.

(f) *Conical Drums*.—Results analogous to the preceding may be obtained by using round ropes coiling on conical drums, which may either be made with the successive coils lying side by side, or they may be provided with spiral grooves. The objection to these forms is, that perfect equalization is not obtained with the conical drums unless the sides are very steeply sloped; consequently there is great risk of the rope slipping; to obviate this, various forms of drums were proposed. They are, however, very expensive, and the displacement of the winding rope from the centre line of pull is very great, owing to their necessary large width.

(g) *The Koepe System of Winding*.—An iron pulley with a groove is placed in the place of the ordinary drum. The winding rope is run over its head-gear pulley, round the drum,

the other head-gear pulley, is connected with the second cage. The rope thus encircles about half the periphery of the drum in the manner as a driving-belt on an ordinary pulley. There is a balance beam between the cages, passing round a pulley in the sump; the arrangement is likened to an endless rope, the two cages being simply points of contact.

BELT-CONVEYORS.

elevators.—American Grain-elevators are described in a paper by E. Lee Heidenreich, read at the International Engineering Convention, Chicago (Trans. A. S. C. E., 1893). See also Trans. A. S. M. E., vii, 660.

Bands for carrying Grain.—Flexible-rubber bands are extended for carrying grain in and around elevators and warehouses. An American in the grain-storage warehouses of the Alexandria Dock, Liverpool (Inst. M. E., July, 1891), describes the performance of these bands, being three miles in length. A band $16\frac{1}{2}$ inches wide, 1270 feet long, moving at 9 to 10 feet per second has a carrying capacity of 50 tons per hour. See paper on Belts as Grain Conveyors, by T. W. Hugo, Trans. A. S. M. E., 1900.

Carrying-bands or Belts are used for the purpose both of sorting and of removing impurities. These carrying-bands may be said to be of two descriptions, namely, the wire belt, which consists of a length of woven wire; and the steel-plate belt, which consists of a series of endless chains, carrying steel plates varying in width from 6 to 14 inches. (Proc. Inst. M. E., July, 1890.)

CRANES.

Classification of Cranes. (Henry R. Towne, Trans. A. S. M. E., iv, 1891, revised in *Hoisting*, published by The Yale & Towne Mfg. Co.)

A crane is a machine for raising and lowering weights. A Crane is distinguished from a hoist by the added capacity of moving the load in a horizontal or lateral direction.

Cranes are divided into two classes, as to their motions, viz., *Rotary* and *Rectilinear*; and into four groups, as to their source of motive power, viz.:

—When operated by manual power.

—When driven by power derived from line shafting.

Electric, Hydraulic, or Pneumatic.—When driven by an engine or motor attached to the crane, and operated by steam, electricity, water, or compressed air, supplied to the crane from a fixed source of supply.

Self-propelled.—When the crane is provided with its own boiler or other source of power, and is self-propelling; usually being capable of both rotary and rectilinear motions.

Rotary and Rectilinear Cranes are thus subdivided:

ROTARY CRANES.

Trolley-cranes.—Having rotation, but no trolley motion.

Jib-cranes.—Having rotation, and a trolley travelling on the jib.

Turn-cranes.—Identical with the jib-cranes, but rotating around a vertical axis (which usually supports a floor above).

Pillar-cranes.—Having rotation only; the pillar or column being supported entirely from the foundation.

Lattice-jib-cranes.—Identical with the last, except in having a jib and trolley motion.

Truck-cranes.—Identical with jib-cranes, except that the head of the crane is held in position by guy-rods, instead of by attachment to a roof or floor.

Traveling-cranes.—Consisting of a pillar or jib-crane mounted on wheels, and adapted to travel longitudinally upon one or more rails.

Truck-traveling-cranes.—Consisting of a pillar crane mounted on a truck, and adapted to travel on a track, and provided with a steam-engine capable of propelling and rotating the truck, and of hoisting and lowering the load.

RECTILINEAR CRANES.

Bridge-cranes.—Having a fixed bridge spanning an opening, and adapted to move across the bridge.

Truck-cranes.—Consisting of a truck, or short bridge, travelling on overhead rails, and without trolley motion.

Traveling-cranes.—Consisting of a bridge moving longitudinally on tracks, and a trolley moving transversely on the bridge.

the crane. (Hoisting.)

A Large Travelling-crane, designed and built by the Engineering Co., Alliance, O., for the 12-inch-gun shop at the Navy Yard, is described in *American Machinist*, June 12, 1893. It weighs 150 net tons; distance between centres of inside rails, 59 ft. 6 in.; cross travel, 44 ft. 2 in.; effective lift, 40 ft.; four speeds for hoisting, 4, 8, 16, and 32 ft. per min.; loads for these speeds, 150, 75, 37½, and 18½ tons, respectively; traversing speeds of trolley on bridge, 35 and 50 ft. per minute; speeds of bridge on main track, 30 and 60 ft. per minute. Squares are employed for driving.

A 150-ton Pillar-crane was erected in 1893 on Fife Street, Glasgow. The jib is formed of two steel tubes, each 39 in. diameter and 100 ft. long. The radius of sweep for heavy lifts is 65 ft. The jib is counterbalanced by a balance-box weighted with 100 tons of iron punchings. In a test a 130-ton load was lifted at the rate of 4 ft. per minute and a complete revolution made with this load in 5 minutes July 30, 1893.

Compressed-air Travelling-cranes.—Compressed-air travelling-cranes have been built by the Lane & Bodley Co., London. They are of 20 tons nominal capacity, each about 50 ft. span and 10 ft. high. They are of the triple-motor type, a pair of simple motors being used for each of the necessary operations, the pair on the bridge and the pair for the trolley travel being each 5-inch stroke, while the pair for hoisting is 7-inch bore by 9-inch stroke, furnished by a compressor having steam and air cylinders each 12 in. diameter and 12-in. stroke, which with a boiler-pressure of about 80 pounds gives a pressure when required of somewhat over 100 pounds. The crane is allowed to run continuously without a governor, the speed being limited by the resistance of the air in a receiver. From a pipe extending along one of the supporting trusses communication is maintained with an auxiliary receiver on each traveller by a 1/2-inch hose, the object of the auxiliary receiver being to provide air near the engines for immediate demands and independent connection, which may thus be of small dimension. Some of the advantages said to be possessed by this type of crane are: simplicity; absence of moving parts, excepting those required for a particular motion which is in use; no danger from fire, leakage, electric shocks, or difficulty of repair; variable speeds and reversal without gearing; almost complete absence of noise; and moderate cost.

Quay-cranes.—An illustrated description of several stationary and travelling cranes, with results of experiments on the same, is given in the *Port of Hamburg*, by G. H. M.

tail-ropes System.
 endless-ropes System.
 cable Tramway.

For a brief description of these systems is abstracted from a paper on Wire-rope Haulage, by Wm. Hildnermann, C.E., published by the Engineering Society of America, New York, 1887, by the McGraw-Hill Publishing Co., New York, N. Y.

Self-acting Inclined Plane.—The motive power for the self-acting inclined plane is gravity; consequently this mode of transportation is applicable only in places where the coal is conveyed from a lower point and where the plane has sufficient grade for the loaded cars to raise the empty cars to an upper level.

At the lower end of the plane there is a drum, which is generally constructed of cast iron and has a diameter of seven to ten feet. It is placed high enough to allow the cars to pass under it. Loaded cars coming from the pit or in sets of two or three are attached on the back of the car to the rope and their speed in descending is regulated by a brake on the drum.

At the upper end of the plane there are two sets of rollers, to prevent the rope dragging on the ground, one set of rollers, of wood, 5 to 6 inches in diameter and 24 to 28 inches long, with 2 to 3 inches between the rollers, and one set of rollers, of iron, 5 to 6 inches in diameter and 24 to 28 inches long, with 2 to 3 inches between the rollers. The distance between the rollers varies from 2 to 4 feet, depending on the steepness of the plane. For steep planes requiring less rollers than those with easy grades, only the reduction of friction and what is best for the power, is a general rule may be given to use rollers of the greatest diameter, and to place them as close as economy will permit.

The angle of inclination at which a plane can be made self-acting is determined by the motive and resisting forces balance each other. The resisting forces are the weight of the loaded car and of the descending rope. The motive forces consist of the weight of the empty car and ascending rope, the rolling and axle friction of the cars, and of the axle friction of the rollers. The friction of the drum, stiffness of rope, and resistance of air may be neglected. A general rule cannot be given, because the length of the plane or the weight of the cars changes the relative values of the forces; also, because the coefficient of friction, depending on the nature of the road, construction of the cars, etc., is a very uncertain quantity.

For a plane with a $\frac{3}{4}$ inch steel rope and lowering from one to two cars, weighing empty 1400 lbs. and loaded 4300 lbs., the rise in 100 feet to make the plane self-acting will be from about 5 to 10 feet, depending on the number of cars increase, and increasing as the length of the plane increases.

The angle of inclination of the plane should be slightly concave, steeper at the top than at the bottom. The maximum deflection of the curve should be at an angle of 45 degrees, and diminish for smaller as well as for steeper angles.

Simple Engine-plane.—The name "Engine-plane" is applied to a plane on which a load is raised or lowered by means of a single drum and a stationary steam-engine. It is a cheap and simple method of conveying coal underground, and therefore is applied wherever circumstances permit it.

Under ordinary conditions such as prevail in the Pennsylvania mines, in a twenty-five to thirty loaded cars will descend, with reasonable speed, a straight plane 5000 feet long on a grade of $\frac{3}{4}$ feet in 100 feet. It would appear that 25 feet in 100 is necessary for the same number of cars. For roads longer than 5000 feet, or when containing sharp curves, the grade should be correspondingly larger.

Tail-rope System.—Of all methods for conveying coal underground by wire rope, the tail-rope system has found the most application. It may be applied under almost any condition. The road may be straight, level or undulating, in one continuous line or with side shafts. In general principle a tail-rope plane is the same as an engine-plane, but in both directions with two ropes. One rope, called the "main rope," is necessary for drawing the set of full cars outward; the other, called the "tail rope," is necessary to take back the empty set, which on a level road cannot return by gravity. The two drums may be placed at the opposite ends of the road, and driven by separate engines, or they may be driven by one engine, in which case they are, consequently they are on the same shaft at one end of the plane. In the latter case each rope would require the length of the plane, but in the former case the tail rope must be twice as long, being led from the drum at one end of the road and back again to its shaft at the other end of the plane.

point. When the main rope draws a set of full cars out, the tail-rope drum runs loose on the shaft, and the rope, being attached to the rear car, winds itself steadily. Going in, the reverse takes place. Each drum is provided with a brake to check the speed of the train on a down grade and prevent its overrunning the forward rope. As a rule, the tail rope is strained less than the main rope, but in cases of heavy grades dipping upward it is possible that the strain in the former may become as large, or even larger, than in the latter, and in the selection of the sizes referred to should be had to this circumstance.

IV. The Endless-rope System.—The principal features of the system are as follows:

1. The rope, as the name indicates, is endless.
2. Motion is given to the rope by a single wheel or drum, and friction is obtained either by a grip-wheel or by passing the rope several times around the wheel.
3. The rope must be kept constantly tight, the tension to be produced by artificial means. It is done in placing either the return-wheel or an extra tension wheel on a carriage and connecting it with a weight hanging over a pulley, or attaching it to a fixed post by a screw which occasionally can be shortened.
4. The cars are attached to the rope by a grip or clutch, which can hold at any place and let go again, starting and stopping the train at will, without stopping the engine or the motion of the rope.
5. On a single-track road the rope works forward and backward, and on a double track it is possible to run it always in the same direction, but the cars going on one track and the empty cars on the other.

This method of conveying coal, as a rule, has not found as general an introduction as the tail-rope system, probably because its efficacy is not so apparent and the opposing difficulties require greater mechanical skill in more complicated appliances. Its advantages are, first, that it requires one third less rope than the tail-rope system. This advantage, however, is partially counterbalanced by the circumstance that the extra tension rope requires a heavier size to move the same load than when a main and tail rope are used. The second and principal advantage is that it is possible to start and stop trains at will without signalling to the engine. On the other hand, it is more difficult to work curves with the endless system, and still more so to work different branches, and the constant stress of the rope under tension or its elongation under changes of temperature frequently causes the rope to slip on the wheel, in spite of every attention causing delay in the transportation and injury to the rope.

V. Wire-rope Tramways.—The methods of conveying products in a suspended rope tramway find especial application in places where a site is located on one side of a river or deep ravine and the loading station is on the other. A wire rope suspended between the two stations forms the track on which material in properly constructed "carriages" or "buggies" is transported. It saves the construction of a bridge or trestlework, and is practical for a distance of 2000 feet without an intermediate support.

There are two distinct classes of rope tramways:

1. The rope is stationary, forming the track on which a bucket holds the material moves forward and backward, pulled by a smaller endless wire rope.
2. The rope is movable, forming itself an endless line, which serves the same time as supporting track and as pulling rope.

Of these two the first method has found more general application, and especially adapted for long spans, steep inclinations, and heavy loads. The second method is used for long distances, divided into short spans, and only applicable for light loads which are to be delivered at regular intervals.

For detailed descriptions of the several systems of wire-rope transportation, see circulars of John A. Roebling's Sons Co., The Trenton Iron Co., and other wire-rope manufacturers. See also paper on Two-rope Hoisting Systems, by R. Van A. Norris, Trans. A. S. M. E., xii, 626.

In the *Bleichert System* of wire-rope tramways, in which the track rope is stationary, loads of 1000 pounds each and upward are carried. While the average spans on a level are from 150 to 300 feet, in crossing rivers, ravines, etc., spans up to 1500 feet are frequently adopted. In a tramway system at Granite, Montana, the total length of the line is 3750 feet, with 11 of 1225 feet. The descending loads, amounting to a constant weight of 11 tons, develop over 14 horse-power, which is sufficient to transport, in addition, as well as about 50 tons of supplies per day up the w-

to run the ore crusher and elevator. It is capable of delivering 250 of material in 10 hours.

SUSPENSION CABLEWAYS OR CABLE HOISTS.

(Trenton Iron Co.)

quarrying, rock-cutting, stripping, piling, dam-building, and many other operations where it is necessary to hoist and convey large individual loads economically, it frequently happens that the application of a system of cableways is impracticable, by reason of the limited area of their efficiency in the room which they occupy.

To meet such conditions cable-hoists are adapted, as they can be efficiently used in clear spans up to 1500 feet, and in lifting individual loads up to 25 tons. Two types are made—one in which the hoisting and conveying are effected by separate running ropes, and the other applicable only to inclines, in which the carriage descends by gravity, and but one running rope is required. The moving of the carriage in the former is effected by means of an endless rope, and these are commonly known as "endless-rope" cableways to distinguish them from the latter, which are termed "inclined" cable-hoists.

The general arrangement of the endless-rope cable-hoists consists of a main cable passing over towers, A frames or masts, as may be most convenient, and anchored firmly to the ground at each end, the requisite tension of the cable being maintained by a turnbuckle at one anchorage.

On this cable travels the carriage, which is moved back and forth over the line by means of the endless rope. The hoisting is done by a separate rope, both ropes being operated by an engine specially designed for the purpose, which may be located at either end of the line, and is constructed in such a way that the hoisting-rope is coiled up or paid out automatically as the carriage is moved in and out. Loads may be picked up or discharged at any point along the line. Where sufficient inclination can be obtained in the main cable for the carriage to descend by gravity, and the loading and unloading is done at fixed points, the endless rope can be dispensed with. The carriage, which is similar in construction to the carriage used in the endless-rope cableways, is arrested in its descent by a stop-block, which may be clamped to the main cable at any desired point, the speed of the descending carriage being under control of a brake on the engine-drum.

Stress in Hoisting-ropes on Inclined Planes.

(Trenton Iron Co.)

horizontal.	Angle of inclination.	Stress in lbs. per ton of 3000 lbs.	Rise per 100 ft. horizontal.	Angle of inclination.	Stress in lbs. per ton of 3000 lbs.	Rise per 100 ft. horizontal.	Angle of inclination.	Stress in lbs. per ton of 3000 lbs.
			ft.			ft.		
	2° 52'	140	55	28° 49'	1003	110	47° 44'	1516
	5° 43'	240	60	30° 58'	1067	120	50° 12'	1573
	8° 32'	336	65	33° 02'	1128	130	52° 26'	1630
	11° 10'	432	70	35° 00'	1185	140	54° 28'	1663
	14° 03'	527	75	36° 53'	1238	150	56° 19'	1699
	16° 42'	613	80	38° 40'	1287	160	58° 00'	1730
	19° 18'	700	85	40° 22'	1332	170	59° 33'	1758
	21° 49'	782	90	42° 00'	1375	180	60° 57'	1782
	24° 14'	860	95	43° 32'	1415	190	62° 15'	1804
	26° 34'	933	100	45° 00'	1450	200	63° 27'	1822

The above table is based on an allowance of 40 lbs. per ton for rolling friction, but an additional allowance must be made for stress due to the weight of the rope proportional to the length of the plane. A factor of safety of 5 should be taken.

When hoisting the slack-rope should be taken up gently before beginning the hoist, otherwise a severe extra strain will be brought on the rope.

The best rope for inclined planes is composed of six strands of seven wires laid about a hempen centre. The wires are much coarser than those of a 14-wire rope of the same diameter, and for this reason the 42-wire rope is better adapted to withstand the rough usage and surface wear upon inclined planes.

The Trenton Iron Co. has a cable-suspension Cableway, carrying loads of 25 tons, erected

Williamsport, Pa., by the Trenton Iron Co., is described by E. G. Spilsbury in *Trans. A. I. M. E.* xx. 766. The span is 733 feet, crossing the Susquehanna River. Two steel cables, each 2 in. diam., are used. On these cables runs a carriage supported on four wheels and moved by an endless cable 1 inch in diam. The load consists of a cage carrying a railroad-car loaded with lumber, the latter weighing about 12 tons. The power is furnished by a 50-H P. engine, and the trip across the river is made in about three minutes.

A hoisting cableway on the endless-rope system, erected by the Lidgerwood Mfg. Co., at the Austin Dam, Texas, had a single span 1350 ft. in length, with main cable $2\frac{1}{2}$ in. diam., and hoisting-rope $1\frac{3}{4}$ in. diam. Loads of 7 to 8 tons were handled at a speed of 600 to 800 ft. per minute.

Tension required to Prevent Slipping of Wire on Drum. (Trenton Iron Co.)—The amount of artificial tension to be applied in an endless rope to prevent slipping on the driving-drum depends on the character of the drum, the condition of the rope and number of laps which it makes. If T and S represent respectively the tensions in the taut and slack lines of the rope; W , the necessary weight to be applied to the tail-sheave; R , the resistance of the cars and rope, allowing for friction; n , the number of half-laps of the rope on the driving-drum; and f , the coefficient of friction, the following relations must exist to prevent slipping:

$$T = Se^{fn\pi}, \quad W = T + S, \quad \text{and} \quad R = T - S;$$

$$\text{from which we obtain} \quad W = \frac{e^{fn\pi} + 1}{e^{fn\pi} - 1} R,$$

in which $e = 2.71828$, the base of the Napierian system of logarithms.

The following are some of the values of f :

	Dry.	Wet.	Greasy.
Rope on a grooved iron drum	.130	.085	.070
Rope on wood-filled sheaves	.235	.170	.140
Rope on rubber and leather filling	.495	.400	.305

The values of the coefficient $\frac{e^{fn\pi} + 1}{e^{fn\pi} - 1}$, corresponding to the above values

of f , for one up to six half-laps of the rope on the driving-drum or sheaves, are as follows:

f	$n = \text{Number of Half-laps on Driving-wheel.}$					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
.070	9.130	4.623	3.141	2.418	1.999	1.729
.085	7.536	3.833	2.629	2.047	1.714	1.505
.130	5.345	2.777	1.953	1.570	1.358	1.232
.140	4.623	2.418	1.739	1.416	1.249	1.154
.170	3.833	2.047	1.505	1.268	1.149	1.085
.205	3.212	1.762	1.338	1.165	1.083	1.043
.235	2.831	1.592	1.215	1.110	1.051	1.024
.400	1.795	1.176	1.047	1.013	1.004	1.001
.495	1.538	1.093	1.019	1.004	1.001

The importance of keeping the rope dry is evident from these figures.

When the rope is at rest the tension is distributed equally on the two lines of the rope, but when running there will be a difference in the tensions of the taut and slack lines equal to the resistance, and the values of T and S may be readily computed from the foregoing formulae.

Taper Ropes of Uniform Tensile Strength.—Prof. A. S. Herschel in *The Engineer*, April, 1880, p. 267, gives an elaborate mathematical investigation of the problem of making a taper hoisting-rope of uniform tensile strength at every point in its length. Mr. Charles D. West, commenting on Prof. Herschel's paper, gives a similar solution, and derives therefrom the following formula, based on a breaking strain of 80,000 lbs. per sq. in. of the rope, core included, with a factor of safety of 10:

$$F = 3680[\log G - \log g]; \quad \log G = \frac{F}{3680} + \log g;$$

in which F = length in fathoms, and G and g the girth in inches at any two sections F fathoms apart.

AMPLE.—Let it be required to find the dimensions of a steel-wire rope to
6730 lbs.—cage, trams, and coal—from a depth of 400 fathoms.
dia of section at lower end = $6720 + 8000 = .84$ sq. in.; therefore girth =
at bottom.

$$\text{Log } G = 400 + 3680 + \log 3.25 = .10869 + .51188 = .62057;$$

fore $G = 4.174$, or, say, $4 \frac{3}{16}$ in. girth at top.

equations show that the true form of rope is not a regular taper or
cated cone, but follows a logarithmic curve, the girth rapidly increas-
wards the upper end.

Relative Effect of Various-sized Sheaves or Drums on the Life of Wire Ropes.

(Thos. E. Hughes, *Coll'y Eng.*, April, 1893.)

CAST-STEEL ROPES FOR INCLINES.

Made of 6 strands, of 7 wires each, laid around a hemp core.

n. of e in es.	Diameters of Sheaves or Drums in feet, showing percent- ages of life for various diameters.						
	100%.	90%.	80%.	75%.	60%.	50%.	25%.
16	14	12	11	9	7	4.75	
14	12	10	8.5	7	6	4.5	
12	10	8	7.25	6.5	5.5	4.25	
10	8.5	7.75	7	6	5	4	
8.5	7.75	6.75	6	5	4.5	3.75	
7.75	7	6.25	5.75	4.5	3.75	3.25	
7	6.25	5.5	5	4.25	3.5	2.75	
6	5.25	4.5	4	3.25	3	2.5	
5	4.5	4	3.5	2.75	2.25	1.75	

use of iron ropes for inclines has been generally abandoned, steel
being more satisfactory and economical.

CAST-STEEL HOISTING-ROPES.

Made of 6 strands, of 19 wires each, laid around a hemp core.

n. of e in es.	Diameters of Sheaves or Drums in feet, showing percent- ages of life for various diameters.						
	100%.	90%.	80%.	75%.	60%.	50%.	25%.
14	12	10	8.5	7	6	4.5	
12	10	8	7	6	5.25	4.25	
10	8.5	7.5	6.75	5.5	5	4	
9	7.5	6.5	6	5	4.5	3.75	
8	7	6	5.5	4.5	4	3.50	
7.5	6.75	5.75	5	4.25	3.5	3	
5.5	4.5	4	3.75	3.25	3	2.25	
4.5	4	3.75	3.25	3	2.5	2	
4	3	3	2.75	2.25	2	1.5	
3	2	1.5	

WIRE-ROPE TRANSMISSION.

following data and formulæ are taken from a paper by Wm. Hewitt,
e Trenton Iron Co., 1890. (See also circulars of John A. Roebling's
Co., Trenton, N. J.; "Transmission of Power by Wire Ropes," by A.
ahl, Van Nostrand's Science Series No. 28; and Reuleaux's Constructor.)

Section of Wire Rope best suited, under ordinary conditions,
e transmission of power is composed of 6 strands of 7 wires each, laid
her about a hemp core. Ropes of 12 and 19 wires to the strand are
sed. They are more flexible, and may be applied with advantage un-
ditions which do not allow the use of large transmission wheels, but
of high speed. They are not as well adapted to stand surface wear
r, on account of the smaller size of the wires.

The Driving-wheels (Fig. 165) are usually of cast iron made as light as possible consistent with the requisite strength.

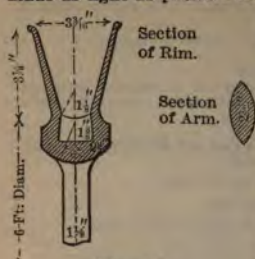


Fig. 165.

materials have been used for filling the groove, such as tarred jute yarn, hard wood, India-rubber. The filling which gives the best results, however, consists of segments of blocks of India-rubber, soaked and packed alternately in the groove, turned to a true surface.

In long spans, intermediate wheels are frequently used, and it is sufficient to support only the slack side of the rope; but whatever the side that the power is transmitted, the diameter of the rope will require a less number of wires on the slack side. The sheaves supporting the driving side, however, in all cases be of equal diameter with the wheels. With the slack side small

may be used, but their diameter should not be less than one half the diameter of the driving-sheaves.

The system of carrying sheaves may generally be replaced by that of intermediate stations. The rope thus, instead of running the whole length of the transmission, runs only from one station to the next. It is advisable to make the stations equidistant, so that a rope may be on hand, ready spliced, to put on the wheels of any span, should give out. This method is to be preferred where there is sometimes stop and start motion to the rope, as it prevents sudden movements of this kind being transmitted over the entire line.

$$\text{Gross horse-power transmitted} = N_0 = .0003702 D^2 v \left(k - \frac{ED}{18R} \right)$$

D = diameter of rope in inches (= 9 times diameter of single wire); v = velocity of rope in feet per second; k = safe stress per square inch; E = modulus of elasticity = 28,500,000 for iron; R = radius of driving-wheels in inches. The term $\frac{ED}{18R}$ = the stress in inches due to bending of wires around sheaves.

$$\text{Loss due to centrifugal force} = N_1 = .0000424 D^2 v^3$$

Loss due to journal friction of driving-wheels = $N_2 = .0000045 (W + w)$
 " " " " intermediate-wheels = $.0000045 (W + w)$
 in which W = total weight of rope; w = weight of wheel and axle.

$$N = N_0 - N_1 - N_2 = D^2 v \left[.0003675 \left(k - \frac{ED}{18R} \right) - .0000424 v^2 \right] - .0000045 (W + w)$$

For a maximum value of N the diameter of the wheels should be approximately from 185 to 192 times the diameter of the rope, and for a ratio of diameters an approximate formula for the actual horse-power transmitted is $N = 3.0148 D^3 V$, in which V = number of revolutions per minute.

The proper deflections when the rope is at rest are obtained from the following formula: Deflection = $.00005765 \text{ span}^2$, and are as follows:

Span in feet..	50	100	150	200	250	300	350
Deflection...	13 1/4"	7"	1' 3 1/2"	2' 3 3/8"	3' 7 3/4"	5' 2 1/4"	7' 5 1/8"

It has been found in practice that when the deflection of the rope is less than 3 inches the transmission cannot be affected with a change of shafting or belting is to be preferred. This deflection corresponds to a span of about 54 feet. It is customary to make the under side of the rope the driving side. The maximum limit of span is determined by the maximum deflection that may be given to the upper side of the rope in motion. Assuming that the clearance between the upper and lower wheels of the rope should not be less than two feet, and that the wheels are of equal diameter, we have a maximum deflection of the upper side of the rope which corresponds to a span of about 370 feet.

Much greater spans than this are practicable, in cases where the clearance between the wheels is such that the upper side of the rope is

er, as in crossing gullies or valleys, and there is nothing to interfere with gaining the proper deflections. Some very long transmissions of power have been effected in this way without an intervening support. There is one at Lockport, N. Y., for instance, with a clear span of about 1700 feet.

In a later circular of the Trenton Iron Co. (1892) the above figures are somewhat modified, giving lower values for the power transmitted by a given size, as follows:

The proper ratio between the diameters of rope and sheaves is that which will permit the maximum working tension to be obtained without overstraining the wires in bending. For rope of 7-wire strands this ratio is about 350; for rope of 12-wire strands, 1:115; and for rope of 19-wire strands, 200; which gives the following minimum diameter of sheaves, in inches, corresponding to maximum efficiency.

diam. rope, in inches.	¼	5/16	¾	7/16	¾	9/16	5/8	11/16	¾	¾	1	1¼
wire strands..	37	47	56	66	75	84	94	103	112
" "	...	36	43	50	57	65	72	78	86	101	115	...
" "	34	39	45	51	56	62	68	79	90	101

Assuming the sheaves are of equal diameter, and not smaller than content with maximum efficiency as determined by the preceding table, the total horse-power transmitted approximately equals 3.1 times the square of the diameter of the rope in inches multiplied by the velocity in feet per second.

From this rule we deduce the following:

Horse-power of Wire-rope Transmission.

Velocity, in feet per second.	20	30	40	50	60	70	80
Diam. Rope, in inches.	Horse-power Transmitted.						
1/4	4	6	8	10	12	14	16
5/16	6	9	12	15	18	21	24
3/8	9	13	17	22	26	31	35
7/16	12	18	24	30	36	42	47
1/2	15	23	31	39	47	54	62
9/16	20	29	39	49	59	69	78
5/8	24	36	48	61	73	85	97
11/16	29	44	59	73	88	103	117
¾	35	52	70	87	105	122	140
7/8	48	71	95	119	142	166	190
1	62	93	124	155	186	217	248

The proper deflection to give the rope in order to secure the necessary tension is

$$h = .0000695S^2.$$

where h is the deflection with the rope at rest, and S = the span, both in feet.

Durability of Wire Ropes.—At the Risdon Iron Works, San Francisco, a steel wire rope 2¼ inches in circumference running over 10-foot gaves at 5000 ft. per minute has transmitted 40 H.P. for six years without wearing the rope. At the wire-mills a steel wire rope 2¼ in. in circumference running over 8-foot sheaves has been running steadily for a period of six years at a velocity of 4500 ft. per minute, transmitting 80 H.P.

Inclined Transmissions, when the angle of inclination is great, the proper deflections cannot be readily determined, and the ropes become more sensitive to the ordinary variations in the deflections, so that tightening sheaves must be resorted to for producing the requisite tension. In the case of very short spans. When the horizontal distance between two wheels is less than 60 ft., or when the angle of inclination exceeds 45 degrees. It will be found desirable to use tightening sheaves. Tightening pulleys should be placed on the slack side of the rope.

The Wire-rope Catenary. (From an article on transmission, by M. Arthur Achard, Proc. Inst. M. E., Jan. 1892.)
have to bear two distinct molecular strains: First, a

well as upon its lineal weight, that the tension to which it depends. By fixing the weight of the rope and its length, the two spans assume in common, when at rest, is determined, and their common tension; which latter must be such as to produce the two unequal tensions, T and t , necessary for the tractive power. The driving force = $T - t$.

Moreover, the tension in either span is not the same throughout its length; it is a minimum at the lowest point of the curve and increases towards the two extremities. The calculation of the tension at any point is very complicated if based upon the true form of the catenary, but by substituting a parabola for the catenary, which is almost always the case, the calculation becomes simple. If the two pulleys are on the same level, the lowest point is midway between them, and

this point is $S_0 = \frac{pl^2}{8h}$, p being the lineal weight, or pounds

per foot, l its horizontal projection, which is approximately equal to the distance between the centres of the pulleys, and h the deflection in the middle. A catenary possesses the remarkable mechanical property that the tension at any two points is equal to the weight of the rope corresponding to the difference in level between the

two points; therefore at the two ends will be $S_1 = S_0 + ph_1$

and $S_2 = S_0 + ph_2$, substituting for S_1 in the above equation the required value of T , solving it with relation to h , the deflections h_1 and h_2 of the two trailing spans will be obtained. The deflection h_0 , common to both spans at rest, is given by the equation $h_0 = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}h_1^2 + \frac{1}{2}h_2^2}$. If A is the cross-sectional area of the iron portion of the rope, and S the unit strain which

the tension T produces on it, we have $wS = T = \frac{pl^2}{8h_1} + ph_1$. The area w of the rope in square inches, and its weight p in pounds per foot, the ratio $w + p$ differs little from a mean value of 0.24. The working tension usually assigned for iron-wire ropes is 50,000 lbs. per square inch. Hence $wS + p = 0.24 \times 50,000 = 12,000$; and we have the approximate equation $\frac{l^2}{8h_1} + h_1 = 12,000$, which is useful as giving a

relation between the length l and deflection h_1 for the driving-span of a rope. For example, if $l = 100$ feet, $h_1 = 2.53$ approximately, and it is impossible to have a deflection value than about 355 lbs. per square inch; the relation of l^2 to h_1 is 900, which with equal deflections would give

an area $w = 12,000 - h_1 = 11,645$ lbs. per square inch, and a weight $p = 12,000 - w = 355$ lbs. per foot. If $l = 200$ feet, $h_1 = 0.63$ approximately, and it is impossible to have a deflection value than about 14,220 lbs. per square inch; the relation of l^2 to h_1 is 900, which with equal deflections would give

extremities; the tension at the upper end of each exceeds that at the other by the quantity pH , H being the difference in level between the two centres, or, which is approximately the same, between the centres of two pulleys. It is evidently the tension of the driving-span at its lower end which must be regulated so as to obtain the proper driving tension T at the receiving pulley. Large diameter of pulleys tends to preserve the ropes, makes the effect of stiffness insignificant, and diminishes the effect of friction on bearings.

Another formula for the tension at the ends of a catenary (assuming it to be a parabola) is $S_1 = \frac{W}{2h} \sqrt{(36l)^2 + (2h)^2}$, in which S = the tension in lbs.;

W = weight of the rope in lbs.; l = span, and h = deflection, in feet.

Diameter and Weight of Pulleys for Wire Rope, Ordinary:

Diameter, ft.	18	14.9	12.4	7.0
Single groove, lbs. . . .	6232	5180	2425	798
Double groove, lbs. . .	8267	6988	4078	1164

Table of Transmission of Power by Wire Ropes.

(J. A. Roebling's Sons Co., 1886.)

10 FEET.	Number of Revolutions.	Trade No. of Rope.	Diameter of Rope.	Horse-power.	Diameter of Wheel in feet.	Number of Revolutions.	Trade No. of Rope.	Diameter of Rope.	Horse-power.
80	23	3/8	3	7	140	20	9/16	35	
100	23	3/8	3 1/2	8	80	19	5/8	26	
120	23	3/8	4	8	100	19	5/8	32	
140	23	3/8	4 1/2	8	120	19	5/8	39	
80	23	3/8	4	8	140	19	5/8	45	
100	23	3/8	5	9	80	20	9/16 3/8	47	
						19		48	
120	23	3/8	6	9	100	20	9/16 5/8	58	
						19		60	
140	23	3/8	7	9	120	20	9/16 5/8	69	
						19		73	
80	22	7/16	9	9	140	20	9/16 5/8	82	
						19		84	
100	22	7/16	11	10	80	19	5/8 11/16	64	
						18		68	
120	22	7/16	13	10	100	19	5/8 11/16	80	
						18		85	
140	22	7/16	15	10	120	19	5/8 11/16	96	
						18		102	
80	21	1/2	14	10	140	19	5/8 11/16	112	
						18		119	
100	21	1/2	17	12	80	18	11/16 3/4	93	
						17		99	
120	21	1/2	20	12	100	18	11/16 3/4	116	
						17		124	
140	21	1/2	23	12	120	18	11/16 3/4	140	
						17		149	
80	20	9/16	20	12	120	16	3/4	173	
						8		141	
100	20	9/16	25	14	80	7	1 1/8	148	
						8		176	
120	20	9/16	30	14	100	8	1 1/8	185	
						7			

Long-distance Transmissions. (From Circular of the Trenton Co., 1892.)—In very long transmissions of power the conditions do not admit of obtaining the proper tensions required in the ordinary system of "flying transmission of power," as it is termed. In other words, to obtain the proper conditions, it would necessitate numerous and expensive intermediate stations. In case, for instance, it is desired to utilize the power of a turbine to drive a factory, say a mile away, the best method is to employ a larger rope than would ordinarily be used, running it at a moderate

speed. The rope may be in one continuous length, supported, at intervals of about 100 ft., on sheaves of comparatively small diameter, since greater rigidity of these ropes preserves them from undue bending strain. Where sharp angles occur in the line, however, sheaves must be used of size corresponding to the safe limit of tension due to bending. The rope run under a high working tension, far in excess of what in the ordinary system would cause the rope to slip on the sheaves. The working tension may be four or five times as great as the tension in the slack portion of the rope, and in order to prevent slipping, the rope is wrapped several times about grooved drums, or a series of sheaves at each end of the line provide for the slack due to the stretch of the rope, one of the sheaves placed on a slide worked by long-threaded bolts, or, better still, on a slide provided with counterweights, which runs back and forth on a track. The latter preserves a uniform tension in the slack portion of the rope, which is very important.

Wire-rope tramways are practically transmissions of power of this kind, in which the load, however, instead of being concentrated at one terminal, is distributed uniformly over the entire line. Cable railways are also transmissions of this class. The amount of horse-power transmitted is given by the formula

$$N = [4.755D^2 - .000006(W + g + g_2)]v;$$

in which D = diameter of the rope in inches; v = velocity in ft. per sec.
 W = weight of the rope; g = weight of the terminal sheaves and axles
 g_2 = weight of the intermediate sheaves and axles.

ROPE-DRIVING.

The transmission of power by cotton or manila ropes promises to be a formidable competitor with gearing and leather belting for use where the amount of power is large, or the distance between the power and the driven is comparatively great. The following is condensed from a paper by C. W. Hunt, Trans. A. S. M. E., vol. xii, p. 230:

But few accurate data are available, on account of the long period required in each experiment, a rope lasting from three to six years. In the early applications so great a strain was put upon the rope that the wear was rapid, and success only came when the work required of the rope was greatly reduced. The strain upon the rope has been decreased until it is approximately known what it should be to secure reasonable durability. Installations which have been successful, as well as those in which the rope was destructive, indicate that 200 lbs. on a rope one inch in diameter is a safe and economical working strain. When the strain is made increased, the wear is rapid.

In the following equations

C = circumference of rope in inches; g = gravity;
 D = sag of the rope in inches; H = horse-power;
 F = centrifugal force in pounds; L = distance between pulleys;
 P = pounds per foot of rope; w = working strain in pounds
 R = force in pounds doing useful work;
 S = strain in pounds on the rope at the pulley;
 T = tension in pounds of driving side of the rope;
 t = tension in pounds on slack side of the rope;
 v = velocity of the rope in feet per second;
 W = ultimate breaking strain in pounds.

$$W = 720C^2; \quad P = .032C^2; \quad w = 20C^2.$$

This makes the normal working strain equal to 1/36 of the breaking strength, and about 1/25 of the strength at the splice. The actual strain is ordinarily much greater, owing to the vibrations in running, as well as to imperfectly adjusted tension mechanism.

For this investigation we assume that the strain on the driving side of the rope is equal to 200 lbs. on a rope one inch in diameter, and an equal strain for other sizes, and that the rope is in motion at various velocities from 10 to 140 ft. per second.

The centrifugal force of the rope in running over the pulley will

amount of force available for the transmission of power. The centrifugal force $F = Pv^2 + g$.

At a speed of about 80 ft. per second, the centrifugal force increases faster than the power from increased velocity of the rope, and at about 140 ft. per second equals the assumed allowable tension of the rope. Computing this at various speeds and then subtracting it from the assumed maximum tension, we have the force available for the transmission of power. The amount of this force cannot be used, because a certain amount of tension on each side of the rope is needed to give adhesion to the pulley. What tension should be given to the rope for this purpose is uncertain, as there are no experiments which give accurate data. It is known from considerable experience that when the rope runs in a groove whose sides are inclined to each other at an angle of 45° there is sufficient adhesion when the sum of the tensions $T + t = 2$.

For the present purpose, T can be divided into three parts: 1. Tension for useful work; 2. Tension from centrifugal force; 3. Tension to balance strain for adhesion.

The tension t can be divided into two parts: 1. Tension for adhesion; 2. Tension from centrifugal force.

It is evident, however, that the tension required to do a given work should not be materially exceeded during the life of the rope.

There are two methods of putting ropes on the pulleys; one in which the rope is single and spliced on, being made very taut at first, and less so as the rope lengthens, stretching until it slips, when it is respliced. The other method is to wind a single rope over the pulley as many turns as needed to give the necessary adhesion and also take up the wear. The tension t required to transmit normal horse-power for the ordinary speeds and sizes of rope is computed by formula (1), below. The total tension T on the driving side of the rope is assumed to be the same at all speeds. The centrifugal force, as well as the tension for adhesion on the slack side of the rope, can be taken from the total tension T to ascertain the amount of force available for the transmission of power.

It is assumed that the tension on the slack side necessary for giving adhesion is equal to one half the force doing useful work on the driving side of the rope; hence the force for useful work is $R = \frac{2(T - F)}{3}$; and the tension on the slack side to give the required adhesion is $\frac{1}{2}(T - F)$. Hence

$$t = \frac{(T - F)}{3} + F. \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

The sum of the tensions T and t is not the same at different speeds, as the formula (1) indicates.

As F varies as the square of the velocity, there is, with an increasing velocity of the rope, a decreasing useful force, and an increasing total tension, on the slack side.

Under these assumptions of allowable strains the horse-power will be

$$H = \frac{2v(T - F)}{3 \times 550} \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

Transmission ropes are usually from 1 to 1¾ inches in diameter. A comparison of the horse-power for four sizes at various speeds and under ordinary conditions, based on a maximum strain equivalent to 200 lbs. for a one inch in diameter, is given in Fig. 166. The horse-power of other sizes readily obtained from these. The maximum power is transmitted, under the assumed conditions, at a speed of about 80 feet per second.

The wear of the rope is both internal and external; the internal is caused by the movement of the fibres on each other, under pressure in bending over the sheaves, and the external is caused by the slipping and the wedging of the rope in the grooves of the pulley. Both of these causes of wear are, within limits of ordinary practice, assumed to be directly proportional to the velocity.

Hence, if we assume the coefficient of the wear to be k , the wear will be kv , in which the wear increases directly as the velocity, but the horse-power that can be transmitted, as equation (2) shows, will not vary at the same rate.

The tension is supposed to have the strain T constant at all speeds on the driving side, and in direct proportion to the area of the cross-section; hence

the catenary of the driving side is not affected by the speed or by the diameter of the rope.

The deflection of the rope between the pulleys on the slack side varies with each change of the load or change of the speed, as the tension equation (1) indicates.

The deflection of the rope is computed for the assumed value of T and

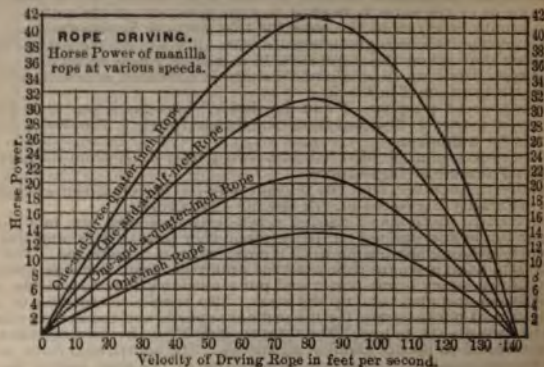


FIG. 166.

by the parabolic formula $S = \frac{PL^2}{8D} + PD$, S being the assumed strain T on the driving side, and t , calculated by equation (1), on the slack side. The tension t varies with the speed.

Horse-power of Transmission Rope at Various Speeds.

Computed from formula (2), given above.

Diam. of Ropes,	Speed of the Rope in feet per minute.										Simultaneous Work of the Ropes.	
	1500	2000	2500	3000	3500	4000	4500	5000	6000	7000		8000
1/4	1.45	1.9	2.3	2.7	3	3.2	3.4	3.4	3.1	2.9	0	30
3/8	2.3	3.2	3.6	4.2	4.6	5.0	5.3	5.3	4.9	3.4	0	34
1/2	3.3	4.3	5.2	5.8	6.7	7.2	7.7	7.7	7.1	4.9	0	36
5/8	4.5	5.9	7.0	8.2	9.1	9.8	10.8	10.8	9.3	6.9	0	38
1	5.8	7.7	9.2	10.7	11.9	12.8	13.6	13.7	12.5	8.8	0	42
1 1/4	9.2	12.1	14.3	16.8	18.6	20.0	21.2	21.4	19.5	13.8	0	54
1 1/2	13.1	17.4	20.7	23.1	26.8	28.8	30.6	30.8	28.2	19.8	0	60
1 3/4	18	23.7	28.2	32.8	36.4	39.2	41.5	41.8	37.4	27.6	0	72
2	23.2	30.8	36.8	42.8	47.6	51.2	54.4	54.8	50	35.2	0	84

The following notes are from the circular of the C. W. Hunt Co., New York:

For a temporary installation, when the rope is not to be long in use, it might be advisable to increase the work to double that given in the table.

For convenience in estimating the necessary clearance on the driving and on the slack sides, we insert a table showing the sag of the rope at different speeds when transmitting the horse-power given in the preceding table. When at rest the sag is not the same as when running, being greater on the driving and less on the slack sides of the rope. The sag of the driving side when transmitting the normal horse-power is the same no matter what diameter of rope is used or what the speed driven at, because the assumption is that the strain on the rope shall be the same at all speeds when transmitting the

force available for the transmission of power. The centrifugal force $\propto v^2 + g$. About 80 ft. per second, the centrifugal force increases faster from increased velocity of the rope, and at about 140 ft. per second the centrifugal force is assumed to be equal to the assumed allowable tension of the rope. Computing these speeds and then subtracting it from the assumed maximum tension, the force available for the transmission of power. The centrifugal force cannot be used, because a certain amount of tension on the rope is needed to give adhesion to the pulley. What is given to the rope for this purpose is uncertain, as there are few experiments which give accurate data. It is known from considerable experience that when the rope runs in a groove whose sides are inclined at an angle of 45° there is sufficient adhesion when the tensions $T + t = 2$.

At this purpose, T can be divided into three parts: 1. Tension for adhesion; 2. Tension from centrifugal force; 3. Tension to balance centrifugal force.

t can be divided into two parts: 1. Tension for adhesion; 2. centrifugal force. However, that the tension required to do a given work should not exceed during the life of the rope.

There are two methods of putting ropes on the pulleys; one in which the rope is spliced on, being made very taut at first, and less so as it runs, stretching until it slips, when it is respliced. The other is to pass a single rope over the pulley as many turns as needed to do a given horse-power and put a tension pulley to give the necessary tension also take up the wear. The tension t required to transmit a given horse-power for the ordinary speeds and sizes of rope is compared in (1), below. The total tension T on the driving side of the pulley to be the same at all speeds. The centrifugal force, as well as the tension for adhesion on the slack side of the rope, from the total tension T to ascertain the amount of force available for the transmission of power.

Let t be the tension on the slack side necessary for giving a useful force to one half the force doing useful work on the driving side. Hence the force for useful work is $R = \frac{2(T - F)}{3}$; and the tension on the slack side to give the required adhesion is $\frac{1}{2}t(T - F)$. Hence

$$t = \frac{(T - F)}{3} + F, \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

The tensions T and t is not the same at different speeds, as the centrifugal force varies as the square of the velocity.

As the square of the velocity, there is, with an increasing speed, a decreasing useful force, and an increasing total tension, and hence the centrifugal force.

The assumptions of allowable strains the horse-power will be

$$H = \frac{2v(T - F)}{3 \times 550} \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

Ropes are usually from 1 to $1\frac{3}{4}$ inches in diameter. A comparison of the horse-power for four sizes at various speeds and under various conditions, based on a maximum strain equivalent to 200 lbs. for a rope of 1 inch diameter, is given in Fig. 166. The horse-power of other ropes can be obtained from these. The maximum power is transmitted under the best conditions, at a speed of about 80 feet per second.

Wear is caused by the rope being both internal and external; the internal is caused by the fibres on each other, under pressure in bending, and the external is caused by the slipping and the wedging of the pulley. Both of these causes of wear are, within ordinary practice, assumed to be directly proportional to the velocity. If we assume the coefficient of the wear to be k , the wear will be $k \times v$. If the wear increases directly as the velocity, but the tension is constant, as equation (2) shows, will not vary at

proposed to have the strain T constant at all speeds on the pulley, the direct proportion to the area of the cross-section; hence

For large amounts of power it is common to use a number of rope side by side in grooves, each spliced separately. For lighter work engineers use one rope wrapped as many times around the pulley necessary to get the horse-power required, with a tension pulley to take the slack as the rope wears when first put in use. The weight per foot tension pulley should be carefully adjusted, as the overstraining of it from this cause is one of the most common errors in rope driving; therefore give a table showing the proper strain on the rope for the various sizes, from which the tension weight to transmit the horse-power is easily deduced. This strain can be still further reduced, as the horse-power transmitted is usually less than the nominal work of the rope was proportioned to do, or if the angle of groove is the pulley acute.

DIAMETER OF PULLEYS AND WEIGHT OF ROPE.

Diameter of Rope, in inches.	Smallest Diameter of Pulleys, in inches.	Length of Rope to allow for Splicing, in feet.	Approximate Weight, in lbs. per foot of rope.
$\frac{1}{8}$	30	6	.11
$\frac{3}{16}$	34	6	.15
$\frac{1}{4}$	30	7	.20
$\frac{5}{16}$	36	8	.25
$\frac{3}{8}$	42	9	.35
1	54	10	.50
$1\frac{1}{4}$	60	12	.80
$1\frac{1}{2}$	72	13	1.10
$1\frac{3}{4}$	84	14	1.40

With a given velocity of the driving-rope, the weight of rope required for transmitting a given horse-power is the same, no matter what size rope is adopted. The smaller rope will require more parts, but the weight will be the same.

Miscellaneous Notes on Rope-driving.—W. H. Booth indicates to the *Amer. Machinist* the following data from English practice on cotton ropes. The calculated figures are based on a total allowable stress on a $1\frac{3}{4}$ -inch rope of 600 lbs., and an initial tension of $\frac{1}{10}$ the total allowable stress, which corresponds fairly with practice.

Diameter of rope.....	$1\frac{1}{4}$ "	$1\frac{3}{8}$ "	$1\frac{1}{2}$ "	$1\frac{5}{8}$ "	$1\frac{3}{4}$ "	$1\frac{7}{8}$ "
Weight per foot, lbs.5	.6	.75	.844	.98	1.20
Centrifugal tension = V^2 divided by	64	53	44	38	33	27
" for $V = 80$ ft. per sec., lbs.	100	121	145	170	193	237
Total tension allowable.....	300	360	430	500	600	720
Initial tension.....	30	36	43	50	60	72
Net working tension at 80 ft. velocity	170	203	242	280	347	420
Horse-power per rope " " "	34	28	34	41	49	54

The most usual practice in Lancashire is summed up roughly in the following figures: $1\frac{3}{4}$ -inch cotton ropes at 5000 ft. per minute velocity = 34 hp. per rope. The most common sizes of rope now used are $1\frac{3}{4}$ and $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch diameter, the maximum horse-power for a given rope is obtained at about 80 to 100 ft. per second. Above that speed the power is reduced by centrifugal force. At a speed of 2500 ft. per minute four ropes will do about the same work as three at 5000 ft. per min.

Cotton ropes do not require much lubrication in the sense that they are required by ropes made of the rough fibre of manila hemp. Merely a surface dressing is all that is required. For small ropes, common in mining machinery, from $\frac{1}{8}$ to $\frac{3}{4}$ inch diameter, it is the custom to prevent the chafing of the ropes on the surface by a light application of a mixture of black-lead and molasses,—but only enough should be used to lay the rope upon one of the pulleys in a series of light dips.

Reuleaux's Constructor gives as the "specific capacity" of hemp in actual practice, that is, the horse-power transmitted per square inch of cross-section for each foot of linear velocity per minute, 33.33 for a cross-section being taken as that due to the full outside diameter of the rope. For a $1\frac{3}{4}$ -in. rope, with a cross-section of 2.635 sq. in., at 5000 ft. per min., this gives a horse-power of from 24 to 25.33, as given by Mr. Hunt's table and 49 by Mr. Booth's.

s formulæ for calculating sources of loss in hemp-rope are to (1) journal friction, (2) stiffness of ropes, and (3) creep constants in these formulæ are, however, uncertain from experimental data. He calculates an average case giving loss of journal friction = 4%, to stiffness 7.8%, and to creep 5%, or 16.8% his is not to be considered higher than the actual loss.

(in *Eng'g News*, Dec. 6, 1890) says: In England hemp and cotton have been largely superseded by ropes of cotton; and I am of opinion that the reason for this is that dry manila ropes wear out too fast, and cotton ropes give too low a coefficient of friction. The angle of groove has been in use for 33 years, having been first introduced in Belfast, Ireland; but if we are to use tallow-laid or other ropes, we should certainly use a sharper angle in the groove, and the American system, which employs a continuous rope with

the same formula, Tension of driving side of rope + tension of slack side, implies a coefficient of friction of only .10. But I have found a coefficient of friction of .36, and have found one authority giving advice for single-line transmission 30° angle of groove.

An English engineer, and Yale & Towne use a 30° groove in the grooves of travelling-cranes, and I hope to see the best American 30° or 35° as a standard groove angle. The work done in driving manila rope from a 30° groove is not worth consideration. I have heard a great deal about the loss of power on this account, and in favor of using the continuous-rope system, and also of ropes that are recommended in Mr. Hunt's paper.

In respect to small transmission I have ever seen (about 30 H.P.) manila rope on wheels 30 in. in diameter, using a tension carriage. In cases where large ropes I think it wiser to replace small ones by doing a great gain may be made in efficiency, thus saving

the possibility of failures in the continuous-rope plan have occurred when ropes of different diameters, as in driving dynamos, or driving a line-shaft from an engine fly-wheel, if the ropes are not properly installed the ropes will not pull alike, and by calculation we may find one rope pulling twice or three times as hard as the others on the sheave.

The system designed by the writer employs an engine-driving sheave of the same diameter as the diameter of the driven sheave. To equalize the pull on the ropes the grooves of the large driving-sheaves were made 60° and those of the small sheaves with an angle of 45°. The 60° groove angle has entirely remedied the unequal pulling com-

pared that in sheaves of the same diameter, by the use of a 60° angle, the ropes may all pull alike; while, where the sheaves are of different diameter, the pull is unequal. The only difference of conditions lies in the different arc of contact of the rope on the sheave, which leads to a greater frictional hold of the rope on the large sheave than on the small. To equalize the frictional hold on the two sheaves we may sharpen the groove of the small sheave or increase the angle of the large sheave.

The Walker Mfg. Co. adopts a curved form of groove instead of one with straight sides. The curves are concave to each other at 45°. The curves rest on the sides of the groove in driving and driven pulleys the rope rests on the bottom of the groove, which is the case with the Walker Mfg. Co. also uses a "differential" drum for heavy ropes in which the grooves are contained each in a separate ring which slides on the turned surface of the drum in case one rope wears out.

The separate, or English, rope system is described in *Power*, April, 1892. It is in use at the India Mill at Darwen, which was originally driven by gears, but did not prove successful, and the rope system was resorted to. The 85,000 spindles and preparation of 2000 horse power tandem compound engine, with cylinders 48 in diameter and 72-inch stroke, running at 54 revolutions per minute, the fly-wheel is 30 feet in diameter, weighs 65 tons, and is driven by five ropes for 13½-inch ropes. These ropes lead off to receive power on several floors, so that each floor receives its power direct from the engine.

The speed of the ropes is 5083 feet per minute, and five ropes are used, the number of ropes upon each being proportioned

to the amount of power required upon the several floors. Lambeth ropes are used. (For much other information on this subject see "Driving," by J. J. Flather, John Wiley & Sons, 1895.)

FRICTION AND LUBRICATION.

Friction is defined by Rankine as that force which acts between bodies at their surface of contact so as to resist their sliding on each other and which depends on the force with which the bodies are pressed together.

Coefficient of Friction.—The ratio of the force required to move a body along a horizontal plane surface to the weight of the body is called the coefficient of friction. It is equivalent to the tangent of the angle of θ which is the angle of inclination to the horizontal of an inclined plane which the body will just overcome its tendency to slide. The angle is denoted by θ , and the coefficient by f , $f = \tan \theta$.

Friction of Rest and of Motion.—The force required to start a body sliding is called the friction of rest, and the force required to keep it sliding after having started is called the friction of motion.

Rolling Friction is the force required to roll a cylindrical or spherical body on a plane or on a curved surface. It depends on the nature of the surfaces and on the force with which they are pressed together, but is essentially different from ordinary, or sliding, friction.

Friction of Solids.—Rennie's experiments (1839) on friction of usually unlubricated and dry, led to the following conclusions:

1. The laws of sliding friction differ with the character of the surfaces rubbing together.
2. The friction of fibrous material is increased by increased extent of surface and by time of contact, and is diminished by pressure and speed.
3. With wood, metal, and stones, within the limit of abrasion, it varies only with the pressure, and is independent of the extent of surface of time of contact and velocity.
4. The limit of abrasion is determined by the hardness of the softer of two rubbing parts.
5. Friction is greatest with soft and least with hard materials.
6. The friction of lubricated surfaces is determined by the nature of the lubricant rather than by that of the solids themselves.

Friction of Rest. (Rennie.)

Pressure, lbs. per square inch.	Values of f .			
	Wrought iron on Wrought Iron.	Wrought on Cast Iron.	Steel on Cast Iron.	Brass (Cast)
187	.25	.28	.30	
224	.27	.29	.33	
336	.31	.33	.35	
448	.38	.37	.35	
560	.41	.37	.36	
672	Abraded	.38	.40	
784	"	Abraded	Abraded	

Law of Unlubricated Friction.—A. M. Wellington, Eng'g April 7, 1888, states that the most important and the best determined of the laws of unlubricated friction may be thus expressed:

The coefficient of unlubricated friction decreases materially with velocity, is very much greater at minute velocities of 0 +, falls very rapidly as minute increases of such velocities, and continues to fall much less rapidly with higher velocities up to a certain varying point, following which laws which obtain with lubricated friction.

Friction of Steel Tires Sliding on Steel Rails. (House & Galton.)

Speed, miles per hour.....	10	15	25	35	45
Coefficient of friction.....	0.110	.087	.086	.081	.080
Adhesion, lbs. per ton (2240 lbs.)	246	195	179	166	160

Friction is a consequence of the irregularities of form and surface of bodies rolling one over the other. Its laws are entirely established in consequence of the uncertainty which presents as to how much of the resistance is due to roughness of surface to original and permanent irregularity of form, and how much under the load. (Thurston.)

Resistance of Rolling Friction.—If R = resistance applied at the circumference of the wheel, W = total weight, r = radius of the wheel, f = coefficient, $R = fW \div r$. f is very variable. Coulomb gives $.06$ for metal, where W is in pounds and r in feet. Tredgold gives f for iron on iron $.002$, and on soft soil Morin found $f = .065$, and on hard smooth roads $f = .003$.

Experiments of the Society of Arts (Clark, R. T. D.) reported a loaded wheel to exhibit a resistance on various loads as below:

Material	Speed per hour.	Coefficient.	Resistance.
Cast iron on cast iron	2.87 miles.	.007	17.41 per ton.
" " " "	3.56 "	.0121	27.14 "
" " " "	3.34 "	.0185	41.60 "
Wheeled	3.45 "	.0199	44.48 "
Cast iron on cast iron, new	3.51 "	.0451	101.09 "

For the value of f for ordinary railroads, $.003$, well-laid railroad and best possible railroad track, $.001$.

Experiments that have been made upon the coefficients of rolling friction from axle friction, are too incomplete to serve as a basis for calculation. (Trautwine.)

Fluid Friction.—For all fluids, whether liquid or gaseous, the resistance is (1) independent of the pressure between the masses in contact; (2) directly proportional to the area of rubbing-surface; (3) proportional to the square of the relative velocity at moderate and high speeds, and directly nearly at low speeds; (4) independent of the nature of the solid against which the stream may flow, but dependent upon their degree of roughness; (5) proportional to the density, and related in some way to its viscosity. (Thurston.)

The coefficient of *Lubricated Surfaces* approximates to that of solid friction when the surface is run dry, and to that of fluid friction as it is flooded.

Repose and Coefficients of Friction of Building Materials. (From Rankine's Applied Mechanics.)

	θ .	$f = \tan \theta$.	$\frac{1}{\tan \theta}$
Best brickwork	31° to 35°	.6 to .7	1.67 to 1.4
Brickwork with mortar	36 $\frac{1}{2}$ ° to 25°	.74	1.35
Concrete	35° to 16 $\frac{1}{2}$ °	about .4	2.5
Timber	36 $\frac{1}{2}$ ° to 11 $\frac{1}{2}$ °	.7 to .3	1.43 to 3.3
Wet sand	31° to 11 $\frac{1}{2}$ °	.5 to .2	2 to 5
Wet sand, dry	14° to 8 $\frac{1}{2}$ °	.6 to .2	1.67 to 5
Wet sand, clay	14° to 8 $\frac{1}{2}$ °	.25 to .15	4 to 6.67
Wet sand, clay, dry	27°	.51	1.96
Wet sand, clay, moist	18 $\frac{1}{2}$ °	.33	3.
Wet sand, clay, dry	14° to 45°	.25 to 1.0	4 to 1
Wet sand, clay, dry	21° to 37°	.38 to .75	2.63 to 1.33
Wet sand, clay, damp	45°	1.0	1
Wet sand, clay, wet	17°	.31	3.23
Wet sand, clay, shingle and	39° to 48°	.81	1.23 to 0.3

Friction.—The following is a table of the angle of repose of friction $f = \tan \theta$, and its reciprocal, $1 \div f$, for the various materials—condensed from the tables of General Morin, as given by Rankine:

No.	Surfaces.	θ .	f .	$1+f$
1	Wood on wood, dry . . .	14° to 26½°	.25 to .5	4 to 7
2	" " " soaped . . .	11½° to 2°	.2 to .04	5 to 10
3	Metals on oak, dry	20½° to 31°	.5 to .6	2 to 3
4	" " " wet	18½° to 14°	.34 to .36	4.17 to 4.3
5	" " " soapy	11½°	.2	1.2
6	" " " elm, dry	11½° to 14°	.2 to .25	5 to 6
7	Hemp on oak, dry	28°	.53	1.53
8	" " " wet	18½°	.33	1.33
9	Leather on oak	15° to 19½°	.27 to .38	2.7 to 3.8
10	" " " metals, dry	29½°	.56	1.56
11	" " " " wet	20°	.36	2.36
12	" " " " greasy	13°	.23	1.23
13	" " " " oily	8½°	.15	1.15
14	Metals on metals, dry	8½° to 11°	.15 to .2	8.67 to 10
15	" " " " wet	16½°	.3	3.3
16	Smooth surfaces, occasionally greased	4° to 4½°	.07 to .08	14.8 to 15
17	Smooth surfaces, continuously greased	3°	.05	15
18	Smooth surfaces, best results	13½° to 2°	.03 to .036
19	Bronze on lignum vitæ, constantly wet	3° ?	.05 ?

Coefficients of Friction of Journals. (Morin.)

Material.	Unguent.	Lubrication.	
		Intermittent.	Continuous.
Cast iron on cast iron	Oil, lard tallow.	.07 to .08	.03 to .04
	Unctuous and wet.	.14	.03 to .04
Cast iron on bronze	Oil, lard, tallow.	.07 to .08	.03 to .04
	Unctuous and wet.	.16	.03 to .04
Cast iron on lignum-vitæ	Oil, lard.03 to .04
Wrought iron on cast iron	Oil, lard, tallow.	.07 to .08	.03 to .04
Iron on lignum vitæ	Oil, lard.	.11	.03 to .04
	Unctuous.	.19	.03 to .04
Bronze on bronze	Olive-oil.	.10	.03 to .04
	Lard.	.09	.03 to .04

Prof. Thurston says concerning the above figures that much better are probably obtained in good practice with ordinary machinery, here given are so greatly modified by variations of speed, pressure, temperature, that they cannot be taken as correct for general purposes.

Average Coefficients of Friction. Journal of cast iron in bearing; velocity 750 feet per minute; temperature 70° F.; inter-feed through an oil-hole. (Thurston on Friction and Lost Work.)

Oils.	Pressures, pounds per square inch			
	8	16	32	64
Sperm, lard, neat's-foot, etc.	.159 to .250	.138 to .192	.086 to .141	.077 to .107
Olive, cotton-seed, rape, etc.	.160 " .283	.107 " .245	.101 " .198	.093 to .133
Cod and menhaden248 " .378	.134 " .367	.097 " .102	.081 to .101
Mineral lubricating-oils154 " .301	.145 " .325	.088 " .174	.081 to .101

With fine steel journals running in bronze bearings and constant lubrication, coefficients far below those above given are obtained. At 100 lbs. per square inch the coefficient with 50 lbs. per square inch pressure was .0051; with 300 lbs., .0057.

pressures, as in spindles, the coefficients are much higher. It was found, at a temperature of 100° and a velocity of 600

lbs. per sq. in.....	1	2	3	4	5
.....	.38	.27	.22	.18	.17

coefficients, however, and the great decrease in the coefficient of friction as the pressure is limited as a practical matter only to the smaller pressures exist especially in spinning machinery, where the pressure is so great that a film of oil so thick that the viscosity of the oil is an important factor in the total frictional resistance.

Tests on Friction of a Journal Lubricated by an Oil. Reported by the Committee on Friction, Proc. Inst. M. E., 1887. It is shown that the absolute friction, that is, the absolute tangential force per inch of bearing, required to resist the tendency of the brass to rotate on the journal, is nearly a constant under all loads, within certain limits. Most certainly it does not increase in direct proportion to the load as it should do according to the ordinary theory of solid friction. The results of these experiments seem to show that the friction of a lubricated journal follows the laws of liquid friction much more closely than those of solid friction. They show that under these circumstances the friction is nearly independent of the pressure per square inch, and increases with the velocity, though at a rate not nearly so rapid as that of the velocity.

Tests on friction at different temperatures indicate a great decrease in the coefficient of friction as the temperature rises. Thus in the case of a journal of 450 revolutions per minute, the coefficient of friction at a temperature of 120° is only one third of what it was at a temperature of 60°.

Tests on a journal of steel, 4 inches diameter and 6 inches long, and a gun-brushing somewhat less than half the circumference of the journal on its upper side, on which the load was applied. When the journal was immersed in oil, and the oil therefore carried away by rotation of the journal, the greatest load carried with a pressure of 100 lbs. per square inch, and with mineral oil 625 lbs. per square inch. With ordinary lubrication, the oil being fed in at the center of the brass, and a distributing groove being cut in the brass of the journal, the bearing would not run cool with only a pressure of 100 lbs. per square inch, the oil being pressed out from the bearing-surface into an oil-hole, instead of being carried in by it. On introducing the oil through two parallel grooves, the lubrication appeared to be perfect, but the bearing seized with 350 lbs. per square inch. When the oil was introduced through two oil-holes, one near each end of the journal, each connected with a curved groove, the brass refused to run cool, and seized with a load of only 200 lbs. per square inch.

Tests on a journal feeding rape-oil, the bearing fairly carried. Tower's conclusion from these experiments is that the amount of oil on the quantity and uniformity of distribution of the oil, and the difference between the oil-bath results and seizing, according to the degree of imperfection of the lubrication. The lubrication may be perfect with a coefficient of 1/100; but it appeared as though it could not be perfect and the friction increased much beyond this point without the risk of heating and seizing. The oil-bath probably represents the best lubrication possible, and the limit beyond which friction cannot be reduced by lubrication; and the experiments show that with speeds of 100 feet per minute, by properly proportioning the bearing, it is possible to reduce the coefficient of friction to as low a value as a coefficient of 1/1500 is easily attainable, and probably is feasible in ordinary engine-bearings in which the direction of the force is alternating and the oil given an opportunity to get between the surfaces. The duration of the force in one direction is not sufficient to allow the oil film to be squeezed out.

The behavior of the apparatus gave reason to believe that the coefficient of friction at the speed of minimum friction was from 100 to 200 times as low as that at the speed of maximum friction, and that this speed of minimum friction tends to be independent of the load, and also with less perfect lubrication. The speed of minimum friction is meant that speed in approaching which the friction finishes, and above which the friction increases.

Coefficients of Friction of Journal with Oil-bath
 abstract of results of Tower's experiments on friction (Proc. Inst. M. E. 1883). Journal, 4 in. diam., 6 in. long; temperature, 90° F.

Lubricant in Bath.	Nominal Load, in pounds per square inch.				
	625	520	415	310	215
Coefficients of Friction.					
Lard-oil:					
157 ft. per min.....		.0009	.0012	.0014	.0029
471 " ".....		.0017	.0021	.0029	.0042
Mineral grease:					
157 ft. per min.....	.001	.0014	.0016	.0022	.0034
471 " ".....	.002	.0022	.0027	.004	.0066
Sperm-oil:					
157 ft. per min.....		seiz'd	.0015	.0011	.0016
471 " ".....			.0021	.0019	.0027
Rape-oil:	(573 lb.)				
157 ft. per min.....	.001	.0009	.0008	.0014	.0024
471 " ".....		.0015	.0016	.0016	.0024
Mineral-oil:					
157 ft. per min.....	.0013	.0012	.0012	.0014	.0021
471 " ".....		.0018	.002	.0024	.0035
Rape-oiled by syphon lubricator:					
157 ft. per min.....				.0056	.0088
314 " ".....				.0068	.0077
Rape-oil, pad under journal:					
157 ft. per min.....				.0099	.0105
314 " ".....				.0099	.0073

Comparative friction of different lubricants under same circumstances temperature 90°, oil-bath:

Sperm-oil.....	100 per cent.	Lard.....	125
Rape-oil.....	106 "	Olive-oil.....	125
Mineral oil.....	129 "	Mineral grease.....	217

Coefficients of Friction of Motion and of Rest Journal.—A cast-iron journal in steel boxes, tested by Prof. Th. gave the following:

Pressures per sq. in., lbs.....	50	100	250	500	750
Coeff., with sperm.....	.013	.008	.005	.004	.006
" " lard.....	.02	.0137	.0085	.0053	.009

The coefficients at starting were:

With sperm.....	.07	.135	.14	.15	.19
With lard.....	.07	.11	.11	.10	.14

The coefficient at a speed of 150 feet per minute decreases with of pressure until 500 lbs. per sq. in. is reached; above this it increases at rest or at starting increases with the pressure through range of the tests.

Value of Anti-friction Metals. (Denton.)—The various metals available for lining brasses do not afford coefficients of lower than can be obtained with bare brass, but they are less "overheating," because of the superiority of such material over ability to permit of abrasion or crushing, without excessive friction.

Thurston (Friction and Lost Work) says that gun-bronze, Babbalton and other soft white alloys have substantially the same friction; in all cases the friction is determined by the nature of the unguent and not by the rubbing-surfaces, when the latter are in good order. The same is true at higher temperatures than the bronze. This, however, does not necessarily indicate a serious defect, but simply deficient conductivity. The value of the white alloys for bearings lies mainly in their resistance to surface after any local or general injury by abuse of form.

on for Bearings. (Joshua Rose.)—Cast iron appears to be an to the general rule, that the harder the metal the greater the to wear, because cast iron is softer in its texture and easier to sel tools than steel or wrought iron, but in some situations it is urable than hardened steel; thus when surrounded by steam it etter than will any other metal. Thus, for instance, experience stated that piston-rings of cast iron will wear smoother, better, y as long as those of steel, and longer than those of either on or brass, whether the cylinder in which it works be composed eel, wrought iron, or cast iron; the latter being the more notice e two surfaces of the same metal do not, as a rule, wear or ogether. So also slide-valves of brass are not found to wear so oothly as those of cast iron, let the metal of which the seating d be whatever it may; while, on the other hand, a cast iron slide- ear longer of itself and cause less wear to its seat, if the latter on, than if of steel, wrought iron, or brass.

n of Metals under Steam-pressure.—The friction of iron under steam-pressure is double that of iron upon iron. (Lock, Trans. A. S. M. E., i. 151.)

s "Laws of Friction."—1. The friction between two bodies proportioned to the pressure; i.e., the coefficient is constant for s.

efficient and amount of friction, pressure being the same, is in- of the areas in contact.

efficient of friction is independent of velocity, although static tion of rest) is greater than the friction of motion.

es, April 7, 1888, comments on these "laws" as follows: From at 1876 there was no attempt worth speaking of to enlarge our of the laws of friction, which during all that period was assumed ete, although it was really worse than nothing, since it was for rt wholly false. In the year first mentioned Morin began a se- riments which extended over two or three years, and which the enunciation of these three "fundamental laws of friction," hich is even approximately true.

ears these laws were accepted as axiomatic, and were quoted as it question in every scientific work published during that whole w that they are so thoroughly discredited it has been attempted way their defects on the ground that they cover only a very lim- of pressures, areas, velocities, etc., and that Morin himself only them as true within the range of his conditions. It is now clearly that there are no limits or conditions within which any one of approximates to exactitude, and that there are many conditions y they lead to the wildest kind of error, while many of the con- as inaccurate as the laws. For example, in Morin's "Table of of Moving Friction of Smooth Plane Surfaces, perfectly Lubri- h may be found in hundreds of text-books now in use, the coeffi- ight iron on brass is given as .075 to .103, which would make the on of railway trains 15 to 20 lbs. per ton instead of the 3 to 6 lbs. ally is.

lorin, in a letter to the Secretary of the Institution of Mechanical ated March 15, 1879, writes as follows concerning his experiments ade more than forty years before: "The results furnished by my s as to the relations between pressure, surface, and speed on the nd sliding friction on the other, have always been regarded by as mathematical laws, but as close approximations to the truth, imits of the data of the experiment; themselves. The same holds, on, for many other laws of practical mechanics, such as those of tance, fluid resistance, etc."

1. Denton (*Stevens Indicator*, July, 1860) says: It has been gen- erated that friction between lubricated surfaces follows the simple : amount of the friction is some fixed fraction of the pressure be- surfaces, such fraction being independent of the intensity of the r square inch and the velocity of rubbing, between certain limits and that the fixed fraction referred to is represented by the co- friction given by th e experiments of Morin or obtained from ex- ata which represent conditions of practical lubrication, such as t Webber's Manual of Power.

eriments of Thurston, Woodbury, Tower, etc. however, if e friction between lubricated metallic surfaces, such as ma

chine bearings, is not directly proportional to the pressure, is not independent of the speed, and that the coefficients of Morin and Webber are an tenfold too great for modern journals.

Prof. Denton offers an explanation of this apparent contradiction of authorities by showing, with laboratory testing machine data, that Morin's laws hold for beatings lubricated by a restricted feed of lubricant, such as is afforded by the oil-cups common to machinery; whereas the modern experiments have been made with a surplus feed or super-abundance of lubricant, such as is provided only in railroad-car journals, and a few special cases of practice.

That the low coefficients of friction obtained under the latter conditions are realized in the case of car journals, is proved by the fact that the temperature of car-boxes remains at 100° at high velocities; and experiment shows that this temperature is consistent only with a coefficient of friction of one per cent. Deductions from experiments on train rollers also indicate the same low degree of friction. But these low coefficients do not account for the internal friction of steam-engines as well as do the coefficients of Morin and Webber.

In *American Machinist*, Oct. 23, 1890, Prof. Denton says: Morin's measurement of friction of lubricated journals did not extend to light pressures. They apply only to the conditions of general shafting and engine work.

He clearly understood that there was a frictional resistance, due to the viscosity of the oil, and that therefore, for very light pressures, the law which he enunciated did not prevail.

He applied his dynamometers to ordinary shaft-journals without special preparation of the rubbing-surfaces, and without resorting to special methods of supplying the oil.

Later experimenters have with few exceptions devoted themselves exclusively to the measurement of resistance practically due to viscosity. They have eliminated the resistance to which Morin confined his measurements, namely, the friction due to such contact of the rubbing-surfaces as prevail with a very thin film of lubricant between comparatively rough faces.

Prof. Denton also says (*Trans. A. S. M. E.*, x, 518): "I do not believe there is a particle of proof in any investigation of friction ever made, that the laws do not hold for ordinary practical oil-cups or restricted rates of lubrication."

Laws of Friction of well-lubricated Journals.—Goodman (*Trans. Inst. C. E.*, 1886, *Eng'g News*, Apr. 7 and 14, 1886), analyzing the results obtained from the testing machines of Thurston, Town, and Stroudley, arrives at the following laws:

LAWS OF FRICTION: WELL-LUBRICATED SURFACES.

(Oil-bath.)

1. The coefficient of friction with the surfaces efficiently lubricated is $1/6$ to $1/10$ that for dry or scantily lubricated surfaces.
2. The coefficient of friction for moderate pressures and speeds varies approximately inversely as the normal pressure; the frictional resistance varies as the area in contact, the normal pressure remaining constant.
3. At very low journal speeds the coefficient of friction is almost high; but as the speed of sliding increases from about 10 to 100 ft. per min. the friction diminishes, and again rises when that speed is exceeded, it varies approximately as the square root of the speed.
4. The coefficient of friction varies approximately inversely as the temperature, within certain limits, namely, just before abrasion takes place.

The evidence upon which these laws are based is taken from various modern experiments. That relating to LAW 1 is derived from the "First Series of Friction Experiments," by Mr. Beauchamp Tower.

Method of Lubrication.	Coefficient of Friction.	Compare Friction
Oil-bath.....	.00120	1.00
Siphon lubricator.....	.00320	2.67
Pad under journal.....	.00360	3.00

With a load of 293 lbs. per sq. in. and a journal speed of 100 ft. per min. he found the coefficient of friction to be .0012 with an oil-bath.

times as much, with a pad. The very low coefficients of power will be accounted for by Law 2, as he found that the resistance per square inch under varying loads is nearly constant,

per sq. in. 529 468 415 363 310 258 205 153 100
 ft. per sq. in. .416 .514 .498 .472 .464 .438 .43 .458 .45

and resistance per square inch is the product of the coefficient of friction and the load per square inch on horizontal sections of the brass, the product be a constant, the one factor must vary inversely as the other; a high load will give a low coefficient, and *vice versa*.

Under siphon lubrication, the coefficient is more constant under varying loads, but the frictional resistance then varies directly as the load, as shown by the results of Table VIII of his report (Proc. Inst. M. E. 1883).

As to Law 3, A. M. Wellington (Trans. A. S. C. E. 1884), in experiments revolving at very low velocities, found that the friction was great, and nearly constant under varying conditions of the load and temperature. But as the speed increased the friction decreased regularly, and again returned to the original amount when the speed was reduced to the same rate. This is shown in the following table:

per minute:
 3.33 4.86 8.82 21.42 35.37 53.01 89.28 106.02
 friction:
 .070 .069 .055 .047 .040 .035 .030 .026

It is found by Prof. Kimball that when the journal velocity was increased from 1 to 110 ft. per minute, the friction was reduced 70%; in another experiment it was reduced 87% when the velocity was increased from 1 to 110 ft. per minute; but after that point was reached the coefficient varied inversely with the square root of the velocity.

The following results were obtained by Mr. Tower:

Load	309	262	314	366	419	471	Nominal Load per sq. in.
Friction	.0010	.0012	.0013	.0014	.0015	.0017	520 lbs.
	.0013	.0014	.0015	.0017	.0018	.002	468 "
	.0014	.0015	.0017	.0019	.0021	.0024	415 "

The coefficient of friction with temperature is approximately in the inverse ratio to the temperature. Take, for example, Mr. Tower's results, at 262 ft. per minute:

Temperature	110°	100°	90°	80°	70°	60°
Friction	.0044	.0051	.006	.0073	.0092	.0119
	.00451	.00518	.00608	.00733	.00964	.01252

The results do not hold good for pad or siphon lubrication, as then the coefficient of friction diminishes more rapidly for given increments of temperature on a gradually decreasing scale, until the normal temperature is reached; this normal temperature increases directly as the load is increased, and is shown in the following table taken from Mr. Stroudley's experiments with a pad of rape oil:

Temperature	105°	110°	115°	120°	125°	130°	135°	140°	145°
Friction	.022	.0180	.0160	.0140	.0125	.0115	.0110	.0106	.0102
Efficiency0040	.0020	.0020	.0015	.0010	.0005	.0004	.0002

Westinghouse experiments it was found that with velocities of 100 ft. per min., and with low pressures, the frictional resistance was as the normal pressure; but when a velocity of 100 ft. per min. was reached, the coefficient of friction greatly diminished; from these experiments Prof. Kennedy found that the coefficient of friction was sensibly less than for low velocities.

Pressures on Bearing-surfaces. (Proc. I. C. E. Committee on Friction experimented with a siphon)

increased, and may be stated approximately as $1/30$ at 15 diminishing to $1/30$ at 75 lbs. per sq. in.

The high coefficients of friction are explained by the difficulty of a collar-bearing. It is similar to the slide-block of an engine, which can carry only about one tenth the load per sq. in. that can be carried by crank-pins.

In experiments on cylindrical journals it has been shown that a cylindrical journal was lubricated from the side on which the load came to be lubricated on the lower side and was allowed to carry with it, 600 lbs. per sq. in. was reached with impunity; and if the load was applied to the upper side, 100 lbs. per sq. in., which was reckoned upon the full diameter of the bearing, could be reckoned on the sixth part of the circle that was taking the portion of the load, it followed that the pressure upon that portion amounted to about 1200 lbs. per sq. in.

In connection with these experiments Mr. Wicksteed states that in testing machines the pressure on the collars is frequently as high as 1000 lbs. per sq. in., but the speed of rubbing in this case is lower than in the experiments of the Research Committee. In machine testing the pressure is applied slowly and intermittently, as in testing-machines, very high pressures are admissible.

Mr. Adamson mentions the case of a heavy upright shaft carrying a small footstep-bearing, where a weight of at least 30 tons was applied to a shaft of 5 in. diameter, or, say, 20 sq. in. area, giving a pressure of 1500 lbs. per sq. in. The speed was 190 to 200 revs. per min. It was necessary to get oil under the bearing by means of a pump. For heavy bearings, such as a fly-wheel shaft, carrying 100 tons on two journals, the method of getting oil into the bearings was to flatten the journal throughout its whole length to the extent of about an eighth of an inch width for each inch in diameter up to 8 in. diameter; above 8 in. diameter less flat in proportion to the diameter. At first sight it appears to get a continuous flat place coming round in every revolution of the loaded shaft; yet it carried the oil effectually into the bearing, and much better in consequence than a truly cylindrical journal could do on one side.

In thrust-bearings on torpedo-boats Mr. Thornycroft allows a pressure never more than 50 lbs. per sq. in.

Prof. Thurston (*Friction and Lost Work*, p. 240) says that a pressure per square inch is reached on the slow-working pivots of swing bridges.

Mr. Tower says (*Proc. Inst. M. E.*, Jan. 1884): In eccentric

Proc. Inst. C. E. 1886) found that the total frictional re-
sult is most efficient in reducing the friction when the brass
is inclined at an angle of from 130° to 60°. The film is probably at its best be-
tween 10° and 110°.

The brass of a railway axle-bearing where an oil-groove is cut
and an oil-hole is drilled through the top of the brass into it,
and the oil hole is on the off side, which is probably due to the oil escap-
ing from the crown of the brass, and so leaving the off side
the wear consequently ensues.

The brass wears always on the forward side. The same ob-
servation is made in marine-engine journals, which always wear in
the same way to what they might be expected. Mr. Stroudley
states that the wear is due to a film of lubricant being drawn in from the un-
der side to the aft part of the brass, which effectually lubri-
cates the bearing on that side; and that when the lubricant reaches
the crown of the brass it is so attenuated down to a wedge shape that
lubrication, and greater wear consequently follows.

On (*Am. Mach.*, Oct. 30, 1890) says: Regarding the pres-
sure of the oil in railroad car-service, it is probably more severe
than in any other service. Car brasses, when used bare, are so im-
prudent in journal, that during the early stages of their use the
oil film is but about one square inch. In this case the pressure
is upwards of 6000 lbs. But at the slowest speeds of freight
trains the wear of a brass is so rapid that, within about thirty minutes the
journal is used to about three inches, and is thereby able to relieve
the bearing. Water can successfully prevent overheating of the journal,
and takes place with any oil, and measures of relief must be
taken. The question of differences of lubricating power
of different lubricants available. A brass which has been run about
100 lbs. load may have extended the area of bearing-surface
to several inches. The pressure is then about 1700 lbs. per square
inch. It is assumed that this is an average minimum area for car-ser-
vice, and unmanageable overheating has occurred during the
short time. This area will very slowly increase with any

increase of speed. (Proc. Inst. C. E., Feb. 1893) says: One of the most vital points of an en-
gine is that of main bearings. They should have a sur-
face speed exceeding 350 feet per minute, with a mean bearing-
area of projected area of journal of not more than 80
square inches. It is probably within the safe limit of cool performance and easy
bearings are designed in this way, it would admit the use
of the main wearing-surface, which in a large type of engines
is the most important.

In a Bearing.—Mr. Beauchamp Tower (Proc. Inst.
C. E., 1886) made experiments with a brass bearing 4 inches diameter
(the journal was 3 inches diameter) determine the pressure of the oil between the brass and
journal. The bearing was half immersed in oil, and had a total load of
1000 lbs. The journal rotated 150 revolutions per minute. The
oil pressure was determined by drilling small holes in the bearing at
intervals, and connecting them by tubes to a Bourdon gauge. It was
found that the pressure varied from 310 to 625 lbs. per square inch, the great-
est pressure being on the "off" side of the centre line of the top of
the journal. The sum of the up-
per and lower pressures for the whole lubricated area was
the total pressure on the bearing. The speed was reduced
to 75 revolutions, but the oil-pressure remained the same, showing
that the oil was completely oil-borne at the lower speed as at the
higher speed. The observed friction at the lower speed:

Oil pressure, lbs. per square inch.	443	333	211	89
Friction00132	.00168	.00247	.0044

per square inch is the total load divided by the product of
length of the journal. At the same low speed of 20 revo-
lutions the oil pressure was increased to 676 lbs. per square inch without any
oil being used.

Car-Journal Brasses. (J. E. Dentor
Proc. Inst. C. E., 1886) says: A brass
journal dressed with an emery-wheel, for
bearing-surface on the journal, as at

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of a portion of the surface, of only 1 square inch. With this pressure of lbs. per square inch, the coefficient of friction may be 5%, and the brass be overheated, scarred and cut but, on the contrary, it may wear down to a smooth bearing, giving a highly polished area of contact of 7/8 inches, or more, inside of two hours of running, gradually decreasing pressure per square inch of contact, and a coefficient of friction of less than 0.5%. A reciprocating motion in the direction of the axis is of import in reducing the friction. With such polished surfaces any oil will lubricate and the coefficient of friction then depends on the viscosity of the oil. At a pressure of 1000 lbs. per square inch, revolutions from 170 to 330 per min. and temperatures of 75° to 113° F. with both sperm and paraffine oils efficient of as low as 0.11% has been obtained, the oil being fed continually by a pad.

Experiments on Overheating of Bearings.—Hot B. (Denton.)—Tests with car brasses loaded from 1100 to 4300 lbs. per square inch gave 7 cases of overheating out of 32 trials. The tests show how a matter of chance is the overheating, as a brass which ran hot at 30 lbs. load on one day would run cool on a later date at the same or higher pressure. The explanation of this apparently arbitrary difference of behavior is that the accidental variations of the smoothness of the surfaces, and the finiteness in their magnitude, cause variations of friction which are tending to produce overheating, and it is solely a matter of chance that these tendencies preponderate over the lubricating influence of the oil. There is no appreciable advantage shown by sperm-oil, when there is a tendency to overheat—that is, paraffine can lubricate under the highest pressures which occur, as well as sperm, when the surfaces are within the limits affording the minimum coefficients of friction.

Sperm and other oils of high heat-resisting qualities, like vegetable and petroleum cylinder stocks, only differ from the more volatile lubri-
cants like paraffine, in their ability to reduce the chances of the continuous and infinitesimal abrasion producing overheating.

The effect of emery or other gritty substance in reducing overheating of bearings is thus explained:

The effect of the emery upon the surfaces of the bearings is to cut the latter with a series of parallel grooves, and apparently after such grooves are made the presence of the emery does not practically increase the friction over the amount of the latter when pure oil only is between the surfaces. The infinite number of grooves constitute a very perfect means of insuring a uniform oil supply at every point of the bearings. As long as grooves in the journal match with those in the brasses the friction appears to be about only about 10% to 15% of the pressure. But if a smooth journal is applied between a set of brasses which are grooved, and pressure be applied the journal crushes the grooves and becomes brazed or coated with brass, then the coefficient of friction becomes upward of 40%. If then emery is applied, the friction is made very much less by its presence, because grooves are made to match each other, and a uniform oil supply prevails at every point of the bearings, whereas before the application of the emery many spots of the latter receive no oil between them.

Moment of Friction and Work of Friction of Sliding Surfaces, etc.

	Moment of Friction, inch-lbs.	Energy lost by Friction, in ft.-lbs. per rev.
Flat surfaces.....	fW	fW
Shafts and journals.....	$\frac{1}{2}fWd$	$.2618fWdn$
Flat pivots.....	$\frac{1}{2}fWl$	$.1745fWln$
Collar-bearing.....	$\frac{1}{2}fW \frac{r_2^2 - r_1^2}{r_2 - r_1}$	$.1745fWn \frac{r_2^2 - r_1^2}{r_2 - r_1}$
Conical pivot.....	$\frac{1}{2}fWl \csc \alpha$	$.1745fWln \csc \alpha$
Conical journal.....	$\frac{1}{2}fWl \sec \alpha$	$.1745fWln \sec \alpha$
Truncated-cone pivot.....	$\frac{1}{2}fW \frac{r_2^2 - r_1^2}{r_2 \sin \alpha}$	$.1745fWn \frac{r_2^2 - r_1^2}{r_2 \sin \alpha}$
Spherical pivot.....	fWl	$.3285fWln$
Conical pivot, Schiele's "anti-friction".....	fWl	$.3285fWln$

the above f = coefficient of friction;
 W = weight on journal or pivot in pounds;
 r = radius, d = diameter, in inches;
 S = space in feet through which sliding takes place;
 r_2 = outer radius, r_1 = inner radius;
 n = number of revolutions per minute;
 α = the half-angle of the cone, i.e., the angle of the slope with the axis.

To obtain the horse-power, divide the quantities in the last column by

$$30. \text{ Horse-power absorbed by friction of a shaft} = \frac{fWdn}{126050}$$

The formula for energy lost by shafts and journals is approximately true for loosely fitted bearings. Prof. Thurston shows that the correct formula varies according to the character of fit of the bearing; thus for loosely fitted journals, if U = the energy lost,

$$U = \frac{2f\pi r}{\sqrt{1+f^2}} Wn \text{ inch-pounds} = \frac{.2618fWdn}{\sqrt{1+f^2}} \text{ foot-lbs.}$$

For perfectly fitted journals $U = 2.54f\pi r Wn$ inch-lbs. = $.3325fWdn$, ft.-lbs.
 For a bearing in which the journal is so grasped as to give a uniform pressure throughout, $U = f\pi^2 r Wn$ inch-lbs. = $.412fWdn$, ft.-lbs.
 Resistance of railway trains and wagons due to friction of trains:

$$\text{Pull on draw-bar} = \frac{f \times 2240}{R} \text{ pounds per gross ton,}$$

in which R is the ratio of the radius of the wheel to the radius of journal. In a cylindrical journal, perfectly fitted into a bearing, and carrying a total load W , the pressure distributes the pressure due to this load unequally on the bearing, the maximum pressure being at the extremity of the vertical radius, while at the extremities of the horizontal diameter the pressure is zero. At any point of the bearing-surface at the extremity of a radius which makes an angle θ with the vertical radius the normal pressure is proportional to $\cos \theta$. w = normal pressure on a unit of surface, w = total load on a unit of surface of the journal, and r = radius of journal,

$$w \cos \theta = 1.57rp, \quad p = \frac{w \cos \theta}{1.57r}.$$

PIVOT-BEARINGS.

The Schiele Curve.—W. H. Harrison, in a letter to the *Am. Machinist* (1891), says the Schiele curve is not as good a form for a bearing as the form of a sphere. He says: A mill-stone weighing a ton frequently rests its whole weight upon the flat end of a hard-steel pivot $1\frac{1}{8}$ " diameter, the square inch area of bearing; but to carry a weight of 3000 lbs. he uses an end bearing about 4 inches diameter, made in the form of a segment of a sphere about $\frac{1}{2}$ inch in height. The die or fixed bearing should be finished to fit the pivot. This form gives a chance for the bearing to rest itself, which it does not have when made flat, or when made with the Schiele curve. If a side bearing is necessary it can be arranged farther up the shaft. The pivot and die should be of steel, hardened; cross-gutters should be in the die to allow oil to flow, and a central oil-hole should be in the shaft.

The advantage claimed for the Schiele bearing is that the pressure is uniformly distributed over its surface, and that it therefore wears uniformly. Prof. Lewis (*Am. Mach.*, April 19, 1894) says that its merits as a thrust-bearing have been vastly overestimated; that the term "anti-friction" applied to it is a misnomer, since its friction is greater than that of a flat collar of the same diameter. He advises that flat thrust-bearings should always be annular in form, having an inside diameter one-half of external diameter.

Action of a Flat Pivot-bearing.—The Research Committee on Friction (*Proc. Inst. M. E.* 1891) experimented on a step-bearing, flat $1\frac{1}{2}$ in. diam., the oil being forced into the bearing through a hole $\frac{1}{16}$ in. diam. and distributed through two radial grooves, insuring thorough lubrication. The step was of steel and the bearing of manganese-bronze.

At revolutions per min.....	50	128	194	280
The coefficient of friction varied between	.0181	.0053	.0051	.0041
	and .0221	.0113	.0102	.0178

With a white-metal bearing at 128 revolutions the coefficient of friction was a little larger than with the manganese-bronze. At the higher speeds the coefficient of friction was less, owing to the more perfect lubrication shown by the more rapid circulation of the oil. At 128 revolutions the bronze bearing heated and seized on one occasion with a load of 200 pounds and on another occasion with 300 pounds per square inch. The white-metal bearing under similar conditions heated and seized with a load of 100 pounds per square inch. The steel footstep on manganese-bronze was afterwards tried, lubricating with three and with four radial grooves; the friction was from one and a half times to twice as great as with only one groove. (See also Allowable Pressures, page 936.)

Mercury-bath Pivot.—A nearly frictionless step-bearing is obtained by floating the bearing with its superincumbent weight upon mercury. Such an apparatus is used in the lighthouses of La Heve, Haas, is thus described in *Eng'g*, July 14, 1893, p. 41:

The optical apparatus, weighing about 1 ton, rests on a circular table, which is supported by a vertical shaft of wrought iron 12 in. diameter.

This is kept in position at the top by a bronze ring and outer iron ring, and at the bottom in the same way, while it rotates on a removal pivot resting in a steel socket, which is fitted to the base of the support. The vertical shaft there is rigidly fixed a floating cast-iron ring 17.13 in. outer and 11.8 in. in depth, which is plunged into and rotates in a bath contained in a fixed outer drum or tank, the clearance between the vertical surfaces of the drum and ring being only 0.2 in., so as to contain as much as possible the volume of mercury (about 230 lbs.), while the radial clearance at the bottom is 0.1 in.

BALL-BEARINGS, FRICTION ROLLERS, ETC.

A. H. Tyler (*Eng'g*, Oct. 20, 1893, p. 483), after experiments in comparison with experiments of others arrives at the following conclusions: That each ball must have two points of contact only.

The balls and race must be of glass hardness, and of absolute truth. The balls should be of the largest possible diameter which the application will admit of.

Any one ball should be capable of carrying the total load upon the two rows of balls are always sufficient.

A ball-bearing requires no oil, and has no tendency to heat unless loaded.

Until the crushing strength of the balls is being neared, the friction resistance is proportional to the load.

The frictional resistance is inversely proportional to the diameter of the balls, but in what exact proportion Mr. Tyler is unable to say. It varies with the square.

The resistance is independent of the number of balls and of the speed. No rubbing action will take place between the balls, and devices against it are unnecessary, and usually injurious.

The above will show that the ball-bearing is most suitable for high and light loads. On the spindles of wood-carving machines some run as much as 30,000 revolutions per minute. They run perfectly cool, and have any oil upon them. For heavy loads the balls should not be less than two-thirds the diameter of the shaft, and are better if made equal to it.

Ball-bearings have not been found satisfactory for thrust loads, the reason apparently that the tables crowd together. Better results have been obtained from coned rollers. A combined system of rollers and balls is described in *Eng'g*, Oct. 5, 1893, p. 429.

Friction-rollers.—If a journal instead of revolving on ball bearings be supported on friction-rollers the force required to make it revolve will be reduced in nearly the same proportion that the diameter of the axes of the rollers is less than the diameter of the rollers than in experiments by A. M. Wellington with a journal $3\frac{1}{2}$ in. diam. on rollers 8 in. diam., whose axes were $1\frac{3}{4}$ in. diam. The friction on the journal rest was $\frac{1}{4}$ the friction of an ordinary bearing. When running at a speed of 10 miles per hour it was $\frac{1}{5}$ that of the ordinary bearing. The diameter of the axle to diam. of roller was $1\frac{3}{4}$, or as $1\frac{3}{4}$ to 1.

bearings for Very High Rotative Speeds. (Proc. Inst. Mech. Engrs., 1888, p. 482.)—In the Parsons steam-turbine, which has a speed of 18,000 rev. per min., as it is impossible to secure absolute balance, the bearings are of special construction so as to allow of a small amount of lateral freedom. For this purpose the bearing is made up by two sets of steel washers 1/16 inch thick and of different diameters, the larger fitting close in the casing and about 1/32 inch clear on the outside, and the smaller fitting close on the bearing and about 1/32 inch clear on the inside of the casing. These are arranged alternately, and are prevented from sliding together by a spiral spring. Consequently any lateral movement of the bearing causes them to slide mutually against one another, and by this friction tends to check or damp any vibrations that may be set up in the spindle. The tendency of the spindle is then to rotate about its axis of mass, or point of equilibrium, as it is called; and the bearings are thereby relieved from excessive pressure, and the machine from undue vibration. The finding of the centre of gyration, or rather allowing the turbine itself to find its own centre of gyration, is a well-known device in other branches of mechanics. In the instance of the centrifugal hydro-extractor, where a mass of water out of balance is allowed to find its own centre of gyration; the faster it revolves the more steadily did it revolve and the less was the vibration. A similar illustration is to be found in the spindles of spinning machines, which run at about 10,000 or 11,000 revolutions per minute; they are made of hardened and tempered steel, and although of very small dimensions, the diameter of the largest portion or driving whorl being perhaps not more than 1 1/4 in., it is found impracticable to run them at that speed unless they are supported on a hard-and-fast bearing. They are therefore run with an elastic substance surrounding the bearing, such as steel springs, hemp, or cork. Any elastic substance is sufficient to absorb the vibration, and to permit of absolutely steady running.

FRICION OF STEAM-ENGINES.

Distribution of the Friction of Engines.—Prof. Thurston in his paper "Friction and Lost Work," gives the following:

	1.	2.	3.
Main bearings.....	47.0	35.4	35.0
Piston and rod.....	32.9	25.0	21.0
Crank-pin.....	6.8	5.1	13.0
Cross-head and wrist-pin.....	5.4	4.1	
Valve and rod.....	2.5	26.4	22.0
Eccentric strap.....	5.3	4.0	
Link and eccentric.....	9.01
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0

No. 1, Straight-line, 6" x 12", balanced valve; No. 2, Straight-line, 6" x 12", balanced valve; No. 3, 7" x 10", Lansing traction locomotive valve-gear. Prof. Thurston's tests on a number of different styles of engines indicate that the friction of any engine is practically constant under all loads. (Trans. A. S. M. E., viii, 86; ix, 74.)

In a straight-line engine, 8" x 14", I.H.P. from 7.41 to 57.54, the friction H.P. varied irregularly between 1.97 and 4.02, the variation being independent of the load. With 50 H.P. on the brake the I.H.P. was only 52.6, the friction H.P. only 2.6 H.P., or about 5%.

A compound condensing-engine, tested from 0 to 102.6 brake H.P., gave I.H.P. from 14.92 to 117.8 H.P., the friction H.P. varying only from 14.92 to 15.2. At the maximum load the friction was 15.2 H.P., or 12.9%.

The friction increases with increase of the boiler-pressure from 30 to 70 lb. and then becomes constant. The friction generally increases with increase of speed, but there are exceptions to this rule.

Deuton (*Stevens Indicator*, July, 1890), comparing the calculated friction of a number of engines with the friction as determined by measurements, finds that in one case, a 75-ton ammonia ice-machine, the friction of the compressor, 17 1/2 H.P., is accounted for by a coefficient of friction of 7 1/2% of the external bearings, allowing 6% of the entire friction of the machine for the friction of pistons, stuffing-boxes, and valves. In the case of the steam-pump engine, estimating the friction of the external bearings as 1% of the I.H.P. and that of the pistons, valves, and stuffing-boxes as follows:

	Horse-power.	Per cent of Work.
Crank-pins and effect of piston-thrust on main shaft.....	0.71	7.4
Weight of fly-wheel and main shaft.....	1.95	20.4
Steam-valves.....	0.35	3.7
Eccentric.....	0.07	1.4
Pistons.....	0.43	4.5
Stuffing-boxes, six altogether.....	0.72	7.5
Air-pump.....	2.10	22.1
Total friction of engine with load.....	6.21	100
Total friction per cent of indicated power.....	4.27	

The friction of this engine, though very low in proportion to the indicated power, is satisfactorily accounted for by Morin's law used with a coefficient of friction of 5%. In both cases the main items of friction are those of the weight of the fly-wheel and main shaft and to the piston-thrust on the crank-pins and main-shaft bearings. In the ice-machine the latter are the larger owing to the extra crank-pin to work the pumps in the Pawtucket engine the former preponderates, as the crank-thrust is partly absorbed by the pump-pistons, and only the surplus effect of the crank-shaft.

Prof. Denton describes in *Trans. A. S. M. E.*, x, 392, an apparatus which he measured the friction of a piston packing-ring. When the ends of the piston were thoroughly devoid of lubricant, the coefficient of friction was found to be about 7½%; with an oil-feed of one drop in two minutes the coefficient was about 5%; with one drop per minute it was about 3½%. Rates of feed gave unsatisfactory lubrication, the piston grinding the ends of the stroke when run slowly, and the flow of oil left upon the piston was found by analysis to contain about 50% of iron. A feed of two drops per minute reduced the coefficient of friction to about 1%, and gave perfect lubrication, the oil retaining its natural color and purity.

LUBRICATION.

Measurement of the Durability of Lubricants. (J. E. Denton, *Trans. A. S. M. E.*, xi, 1013.)—Practical differences of durability of lubricants depend not on any differences of inherent ability to resist being "rubbed out" by rubbing, but upon the rate at which they flow through and upon the bearing-surfaces. The conditions which control this flow are delicate in their influence that all attempts thus far made to measure the ability of lubricants may be said to have failed to make distinctions of value having any practical significance. In some kinds of work the limit to the consumption of oil depends upon the extent to which dust and refuse becomes mixed with it, as in railroad-car lubrication and in the use of agricultural machinery. The economy of one oil over another, where the quality used is concerned—that is, so far as durability is concerned, is simply proportional to the rate at which it can insinuate itself into the narrowest of minute orifices or cracks. Oils will differ in their ability to do this, first, in proportion to their viscosity, and, second, in proportion to their pillary properties which they may possess by virtue of the particular ingredients used in their composition. Where the thickness of film between bearing-surfaces must be so great that large amounts of oil pass between the bearings in a given time, and the surroundings are such as to permit the oil to be fed at high temperatures or applied by a method not requiring a high fluidity, it is probable that the least amount of oil will be used when the viscosity is as great as in the petroleum cylinder stocks. When, however, the oil must flow freely at ordinary temperatures and the feed is restricted, as in the case of crank-pin bearings, it is not practicable to use such heavy oils in a satisfactory manner. Oils of less viscosity and fluidity approximating to lard-oil must then be used.

Relative Value of Lubricants. (J. E. Denton, *Am. Mach.*, 1890.)—The three elements which determine the value of a lubricant are: first, the cost due to consumption of lubricants, the cost spent for coal to overcome the frictional resistance caused by use of the lubricant, and the cost due to metallic wear on the journal and the brasses. In cotton-mills the power is alone to be considered; in rolling-mills and many other cases the cost of the quantity of lubricant used is the only important element. In railroads not only do both these elements enter the problem,

t the cost of the wearing away of the metallic parts enters in ad-
 furthermore, the latter is the greatest element of cost in the case.
Qualifications of a Good Lubricant, as laid down by
 ey, in Proc Inst. C. E., vol. xlv., p. 372, are: 1. Sufficient body
 surfaces free from contact under maximum pressure. 2. The
 possible fluidity consistent with the foregoing condition. 3. The
 sible coefficient of friction, which in bath lubrication would be for
 on approximately. 4. The greatest capacity for storing and
 way heat. 5. A high temperature of decomposition. 6. Power
 idation or the action of the atmosphere. 7. Freedom from cor-
 on on the metals upon which used.

Lubricants for Different Purposes. (Thurston.)

temperatures, as in rock-drills of compressed air:	}	Light mineral lubricating-oils.
pressures, slow speed...		
pressures, with slow speed...	}	Graphite, soapstone, and other solid lubricants.
pressures and high speed....		
pressures and high speed....	}	The above, and lard, tallow, and other greases.
pressures and high speed....		
pressures and high speed....	}	Sperm-oil, castor-oil, and heavy min- eral oils.
pressures and high speed....		
pressures and high speed....	}	Sperm, refined petroleum, olive, rape, cotton-seed.
pressures and high speed....		
pressures and high speed....	}	Lard-oil, tallow-oil, heavy mineral oils, and the heavier vegetable oils.
pressures and high speed....		
pressures and high speed....	}	Heavy mineral oils, lard, tallow.
pressures and high speed....		
pressures and high speed....	}	Clarified sperm, neat's-foot, porpoise, olive, and light mineral lubricating oils.
pressures and high speed....		

ture with mineral oils, sperm is best; lard is much used; olive and
 d are good.

Amount of Oil needed to Run an Engine.—The Vacuum Oil
 2, in response to an inquiry as to cost of oil to run a 1000-H.P.
 gine, wrote: The cost of running two engines of equal size of the
 te is not always the same. Therefore while we could furnish
 owing what it is costing some of our customers having Corliss
 1000 H.P., we could only give a general idea, which in itself
 considerably out of the way as to the probable cost of cylinder-
 oils per year for a particular engine. Such an engine ought to
 y on less than 8 drops of 600 W oil per minute. If 3000 drops are
 the quart, and 8 drops used per minute, it would take about
 ne half barrels (52.5 gallons) of 600 W cylinder-oil, at 65 cents per
 about \$85 for cylinder-oil per year, running 6 days a week and 10
 y. Engine-oil would be even more difficult to guess at what the
 l be, because it would depend upon the number of cups required
 fine, which varies somewhat according to the style of the engine.
 oubtedly be safe, however, to calculate at the outside that not
 twice as much engine-oil would be required as of cylinder-oil.
 um Oil Co. in 1892 published the following results of practice
 "W" cylinder-oil:

compound engine,	}	20 and 33 × 48; 83 revs. per min.; 1 drop of oil per min. to 1 drop in two minutes.
simple exp. " "		
en " "	}	20, 33, and 46 × 48; 1 drop every 2 minutes. 30 and 36 × 36; 143 revs. per min.; 2 drops of oil per min., reduced afterwards to 1 drop per min.
" "		
" "	}	15 × 25 × 16; 240 revs. per min.; 1 drop every 4 minutes.
" "		

of tests on ocean-steamers communicated to the author by Prof.
 1892 gave: for 1200-H.P. marine engine, 5 to 6 English gallons (6 to
 als.) of engine-oil per 24 hours for external lubrication; and for a
 marine engine, triple expansion, running 75 revs. per min., 6 to 7
 als. per 24 hours. The cylinder-oil consumption is exceedingly
 from 1 to 4 gals. per day on different engines, including cylinder-
 wab the piston-rods.

Quantity of Oil used on a Locomotive Crank-pin
 s. A. S. M. E., xl. 1020, says: A very economical case
 on is when a locomotive main crank-pin consumes

cubic inches of oil in a thousand miles of service. This is equivalent to a consumption of one milligram to seventy square inches of surface rubbed over.

The Examination of Lubricating-oils. (Prof. Thos. B. Stillman, *Stevens Indicator*, July, 1890.)—The generally accepted conditions of a good lubricant are as follows:

1. "Body" enough to prevent the surfaces, to which it is applied, from coming in contact with each other. (Viscosity.)
2. Freedom from corrosive acid, either of mineral or animal origin.
3. As fluid as possible consistent with "body."
4. A minimum coefficient of friction.
5. High "flash" and burning points.
6. Freedom from all materials liable to produce oxidation or "gumming."

The examinations to be made to verify the above are both chemical and mechanical, and are usually arranged in the following order:

1. Identification of the oil, whether a simple mineral oil, or animal oil, or a mixture.
2. Density.
3. Viscosity.
4. Flash-point.
5. Burning-point.
6. Acidity.
7. Coefficient of friction.
8. Cold test.

Detailed directions for making all of the above tests are given in Prof. Stillman's article.

Weights of Oil per Gallon.—The following are approximately the weights per gallon of different kinds of oil (Penn. R. R. Specifications):

Lard-oil, tallow-oil, neat's-foot oil, bone-oil, colza-oil, mustard-seed oil, rape-seed oil, paraffine-oil, 500° fire-test oil, engine-oil, and cylinder lubricant, 7½ pounds per gallon.

Well-oil and passenger-car oil, 7.4 pounds per gallon; navy sperm-oil, 7.2 pounds per gallon; signal-oil, 7.1 pounds per gallon; 300° burning-oil, 6.3 pounds per gallon; and 150° burning-oil, 6.6 pounds per gallon.

Penna. R. R. Specifications for Petroleum Products, 1889.—Five different grades of petroleum products will be used.

The materials desired under this specification are the products of the distillation and refining of petroleum unmixd with any other substances.

150° Fire-test Oil.—This grade of oil will not be accepted if sample (1) is not "water-white" in color; (2) flashes below 130° Fahrenheit; (3) burns below 151° Fahrenheit; (4) is cloudy or shipment has cloudy barrels when received, from the presence of glue or suspended matter; (5) becomes opaque or shows cloud when the sample has been 10 minutes at a temperature of 0° Fahrenheit.

The flashing and burning points are determined by heating the oil in an open vessel, not less than 12° per minute, and applying the test flame every 7°, beginning at 123° Fahrenheit. The cold test may be conveniently made by having an ounce of the oil in a four-ounce sample bottle, with a thermometer suspended in the oil, and exposing this to a freezing mixture of ice and salt. It is advisable to stir with the thermometer while the oil is cooling. The oil must remain transparent in the freezing mixture ten minutes after it has cooled to zero.

300° Fire-test Oil.—This grade of oil will not be accepted if sample (1) is not "water white" in color; (2) flashes below 249° Fahrenheit; (3) burns below 298° Fahrenheit; (4) is cloudy or shipment has cloudy barrels when received, from the presence of glue or suspended matter; (5) becomes opaque or shows cloud when the sample has been 10 minutes at a temperature of 32° Fahrenheit.

The flashing and burning points are determined the same as for 150° fire-test oil, except that the oil is heated 15° per minute, test-flame being applied first at 243° Fahrenheit. The cold test is made the same as above, except that ice and water are used.

Paraffine-oil.—This grade of oil will not be accepted if the sample (1) is other than pale-lemon color; (2) flashes below 249° Fahrenheit; (3) shows viscosity less than 40 seconds or more than 65 seconds when tested as described under "Well Oil" at 100° Fahrenheit throughout the year; (4) has gravity at 60° Fahrenheit, below 24° Baumé, or above 29° Baumé; (5) from October 1st to May 1st has a cold test above 10° Fahrenheit.

The flashing-point is determined same as for 300° fire-test oil. The cold test is determined as follows: A couple of ounces of oil is put in a four-ounce sample bottle, and a thermometer placed in it. The oil is then frozen, a freezing mixture of ice and salt being used if necessary. When the oil has become hard, the bottle is removed from the freezing mixture and the frozen oil allowed to soften, being stirred and thoroughly mixed at the same time by means of the thermometer, until the mass will run from cone No. 4.

to the other. The reading of the thermometer when this is the case is recorded as the cold test of the oil.

—This grade of oil will not be accepted if the sample (1) flashes, 1st to October 1st, below 249° Fahrenheit, or from October 1st to May 1st 200° Fahrenheit; (2) has a gravity, at 60° Fahrenheit, below 1.000 or above 30°; (3) from October 1st to May 1st has a cold test Fahrenheit; (4) shows any precipitation in 10 minutes when 5 cubic centimetres are mixed with 95 cubic centimetres of 88° gasoline; (5) has a viscosity less than 55 seconds, or more than 100 seconds, when tested at 100° Fahrenheit. From October 1st to May 1st the test must be made at 110° Fahrenheit, and from May 1st to October 1st at 110° Fahrenheit. For winter oil the flashing point is determined the same as for paraffine-oil. The cold test is made the same as for paraffine-oil. The precipitation test is to exclude tarry and suspended matter. It is made by putting 5 cubic centimetres of the oil in a 100-cubic-centimetre flask, then filling to the mark with gasoline, and thoroughly

shaking. The test is made as follows: A 100 cubic-centimetre pipette of the same form is regraduated to hold just 100 cubic centimetres to the bottom.

The size of the aperture at the bottom is then made such that 100 cubic centimetres of water at 100° Fahrenheit will run out the pipette in 31 seconds. Pipettes with bulbs varying in diameter from 1 1/4 inches to 1 1/2 inches long, and about 4 1/2 inches in diameter, will give exactly the same results, provided the aperture at the bottom is of the same size. The pipette being obtained, the oil sample is heated to 100° Fahrenheit, care being taken to have it uniformly heated, and then poured into the pipette to the proper mark. The time occupied in running out, down to the bottom of the bulb, gives the test.

Well-Oil Test.—This grade of oil will not be accepted if sample (1) has a gravity at 60° Fahrenheit; (2) shows precipitation with gasoline when tested for well-oil.

The flashing-point is determined the same as for well-oil, except that the test is applied first at 438° Fahrenheit.

SOLID LUBRICANTS.

Graphite.—Graphite, when in a condition of powder and used as a *solid lubricant*, so distinguishes it from a liquid lubricant, has been found to do well where other lubricants have failed.

In 1829, says: "Graphite lessened friction in all cases where it was used." General Morin, at a later date, concluded from experiments that graphite could be used with advantage under heavy pressures; and Prof. Morin found it well adapted for use under both light and heavy pressures and with certain oils. It is especially valuable to prevent abrasion under heavy loads and at low velocities.

Talc.—Talc, also called talc and steatite, in the form of powder and mixed with oil or fat, is sometimes used as a lubricant. Graphite or soap, mixed with soap, is used on surfaces of wood working against either metal or wood.

Graphite-bearing.—A new self-lubricating bearing known as fibre-graphite, described by John H. Cooper in *Trans. A. S. M. E.*, xlii, 374, and also by one of P. H. Holmes, of Gardiner, Me. This bearing material is made of selected natural graphite, which has been finely divided and freed from foreign and gritty matter, to which is added wood-fibre or other material and then solidified by pressure in specially prepared moulds; the material from which the bearings are first thoroughly dried, then saturated with a drying oil, and finally subjected to a current of hot, dry air for the purpose of oxidizing the oil, and hardening the mass. When finished, the bearing is "machined" to size or shape with the same facility and means as used in the case of ordinary bearings.

Graphite compound.—This is a solid compound, usually containing graphite, made in the form of all cylinders which are fitted permanently into holes drilled in the shaft of the bearing. The bearing thus fitted runs without any other

hour, of cupolas from 24 inches to 84 inches in diameter.

Capacity of Cupola.—The accompanying table will be of mining the capacity of cupola needed for the production of iron in a specified time.

First, ascertain the amount of iron which is likely to be cast, and the length of time which can be devoted profitably and supposing that two hours is all that can be spared for that ten tons is the amount which must be melted, find in the following Capacity per hour in Pounds, the nearest figure to five which is found to be 10,760 pounds per hour, opposite to which Diameter of Cupolas, Inside Lining, will be found 48 inches. This size of cupola required to furnish ten tons of molten iron in two hours.

Or suppose that the heats were likely to average 6 tons, which increase up to ten, then it might not be thought wise to increase consequent on working a 48-inch cupola, in which case the directions given, it will be found that a 40-inch cupola would purpose for 6 tons, but would require an additional hour's time whenever the 10-ton heat came along.

The quotations in the table are not supposed to be all that can be melted in the hour by some of the very best cupolas, but are such as which a common cupola under ordinary circumstances may melt in the time specified.

Height of Cupola.—By height of cupola is meant the distance from the base to the bottom side of the charging hole.

Depth of Bottom of Cupola.—Depth of bottom is the distance from the top of the sand-bed, after it has been formed at the bottom of the cupola to the under side of the tuyeres.

All the amounts for fuel are based upon a bottom of 10 inches. Any departure from this depth must be met by a corresponding increase or decrease in the quantity of fuel used on the bed; more in proportion to the depth increased, and less when it is made shallower.

Amount of Fuel Required on the Bed.—The column "Amount of Fuel Required on Bed, in Pounds" is based on the supposition that the fuel is straight one all through, and that the bottom is 10 inches deep. If the bottom be more, as in those of the Colliery type, then additional fuel will be needed.

The amounts being given in pounds, answer for both cases. If anthracite coal be used, it would reach about 15 inches above the bottom; if the same weight of coke would bring it up to about 22 inches above the bottom, which is a reliable amount to stock with.

First Charge of Iron.—The amounts given in this column are for the first charge of iron.

tuyeres 16 inches by $13\frac{1}{2}$ inches.

If it is found that the given number of flat tuyeres exc that of the diminished part of the cupola, they can be the decreased length to be added to the depth, or the end; by so doing, we arrive at a modified form of the F

Another important point in this connection is to ar such a manner as will concentrate the fire at the m smallest possible compass, so that the metal in fusio to traverse while exposed to the oxidizing influence of

To accomplish this, recourse has been had to the ; rows of tuyeres in some instances—the "Stewart ray three rows, and the "Colliau cupola furnace" having t

Blast-pressure.—Experiments show that about 30,000 consumed in melting a ton of iron, which would weigh or more than both iron and fuel. When the proper q plied, the combustion of the fuel is perfect, and car result. When the supply of air is insufficient, the coal and carbonic-oxide gas is the result. The amount of l two cases is as 15 to $4\frac{1}{2}$ showing a loss of over two thir perfect combustion.

It is not always true that we obtain the most rapid r forcing into the cupola the l rgest quantity of air. S to elevate the temperature of the air supplied to the p into combustion. If more air than this is supplied, it r reduces the temperature, and retards combustion, and may be extinguished with too mu. h blast.

Slag in Cupolas.—A certain amount of slag is nece molten iron which has fallen to the bottom from the ac it was not there, the iron would suffer from decarboiliz

When slag from any cause forms in too great abunda away by inserting a hole a little below the tuyeres, t find its way as the iron rises in the bottom.

In the event of clean iron and fuel, slag seldom form extent in small heats; this renders any preparation fo necessary, but when the cupola is to be taxed to its then incumbent on the melter to flux the charges all th rying it away in the manner directed.

ld 8 to 10 pounds of metal; any well-constructed cupola will

(*Am. Mach.*, Mar. 5, 1891) gives the following as the practice iron-works, Carteret, N. J.: "We melt daily from twenty to 25 tons, with an average of 11.2 pounds of iron to one of fuel. In seven to nine pounds is good melting, but in a cupola that is 48 inches, anything less than nine pounds shows a defect in the tuyeres or strength of blast, or in charging up." The *Iron Age's* Text-book," by Thos. D. West, gives forty-six reports in the cupola practice in thirty States, reaching from Maine to

Charges in Stove-foundries. (*Iron Age*, April 14, 1892.) The charges are charged exactly the same. The amount of fuel on the charges differs, while varying amounts of iron are used.

Below will be found charging-lists from some of the foundries in the country:

	lbs.		lbs.
Coke	1,500	Four next charges of coke,	
Weight of iron	5,000	each	150
Charges of iron	1,000	Six next charges of coke, each	120
Second charges		Nineteen next charges of coke,	
each	200	each	100

Melt of 18 tons there would be 5120 lbs. of coke used, giving a ratio of 1 to 1. Increase the amount of iron melted to 24 tons, and a ratio of 1 to 1 of coal is obtained.

	lbs.		lbs.
Coke	1,600	Second and third charges of	
Weight of iron	1,800	fuel	120
Weight of fuel	150	All other charges of fuel, each	100
Charges of iron,			
second charges	1,000		

Melt 5060 lbs. of coke would be necessary, giving a ratio of 1 to 1 pound of coke.

	lbs.		lbs.
Coke	1,600	All other charges of iron	2,000
Weight of iron	4,000	All other charges of coke	150
Second charges			
each	200		

8 tons 4100 lbs. of coke would be used, or a ratio of 8.5 to 1.

	lbs.		lbs.
Coke	1,800	All charges of coke, each	200
Weight of iron	5,600	All other charges of iron	2,900

18 tons, 3000 lbs. of fuel would be used, giving a ratio of 9.4 to 1 of coke. Very high, indeed, for stove-plate.

	lbs.		lbs.
Coal	1,900	All other charges of iron, each	2,000
Weight of iron	5,000	All other charges of coal, each	175
Weight of coal	200		

18 tons 4700 lbs. of coal would be used, giving a ratio of 7.7 to 1 of coal.

Sufficient to demonstrate the varying practices existing among foundries. In all these places the iron was proper for stove-plate and apparently there was little or no difference in the kind of sand at the different foundries.

Increased Driving. (*Eric City Iron-works*, 1891.)—60-in. cupola, 100 tons clean castings a week, melting 8 tons per pound of fuel, 7½ lbs.; per cent weight of good castings to 24. *Jan.-May, 1891:* Increased rate of melting to 11¼ tons per lb. fuel, 9½; per cent weight of good castings, 75; one week, 10.3 lbs. iron per lb. fuel; per cent weight of good castings, 75. Increase was made by putting in an additional row of tuyeres per blast, 14 ounces. Coke was used as fuel. (*W. O. V. Text-book*, xii, 1045.)

Buffalo Steel Pressure-blowers, Speeds and Capacities as applied to Cupolas.

Sq. In. Blast.	No. of Blower.	Diameter inside of Cupola, in.	Pressure in oz.	Speed—No. of Revolutions per minute.	Melting Capacity in Pounds, per hour.	Cubic Feet of Air required per minute.	Horse-power required.	Pressure in oz.	Speed—No. of Revolutions, per minute.	Melting Capacity in Pounds, per hour.	Cubic Feet of Air required per minute.
4	4	30	8	4793	1545	412	1.0	9	5093	1647	47
6	5	35	8	3911	2321	619	1.2	10	4509	2509	60
8	6	30	8	3456	3099	825	2.05	10	3974	2673	80
11	7	35	8	3092	4218	1125	3.1	10	3476	4777	104
14	8	40	8	2702	5425	1444	3.9	10	3034	6082	1625
18	9	45	10	2617	7818	2085	7.1	12	2916	8568	2323
26	10	55	10	2139	11295	3012	10.2	12	2358	12473	3397
46	11	73	12	1639	21978	5861	23.9	14	1777	29838	6357
68	12	88	12	1639	32395	8636	35.2	14	1777	35199	6884

In the table are given two different speeds and pressures for each size of blower, and the quantity of iron that may be melted, per hour, with each. In all cases it is recommended to use the lowest pressure of blast that will do the work. Run up to the speed given for that pressure, and regulate the quantity of air by the blast-gate. The tuyere area should be at least one-tenth of the area of cupola in square inches, with not less than four tuyeres at equal distances around cupola, so as to equalize the blast throughout. Variations in temperature affect the working of cupolas materially, weather requiring increase in volume of air.

(For tables of the Sturtevant blower see pages 519 and 520.)

Loss in Melting Iron in Cupolas.—G. O. Vair, *Am. Iron Age*, March 5, 1891, gives a record of a 45-in. Colliat cupola as follows:

Ratio of fuel to iron, 1 to 7.42.

Good castings	21,314 lbs.
New scrap	3,005 "
Millings	300 "
Loss of metal	1,481 "

Amount melted

26,000 lbs.

Loss of metal, 5.69%. Ratio of loss, 1 to 17.55.

Use of Softeners in Foundry Practice. (W. Graham, *Iron Age*, June 27, 1889.)—In the foundry the problem is to have the right proportion of combined and graphitic carbon in the resulting casting; this is done by getting the proper proportion of silicon. The variations in the proportion of silicon afford a reliable and inexpensive means of producing a casting of any required mechanical character which is possible with the material employed. In this way, by mixing suitable irons in the right proportion a required grade of casting can be made more cheaply than by using irons in which the necessary proportions are already found.

If a strong machine casting were required, it would be necessary to have the phosphorus, sulphur, and manganese within certain limits. Prof. Turner found that cast iron which possessed the maximum of the desired qualities contained, graphite, 2.59%; silicon, 1.42%; phosphorus, 0.389% sulphur, 0.06%; manganese, 0.58%.

A strong casting could not be made if there was much increase in amount of phosphorus, sulphur, or manganese. Irons of the above percentages of phosphorus, sulphur, and manganese would be most suitable for the purpose, but they could be of different grades, having different percentages of silicon, combined and graphitic carbon. Thus hard irons, mostly white irons, and even steel scrap, all containing low percentages of phosphorus and high percentages of combined carbon, could be employed, and having a large amount of silicon were mixed with them in sufficient quantity to bring the silicon to the proper proportion and would be combined with them to be forced into the graphitic state, and the

be soft. High-silicon irons used in this way are called "softeners" and are typical analyses of softeners:

Ferro-silicon.				Softeners, American.			Scotch Irons, No. 1.	
Foreign.		American.		Well-ston.	Globe	Belle-fonte.	Eg-linton.	Colt-ness.
10.55	9.80	12.08	10.34	6.67	5.89	3 to 6	2.15	2.59
1.84	0.69	0.06	0.07	...	0.30	0.35	0.21
0.52	1.12	1.52	1.92	2.57	2.85	3.	3.76
3.86	1.95	0.76	0.52	..	1.00	0.53	2.80	1.70
0.04	0.21	0.48	0.45	0.50	1.10	0.35	0.62	0.85
0.03	0.04	Trace	Trace	Trace	0.02	0.03	0.03	0.01

(For other analyses, see pages 371 to 373.)

Iron castings contain a low percentage of total carbon and a high percentage of combined carbon. Carbon is the most important constituent of iron and there should be about 3.4% total carbon present. By adding silicon, which contains only 2% of carbon the amount of carbon in the iron casting is lessened.

It is found that more silicon is lost during the remelting of pig iron than in remelting pig iron of lower percentages of silicon. This is one of the possible disadvantages of using ferro-silicons containing a percentage of combined carbon as 0.70% to overcome the bad combined carbon in other irons.

Most irons generally contain much more phosphorus than is desired and are employed in making the strongest castings. It is a mistake to use a strong low-phosphorus iron as an iron that would increase the phosphorus for the sake of adding softening qualities, when softer irons produced by mixing irons of the same low phosphorus. (See further discussion of the influence of silicon see page 365.)

Shrinkage of Castings.—The allowance necessary for shrinkage varies with the different kinds of metal, and the different conditions under which the casting is made. For castings where the thickness runs about one inch, customary conditions, the following allowance can be made:

Iron, $\frac{1}{8}$ inch per foot.	For zinc, $\frac{5}{16}$ inch per foot.
Steel, $\frac{3}{16}$ " " "	" tin, $\frac{1}{12}$ " " "
" $\frac{1}{4}$ " " "	" aluminum, $\frac{3}{16}$ " " "
Iron, $\frac{1}{8}$ " " "	" Britannia, $\frac{1}{32}$ " " "

Castings, under the same conditions, will shrink less, and thinner than this standard. The quality of the material and the manner of pouring and cooling will also make a difference.

See experiments by W. J. Keep (see Trans. A. S. M. E., vol. xvi.) The shrinkage of cast iron of a given section decreases as the thickness of the section increases, while for a given percentage of silicon the shrinkage decreases as the section is increased. Mr. Keep gives the following table showing the approximate relation of shrinkage to size and percentage of silicon:

Sectional Area of Casting.					
$\frac{1}{4}$ " □	1" □	1" × 2"	2" □	3" □	4" □
Shrinkage in Decimals of an inch per foot of Length.					
.183	.158	.146	.130	.113	.102
.171	.145	.133	.117	.098	.087
.159	.133	.121	.104	.085	.074
.147	.121	.108	.092	.073	.060
.135	.108	.095	.077	.059	.045
.123	.095	.082	.065	.046	.032

iron is 30 ft. per minute, whether for the lathe, planing, shaping machine. (Proc. Inst. M. E., April, 1883, p. 248.)

Table of Cutting-speeds.

Diameter, inches.	Feet per minute.							
	5	10	15	20	25	30	35	40
	Revolutions per minute.							
1/4	76.4	152.8	229.2	305.6	382.0	458.4	534.8	611.2
5/8	50.9	101.9	152.8	203.7	254.6	305.6	356.5	407.4
1/2	38.2	76.4	114.6	152.8	191.0	229.2	267.4	305.6
3/8	30.6	61.1	91.7	122.2	152.8	183.4	213.9	244.5
3/4	25.5	50.9	76.4	101.8	127.3	152.8	178.2	203.7
7/8	21.5	43.7	65.5	87.3	109.1	130.9	152.8	174.6
1	19.1	38.2	57.3	76.4	95.5	114.6	133.7	152.8
1 1/4	17.0	34.0	50.9	67.9	84.9	101.8	118.8	135.8
1 1/2	15.3	30.6	45.8	61.1	76.4	91.7	106.9	122.2
1 3/4	13.9	27.8	41.7	55.6	69.5	83.3	97.2	111.1
1 1/2	12.7	25.5	38.2	50.9	63.6	76.4	89.1	101.8
1 3/4	10.9	21.8	32.7	43.7	54.6	65.5	76.4	87.3
2	9.6	19.1	28.7	38.2	47.8	57.3	66.9	76.4
2 1/4	8.5	17.0	25.5	34.0	42.5	50.9	59.4	67.9
2 1/2	7.6	15.3	22.9	30.6	38.2	45.8	53.5	61.1
2 3/4	6.9	13.9	20.8	27.8	34.7	41.7	48.6	55.6
3	6.4	12.7	19.1	25.5	31.8	38.2	44.6	50.9
3 1/2	5.5	10.9	16.4	21.8	27.3	32.7	38.2	43.7
4	4.8	9.6	14.3	19.1	23.9	28.7	33.4	38.2
4 1/2	4.2	8.5	12.7	17.0	21.2	25.5	29.7	34.0
5	3.8	7.6	11.5	15.3	19.1	22.9	26.7	30.6
5 1/2	3.5	6.9	10.4	13.9	17.4	20.8	24.3	27.8
6	3.2	6.4	9.5	12.7	15.9	19.1	22.3	25.5
7	2.7	5.5	8.2	10.9	13.6	16.4	19.1	21.8
8	2.4	4.8	7.2	9.6	11.9	14.3	16.7	19.1
9	2.1	4.2	6.4	8.5	10.6	12.7	14.8	17.0
10	1.9	3.8	5.7	7.6	9.6	11.5	13.3	15.3
11	1.7	3.5	5.2	6.9	8.7	10.4	12.2	13.9
12	1.6	3.2	4.8	6.4	8.0	9.5	11.1	12.7
13	1.5	2.9	4.4	5.9	7.3	8.8	10.3	11.8
14	1.4	2.7	4.1	5.5	6.8	8.2	9.5	10.9
15	1.3	2.5	3.8	5.1	6.4	7.6	8.9	10.2
16	1.2	2.4	3.6	4.8	6.0	7.2	8.4	9.5
18	1.1	2.1	3.2	4.2	5.3	6.4	7.4	8.5
20	1.0	1.9	2.9	3.8	4.8	5.7	6.7	7.6
22	.9	1.7	2.6	3.5	4.3	5.2	6.1	6.9
24	.8	1.6	2.4	3.2	4.0	4.8	5.6	6.4
26	.7	1.5	2.2	2.9	3.7	4.4	5.1	5.9
28	.7	1.4	2.0	2.7	3.4	4.1	4.8	5.5
30	.6	1.3	1.9	2.5	3.2	3.8	4.5	5.1
36	.5	1.1	1.6	2.1	2.7	3.2	3.7	4.2
42	.5	.9	1.4	1.8	2.3	2.7	3.2	3.6
48	.4	.8	1.2	1.6	2.0	2.4	2.8	3.2
54	.4	.7	1.1	1.4	1.8	2.1	2.5	2.8
60	.3	.6	1.0	1.3	1.6	1.9	2.2	2.5

Speed of Cutting with Turret Lathes.—Jones & Lathie Co. give the following cutting-speeds for use with their lathe:

	Tool steel and taper on tubing.	Fl. P
Threading	Machinery	
	Very soft steel	
Turning machinery steel	Cut which reduces the stock to 1/4 of its original diam	
	Cut which reduces the stock to 3/4 of its original diam	
	Cut which reduces the stock to 1/2 of its original diam	
Turning very soft machinery steel, light cut and cool work.		

Metal-cutting Tools.—"Hutte," the German Engi-
book, gives the following cutting-angles for using least power:

	Top Rake.	Angle of Cutting-edge.
On.....	8°	51°
.....	4°	51°
.....	4°	66°

In *Machinist* comments on these figures as follows: We are
ive the best nor even the generally used angles for tools,
vary so much to suit different circumstances, such as degree
f the metal being cut, quality of steel of which the tool is
f cut, kind of finish desired, etc. The angles that cut with
ditute of power are easily determined by a few experiments,
gles must be determined by good judgment, guided by exper-
y all cases, however, we think the best practical angles are
ose given.

ions and descriptions of various forms of cutting-tools, see
the Tools in App. Cyc. App. Mech., vol. ii., and in Modern

els.—Angle of cutting-faces (Joshua Rose): For cast steel,
es; for gun-metal or brass, about 50 degrees; for copper and
out 30 to 35 degrees.

Gearing Lathes for Screw-cutting. (Garvin Ma-
ad from the lathe index the number of threads per inch cut
, and multiply it by any number that will give for a product
index; put this gear upon the stud, then multiply the number
inch to be cut by the same number, and put the resulting gear
y.

o cut $11\frac{1}{2}$ threads per inch. We find on the index that 48 in
ds per inch, then $6 \times 4 = 24$, gear on stud, and $11' : \times 4 = 46$,

Any multiplier may be used so long as the products include
ng with the lathe. For instance, instead of 4 as a multiplier

Thus, $6 \times 6 = 36$, gear upon stud, and $11\frac{1}{2} \times 6 = 69$, gear

Calculating Simple and Compound Gearing
re is no Index. (*Am Mach.*)—If the lathe is simple-

stud runs at the same speed as the spindle, select some gear
and multiply its number of teeth by the number of threads
lead-screw, and divide this result by the number of threads
cut. This will give the number of teeth in the gear for the
result is a fractional number, or a number which is not among
and, then try some other gear for the ser-w. Or, select the
nd first, then multiply its number of teeth by the number of
ch to be cut, and divide by the number of threads per inch on
e. This will give the number of teeth for the gear on the

lathe is compound, select at random all the driving-gears,
umbers of their teeth together, and this product by the num-
to be cut. Then select at random all the driven gears except
the numbers of their teeth together, and this product by the
ads per inch in the lead-screw. Now divide the first result by
obtain the number of teeth in the remaining driven gear. Or,
om all the driven gears. Multiply the numbers of their teeth
this product by the number of threads per inch in the lead-
select at random all the driving-gears except one. Multiply
f their teeth together, and this result by the number of threads
screw to be cut. Divide the first result by the last, to obtain

teeth in the remaining driver. When the gears on the com-
are fast together, and cannot be changed, then the driven one
ice as many teeth as the other, or driver, in which case in the
nsider the lead-screw to have twice as many threads per inch
as, and then ignore the compounding entirely. Some lathes

cted that the stud on which the first driver is placed revolves
st as the spindle. This can be ignored in the calculations by
umber of threads of the lead-screw. If both the last condi-
nt ignore them in the calculations by multiplying the number
inch in the lead-screw by four. If the thread to be cut is
r if the pitch of the lead-screw is fractional, or if both
reduce the fractions to a common denominator, and
f these fractions as if they equalled the pitch of the

to be cut, and of the lead-screw, respectively. Then use that part given above which applies to the lathe in question. For instance it is desired to cut a thread of $25/32$ -inch pitch, and the lead-screw threads per inch. Then the pitch of the lead-screw will be $1/2$ inch equal to $3/32$ inch. We now have two fractions, $25/32$ and $3/32$, and screws will be in the proportion of 25 to 3, and the gears can be found above rule, assuming the number of threads to be cut to be 8 and those on the lead-screw to be 25 per inch. But this latter can be further modified by conditions named above, such as a reduced stud, or fixed compound gears. In the instance given, if the stud had been $2 1/2$ threads per inch, then its pitch being $4/10$ inch, the fractions $4/10$ and $25/32$, which, reduced to a common denominator $64/160$ and $125/160$, and the gears will be the same as if the lead-screw threads per inch, and the screw to be cut 64 threads per inch.

On this subject consult also "Formulas in Gearing," published by & Sharpe Mfg. Co., and Jamieson's Applied Mechanics.

Change-gears for Screw-cutting Lathes.—There is a uniformity among lathe-builders as to the change-gears provided for cutting. W. R. Macdonald, in *Am. Mach.*, April 7, 1892, proposes a series, by which 33 whole threads (not fractional) may be cut by of only nine gears:

Screw,	Spindle.									Whole
	20	30	40	50	60	70	110	120	130	
20	8	6	4	4/5	4	3 3/7	2 2/11	2	1 11/13	2 1/11
30	9	7	1/5		6	5 1/7	3 3/11	3	2 10/13	3 1/11
40	16	12	9	3/5	8	6 6/7	4 4/11	4	3 9/13	4 1/11
50	20	15		10	8 4/7	5 5/11	5	4 8/13	5 1/11
60	24	18	14	2/5	10 2/7	6 6/11	6	5 7/13	6 1/11
70	28	21	16	4/5	14	7 7/11	7	6 6/13	7 1/11
110	44	33	26	2/5	22	18 6/7	11	10 2/13	8 2/11
120	48	36	28	4/5	24	20 4/7	13 1/11	11 1/13	9 3/11
130	52	39	31	1/5	26	22 3/7	14 2/11	13	10 2/11

Ten gears are sufficient to cut all the usual threads, with the exception perhaps $11 1/2$, the standard pipe-thread; in ordinary practice any thread between 11 and 13 will be near enough for the customary all thread; if not, the addition of a single gear will give it.

In this table the pitch of the lead-screw is 12, and it may be objected to fine for the purpose. This may be rectified by making the rest of any other desirable pitch, and establishing the proper ratio between the lathe spindle and the gear-stud.

Metric Screw-threads may be cut on lathes with inclusive lead-screws, by the use of change wheels with 50 and 127 teeth (centimetres = 50 inches ($127 \times 0.3937 = 49.9999$ in.)).

Rule for Setting the Taper in a Lathe. (*Am. M.*) A rule can be given which will produce exact results, owing to the fact that the centres enter the work an indefinite distance. If it were not for this circumstance the following would be an exact rule, and it is an approximation as it is. To find the distance to set the centre over: Divide the sum of the diameters of the large and small end of the taper by 2, and multiply the quotient by the ratio which the total length of the shaft bears to that of the tapered portion. Example: Suppose a shaft three feet long with a taper turned on the end one foot long, the large end of the taper 1 1/2 inches and the small end one inch diameter. $\frac{2-1}{2} \times \frac{3}{1} = 1 1/2$ inches

Electric Drilling-machines—Speed of Drilling in Steel Plates. (*Proc. Inst. M. E.*, Aug. 1887, p. 329.)—In drilling the shell of the S.S. "Albania," after a very small amount of workmen working the machines drilled the $1/2$ -inch holes in the shell with rapidity, doing the work at the rate of one hole every 1/2 second, in the time occupied in altering the position of the machines by means of the pulley-blocks, which were not conveniently arranged for this purpose. Repeated trials of these drilling-machines by using electrical energy in both holding-on to the

to about $\frac{3}{4}$ H.P., they have drilled holes of 1 inch diameter $\frac{1}{2}$ inch thickness of solid wrought iron, or through $\frac{1}{16}$ inch of mild steel plates of $\frac{13}{16}$ inch each, taking exactly $\frac{1}{4}$ minutes for each

of Twist-drills.—The cutting-speeds and rates of feed recommended by the Morse Twist-drill and Machine Company are given in the table.

Revolutions per minute for drills $\frac{1}{16}$ in. to 2 in. diam., as usually applied:

Speed for Steel.	Speed for Iron.	Speed for Brass.	Diameter of Drills.	Speed for Steel.	Speed for Iron.	Speed for Brass.
940	1380	1560	inch.			
460	660	785	1 $\frac{1}{16}$	54	75	95
316	430	540	1 $\frac{1}{8}$	52	70	90
230	320	400	1 $\frac{3}{16}$	49	66	85
190	260	320	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	46	62	80
150	220	260	1 $\frac{5}{16}$	44	60	75
130	185	220	1 $\frac{3}{4}$	42	58	72
115	160	200	1 $\frac{7}{16}$	40	56	69
100	140	180	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	39	54	66
95	130	160	1 $\frac{9}{16}$	37	51	63
85	115	145	1 $\frac{5}{8}$	36	49	60
75	105	130	1 $\frac{11}{16}$	34	47	58
70	100	120	1 $\frac{3}{4}$	33	45	56
65	90	115	1 $\frac{13}{16}$	32	43	54
62	85	110	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	31	41	52
58	80	100	1 $\frac{15}{16}$	30	40	51
			2	29	39	49

one inch in soft cast iron will usually require: For $\frac{1}{4}$ -in. drill, 135 revs.; for $\frac{1}{2}$ -in. drill, 130 revolutions; for $\frac{3}{4}$ -in. drill, 100 revolutions; for 1-in. drill, 95 revolutions.

Rates of feed for twist drills are thus given by the same company:

Rate of feed per inch of drill.....	$\frac{1}{16}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{3}{8}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	1	$1\frac{1}{4}$
inch depth of hole.	125	135	130 to 140	130 to 140	130 to 140	130 to 140	130 to 140

MILLING-CUTTERS.

Mr. Addy (Proc. Inst. M. E., Oct. 1890, p. 537), gives the following analyses of **Steels of Steel**.—The following are analyses of milling cutters made from best quality crucible cast steel and from self-hardening steel:

	Crucible Cast Steel, per cent.	Ivanhoe Steel, per cent.
Carbon	1.2	1.67
Manganese	0.112	0.252
Phosphorus	0.018	0.051
Silica	0.35	2.537
Sulphur	0.02	0.01
Iron		4.65
By difference	98.29	90.81
	100,000	100,000

The best analysis is of a cutter 14 in. diam., 1 in. wide, which gave very fine surface at a cutting-speed of 60 ft. per min. Large milling cutters are usually built up, the cutting-edges only being of tool steel. A cutter 22 in. diam., 5 $\frac{1}{2}$ in. wide has been made in this way, the teeth being clamped between two cast-iron flanges. Mr. Addy recommends for this form of cutter with a cutting-angle of 70°, the face of the tooth being set 10° back of the radial line on the cutter, the clearance-angle being thus 10°. At the same time, for iron-works, Leeds, the face of the tooth is set 10° back of the radial line on the cutter, the clearance-angle being thus 10° for steel.

of Teeth.—For obtaining a suitable pitch of teeth for milling various diameters there exists no standard rule, the pitch being usually decided in an arbitrary manner, according to individual

40 to 160 for the various qualities of gun-metal and brass. Smaller or larger the rates of revolution are increased or reduced with the following table, which gives these rates of revolution and shows the lineal speed of the cutting-edge:

Steel.	Wrought Iron.	Cast Iron.	Gun-metal.	Brass.
45	60	90	105	130

are intended for very light finishing cuts, and they must be run at one half for heavy cutting.

These results have been found to be the highest that could be attained in any workshop routine, having due consideration to economy of time to change and grind the cutters when they become dull: 36 ft. to 40 ft. per min.; depth of cut, 1 in.; feed, $\frac{5}{8}$ in. per steel—About 30 ft. per min.; depth of cut, $\frac{1}{4}$ in.; feed, $\frac{3}{8}$ in. per rough gun-metal—80 ft. per min.; depth of cut, $\frac{1}{2}$ in.; feed, $\frac{3}{8}$ in. per cast-iron gear wheels—26 $\frac{3}{4}$ ft. per min.; depth of cut, $\frac{1}{2}$ in.; feed, $\frac{3}{8}$ in. per Hard, close-grained cast iron—30 ft. per min.; depth of cut, $\frac{5}{16}$ in. per min. Gun-metal joints, 53 ft. per min.; depth of cut, $\frac{1}{2}$ in.; feed, $\frac{5}{8}$ in. per min. Steel-bars—21 ft. per min.; depth of cut, $\frac{3}{4}$ in. per min.

For a double-gear cutting-cutter, 4 in. in diam. and 12 in. wide, tested under two conditions in the same machine, gave the following results: The first condition was worked up to its maximum speed before it gave way, being to ascertain definitely the relative amount of work done at a high speed and a light feed, as compared with a low speed and a heavy feed. The second machine was used single-gear and double-gear, and in both cases the width of cut was 10 $\frac{1}{2}$ in.

For the first condition, 17 ft. per min.; 5/16 in. depth of cut; feed, 1.3 in. per min. = 1.3 in. Double-gear, 19 ft. per min.; $\frac{3}{8}$ in. depth of cut; feed, 2.40 in. per min.

Results with Milling-machines.—Horace L. Pratt, *ibid.*, Dec. 28, 1893) gives the following results in flat-surface milling in a Pratt & Whitney milling-machine: The mills for the diam., 12 teeth, 40 to 50 revs. and 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ " feed per min. One run over this piece at a feed of 9" per min., but the mills at the end that this rate was greater than they could endure. These mills the figures are as follows, with 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ " feed: Surface speed, 64 ft. per min.; feed per tooth, 0.00812"; cuts per inch, 133. And with 9" feed: Surface speed, 64 ft. per min.; feed per tooth, 0.015"; cuts

per inch, 66.5. The mills stood up well in this job of cast-iron milling. With a 9" feed they required grinding after surfacing one workpiece. It did not damage the mill-teeth to do this job with a 9" feed, but they would not endure 66 $\frac{1}{2}$ cuts per inch of cast-iron milling the surface speed of the mills does not seem to be the cause of mill destruction: it is the increase of feed per tooth that causes the rapid production of finished surface. This is precisely the reason for the failure of single-pointed lathe and planer tools in general: with a heavy feed a surface-speed limit which cannot be economically exceeded, and so long as this surface-speed limit is not reached, a heavy feed can be made anything up to the limit of the drive of the lathe or planer, or to the safe strain on the work itself, in any cases be easily broken by a too great feed.

For the second condition, extreme figures were obtained in one experiment made with a Pratt & Whitney No. 3 column milling-machine. The 8 mills were fully operated with 45 ft. surface speed and 19 $\frac{1}{2}$ in. per min. surface speed, 45 ft. per min.; feed per tooth, 0.02034"; cuts per inch, 133. The work was fed with the revolution of mill. Flooded with oil, that is, with a heavy wave of oil running constantly over each mill. Face of tooth cutting keyway was described as having a heavy wave of oil on the bottom, and it was said to have shown no signs of being damaged by the cutters or on the machine. As a result of the experiment the machine was able to do economical steady work to run at 17 revs., with a feed of 9" per min. The work was fed with mill revolution, giving the following results: Surface speed, 22 $\frac{1}{4}$ ft. per min.; feed per tooth, 0.0084"; cuts

per inch, 133. The work was fed with the revolution of mill. Flooded with oil, that is, with a heavy wave of oil running constantly over each mill. Face of tooth cutting keyway was described as having a heavy wave of oil on the bottom, and it was said to have shown no signs of being damaged by the cutters or on the machine. As a result of the experiment the machine was able to do economical steady work to run at 17 revs., with a feed of 9" per min. The work was fed with mill revolution, giving the following results: Surface speed, 22 $\frac{1}{4}$ ft. per min.; feed per tooth, 0.0084"; cuts

the teeth of the cutter strike on the top surface or "s work in process of being milled, and "against the feed" teeth begin to cut in the clean, newly cut surface of the wards toward the scale—showed a decided advantage in the tests of a Pratt & Whitney machine, by experts of the

In the tests with the Brown & Sharpe machine the 6 inches face by $4\frac{1}{4}$ and 3 inches diameter respectively, 15 41 revolutions per minute in each case, or nearly 50 feet per speed for the $4\frac{1}{4}$ -inch and 33 feet per minute for the 3-inch lution marks were 6 to the inch, giving a feed of 7 inches cut per tooth of .011". When the machine was forced driving the depth of cut was $1\frac{1}{32}$ inch when the cutter way, or against the feed, and only $\frac{1}{4}$ inch when it ran or with the feed. The endurance of the milling-cutters when they were run in the "old" way.

Spiral Milling-cutters.—There is no rule for fit the spiral; from 10° to 15° is usually considered sufficient the end thrust on the spindle will be increased to an extent some machines.

Milling-cutters with Inserted Teeth.—When use milling-cutters of a greater diameter than about 8 in insert the teeth in a disk or head, so as to avoid the solid cutters and the difficulty of hardening them, not the risk of breakage in hardening them, but also on account obtaining a uniform degree of hardness or temper.

Milling-machine versus Planer.—For comparison work done by each see paper by J. J. Grant, Trans. A. S. S. says: The advantages of the milling machine over the among which are the following: Exact duplication of work production—the cutting being continuous; cost of production machines can be operated by one workman, and he not and cost of tools for producing a given amount of work.

POWER REQUIRED FOR MACHINING

Resistance Overcome in Cutting Metal. (Vol. viii, 308.)—Some experiments made at the works of W. showed that the resistance in cutting steel in a lathe 150,000 to 200,000 pounds per square inch of section.

re to remove it. The weight of metal removed per hour would be $2 \times .375 \times .26 \times 60 = 1082.8$ lbs. Our earlier form of 36" planer has had with one tool on $\frac{3}{4}$ " cut on work 200 lbs. of metal per hour, and the machine has more than five times its capacity. The total pulling of the planer is 45,000 lbs.

Horse-power Required to Run Lathes. (J. J. Flather, *Am.*, April 23, 1891.)—The power required to do useful work varies with depth and breadth of chip, with the shape of tool, and with the nature and density of metal operated upon; and the power required to run a machine empty is often a variable quantity.

For instance, when the machine is new, and the working parts have not been worn or fitted to each other as they will be after running a few days, the power required will be greater than will be the case after the working parts have become better fitted.

Another cause of variation of the power absorbed is the driving-belt; a loose belt will increase the friction, hence to obtain the greatest efficiency of a machine we should use wide belts, and run them just tight enough to prevent slipping. The belts should also be soft and pliable, otherwise power is wasted in bending them to the curvature of the pulleys.

A third cause is the variation of journal-friction, due to slacking up or tightening of the cap-screws, and also the end-thrust bearing screw.

Mr. Flather's investigations show that it requires less total power to turn off a large weight of metal in a given time than it does to plane off the same weight; and also that the power is less for large than for small diameters. The following table gives the actual horse-power required to drive a lathe at varying numbers of revolutions of main spindle.

HORSE-POWER FOR SMALL LATHES.

Without Back Gears.		With Back Gears.		Remarks.
Revs. of spindle per min.	H.P. required to drive empty.	Revs. of Spindle per min.	H.P. required to drive empty.	
4.72	.145	14.6	.136	20" Fitchburg lathe.
9.08	.197	24.33	.141	
8.00	.310	38.42	.374	
7.4	.159	4.84	.182	Small lathe (13 $\frac{1}{2}$ "), Chemnitz, Germany. New machine.
5.0	.359	12.8	.187	
8	.339	19.2	.330	
4.0	.306	6.61	.157	17 $\frac{1}{2}$ " lathe do. New machine.
2	.339	14.8	.306	
3	.455	22.1	.349	
3.8	.085	2.31	.085	26" lathe do.
1.6	.210	6.72	.063	
1.2	.326	10.8	.087	

P_0 = horse-power necessary to drive lathe empty, and N = number of revolutions per minute, then the equation for average small lathes is $P = 0.095 + 0.0012N$.

The power necessary to drive the lathes empty when the back gears are used is an average equation for lathes under 20" swing is

$$H.P._0 = 0.10 + 0.006N.$$

Larger lathes vary so much in construction and detail that no general formula can be obtained which will give, even approximately, the power required to run them, and although the average formula shows that at least a certain horse-power is needed to start the small lathes, there are many American lathes under 20" swing working on a consumption of less than 35 horse-power.

The amount of power required to remove metal in a machine is able within more accurate limits.

Referring to Dr. Hartig's researches, $H.P. = CW$, where C is and W the weight of chips removed per hour.

Average values of C are .030 for cast-iron, .032 for wrought-steel.

The size of lathe, and, therefore, the diameter of work, has no effect on the cutting power. If the lathe be heavy, the cut can be and consequently the weight of chips increased, but the value of C to be about the same for a given metal through several various lathes.

HORSE-POWER REQUIRED TO REMOVE CAST IRON IN A 20-INCH LATHE
(J. J. Hobart.)

Descriptive No.	Number of Trials.	Tool used.	Average Cutting-speed in feet per minute.	Depth of Cut in inches.	Average Breadth of Cut in inches.	Average H.P. required to remove Metal.	Average pounds of Metal removed
1	22	Side tool.....	37.90	.125	.015	.342	13
2	15	Diamond.....	30.50	.125	.015	.215	10
3	17	Round nose.....	42.61	.125	.015	.352	14
4	2	Left-hand round nose.....	26.29	.125	.015	.287	9
5	4	Square-faced tool $\frac{1}{2}$ " broad.....	25.82	.015	.125	.255	8
6	1	"	25.27	.048	.048	.300	10
7	1	"	25.64	.125	.015	.346	13

The above table shows that an average of .36 horse-power is required to turn off 10 pounds of cast-iron per hour, from which we obtain the value of the constant $C = .024$.

Most of the cuts were taken so that the metal would be reduced in diameter; with a broad surface cut and a coarse feed, as in No. 5, the power required per pound of chips removed in a given time was a maximum; the least power per unit of weight removed being required when the cut was square, as in No. 6.

HORSE-POWER REQUIRED TO REMOVE METAL IN A 23-INCH LATHE
(R. H. Smith.)

Number of Experiments.	Metal.	Cutting-speed, ft. per min.	Depth of Cut, in.	Average Breadth of Cut, in.	Average H.P. required to remove Metal.	Average pounds of Metal removed
4	Cast iron	12.7	.05	.046	.106	5.40
4	Cast iron	11.1	.135	.046	.217	12.90
2	Cast iron	12.85	.04	.038	.088	4.30
4	Wrought iron	9.6	.03	.046	.069	2.40
4	Wrought iron	9.1	.06	.046	.138	4.20
4	Wrought iron	7.9	.14	.046	.196	7.40
4	Wrought iron	9.35	.045	.038	.092	4.20
4	Steel	6.00	.02	.046	.062	2.80
4	Steel	5.8	.04	.046	.085	3.80
4	Steel	5.7	.06	.046	.108	4.80

tes of *C*, .017 and .019, obtained for cast iron are probably as: the iron was soft and of fine quality, known as pulley less power to cut; and, as Prof. Smith remarks, a lower *s* takes less horse-power.

metals and forms of tools vary, otherwise the amount of per hour per horse-power would be practically constant, the peeds decreasing but slightly the visible work done.

count these variations, the weight of metal removed per by a certain constant, is equal to the power necessary to do

according to the above tests, is as follows:

	Cast Iron.	Wrought Iron.	Steel.
.....	.030	.032	.047
.....	.023	.025	.042
.....	.024		
.....	.026	.030	.044

cessary to run the lathe empty will vary from about .06 to .3 ould be ascertained and added to the useful horse-power, to power expended.

ed by Machine-tools. (R. E. Dinsmore, from the *Elec-*

g 2 3/16" × 180 ft. at 160 revs., carrying 26 pulleys to 36", and running 20 idle machine belts.....	1.32 H.P.
upright back-geared drill-press with table, 28" g 3/8" hole in cast iron, with a feed of 1 in. per	0.78 H.P.
drill grinder No. 2, carrying 2" × 6" wheels at 3200	0.29 H.P.
30" × 36", table 6 ft., planing cast iron, cut 1/4" 6 sq. in. per minute, at 9 reversals.....	1.06 H.P.
hine 23" stroke, cutting steel die, 6" stroke, 3/8" at rate of 1.7 square inch per minute.....	0.37 H.P.
17" swing, turning steel shaft 2 3/8" diam., cut 3/16 7.92 inch per minute.....	0.43 H.P.
21" swing, boring cast-iron hole 5" diam., cut 3/16 0.3" per minute.....	0.23 H.P.
o. 2, monogram blower at 1800 revs. per minute,	0.8 H.P.
r 28" × 28" × 14 ft. bed, stroke 8", cutting steel, er minute.....	3.2 H.P.

the next page compiled from various sources, principally earches, by Prof. J. J. Flather (*Am. Mach.*, April 12, 1894), s a guide in estimating the power required to run a given must be understood that these values, although determined ic measurements for the individual machines designated, rly representative, as the power required to drive a machine ent largely on its particular design and construction. The e work to be done may also affect the power required to a machine to be used exclusively for brass work may be 0% to 15% higher than if it were to be used for iron work of l the power required will be proportionately greater.

is to be transmitted to the machines by means of shafting fs, an additional amount, varying from 30% to 50% of the total by the machines, will be necessary to overcome the friction

ver required to drive Shafting.—Samuel Webber, of Power" gives among numerous tables of power required machinery, a table of results of tests of shafting. A line of 42 ft. long, weighing 4098 lbs., with pulleys weighing 5331 W 9 lbs., supported on 47 bearings, 216 revolutions per min P. to drive it. This gives a coefficient of friction of 1 its the coefficient ranged from 3.34% to 11.4%, aver

Horse-power Required to Drive Machinery.

Name of Machine.	Observed Horse-power	
	Total Work.	Remaining
Small screw-cutting lathe 13½" swing, B. G.	0.41	0.15; 0.26
Screw-cutting lathe 17½", B. G.	0.807	0.207; 0.60
Screw-cutting lathe 20" (Fitchburg), B. G.	0.47	0.13; 0.34
Screw-cutting lathe 26", B. G.	0.462	0.05; 0.41
Lathe, 80" face plate, will swing 108", T. G.	0.53	0.187; 0.34
Large facing lathe, will swing 68", T. G.	0.91	0.37; 0.54
Wheel lathe 60" swing.		0.29
Small shaper (stroke 4", traverse 11")	0.16	0.08
Small shaper, Richards (9½" × 23")	0.24	0.07; 0.17
Shaper (15" stroke Gould & Eberhardt).	0.63	0.21; 0.42
Large shaper, Richards (29" × 91")	1.14	0.35; 0.79
Crank planer (capacity 23" × 27" × 28½" stroke).	0.24	0.12; 0.33
Planer (capacity 36" × 36" × 11 feet)	0.84	0.2
Large planer (capacity 70" × 70" × 57 feet)	1.47	0.6
Small drill press	0.62	0.2
Upright sct drilling mach. (will drill 2½" diam.)	0.41	0.15; 0.24
Medium drill press	1.33	0.5
Large drill press	1.24	0.43
Radial drill 6 feet swing	0.53	0.44; 0.61
Radial drill 8½ feet swing	0.67	0.30; 0.35
Radial drill press	1.08	0.6
Slotter (8" stroke)	0.28	0.09; 0.13
Slotter (9½" stroke)	0.44	0.20; 0.24
Slotter (15" stroke)	0.95	0.27; 0.43
Universal milling mach (Brown & Sharpe No. 1)	0.28	0.07; 0.43
Milling machine (13" cutter-head, 12 cutters)	0.66	0.26; 0.30
Small head traversing milling machine (cutter-head 11" diameter, 16 cutters)	0.18	0.07
Gear cutter will cut 20" diameter	0.28	0.11
Horizontal boring machine for iron, 23½" swing	0.93	0.12; 0.19 0.30
Hydraulic shearing machine	1.52	0.5
Large plate shears—knives 28" long, 3" stroke	7.12	0.5
Large punch press, over-reach 28", 3" stroke, 1½" stock can be punched.	4.41	1.0
Small punch and shear comb'd, 7½" knives, 1½" str.	0.79	0.13
Circular saw for hot iron (30½" diameter of saw)	4.12	0.6
Plate-bending rolls, diam. of rolls 13", length 9½ ft.	2.70	0.5
Wood planer 13½" (rotary knives, 2 hor'l & vert.	4.24	1.2
Wood planer 24" (rotary knives)	3.03	1.0
Wood planer 17½" (rotary knives)	4.63	1.2
Wood planer 28" (rotary knives)	5.00	0.72; 0.8
Wood planer 28" (Daniel's pattern)	3.20	1.0
Wood planer and matcher (capacity 14½ × 4½")	0.91	0.3
Circular saw for wood (23" diameter of saw)	3.23	0.7
Circular saw for wood (35" diameter of saw)	5.64	1.3
Band saw for wood (34" band wheel)	0.96	0.3
Wood-mortising and boring machine	0.49	0.3
Hor'l wood-boring and mortising machine, drill 4" diam., mortise 8½ deep × 11½" long	3.68	1.07; 0.13
Tenon and mortising machine	2.11	1.0
Tenon and mortising machine	2.71	0.6
Tenon and mortising machine	2.25	0.5
Edge-molder and shaper. (Vertical spindle)	2.00	1.3
Wood-molding mach. (cap. 7½ × 3½). Hor. spindle	2.43	0.9
Grindstone for tools, 31" diam., 6" face. Velocity 680 ft. per minute	1.32	0.3
Grindstone for stock, 42" × 12". Vel. 1680 ft. per min.	2.11	0.5
Emery wheel 11½" diameter × 14". Saw grinder.	0.24	0.1

* With back gears. † Without back gears. ‡ For surface work.
B. G., back-geared. T. G., triple-geared.

er consumed in Machine-shops.—How much
 to drive ordinary machine-tools? and how many men can
 horse-power? are questions which it is impossible to answer
 The power varies greatly according to the conditions in
 following table given by J. J. Fisher in his work on Dynam-
 in idea of the variation in several large works. The percent-
 power required to drive the shafting varies from 15 to 30,
 of men employed per total H.P. varies from 0.32 to 4.34.


se-power; Friction; Men Employed.

Firm.	Kind of Work.	Horse-power.				Number of Men. No. of Men per Total H.P.	No. of Men per H.P. (Live H.P.)	
		Total.	Required to drive shafting.	Required to drive Machinery.	Per cent to drive shafting.			
.....	E. & W. W.	58				132	2.25	
.....	W. W.	100	15	85	15	399	3.99	
.....	E. M. M.	400	95	305	23	1600	4.00	
.....	Brass Works	25	5	17	32	150	6.00	
.....	M. E., etc.	35				230	6.62	
.....	E.							
.....	L.	2500	3000	500	80	4500	1.54	
.....	(one de- * H. M.	102	41	61	49	300	2.93	
.....	ool Co	M. T.	150	75	105	41	432	2.49
.....	Co.	"	120				725	5.94
.....	Co.	"	230				900	3.91
.....	C. & L.	125	67	68	49	700	5.11
.....	ne Co.	P. & D.	25	11	34	31	90	2.57
.....	s	P. & S.	12				30	2.50
.....	Co	H. F.	150	75	75	50	130	.86
.....	S. M.	1300				3500	2.69
.....	"	250				1500	4.28
.....	Screw Co	M. S.	40				80	2.00
.....	" "	"	400	100	300	25	250	0.62
.....	o.	F.	350				400	1.14
.....		346.4			38.6%	818.3	2.96
.....						5.13	

E., engine; W. W., wood-working machinery; M. M., min-
 M. E., marine engines; L., locomotives; H. M., heavy ma-
 machine tools; C. & L., cranes and locks; P. & D., presses
 pulleys and shafting; H. F., heavy forgings; S. M., sewing-
 machine-screws; F., files.
 states (Trans. A. S. M. E., vi. 462) that in print-mills which
 friction of the shafting and engine was in 7 cases below
 between 20% and 30%, in 11 cases from 30% to 35% and in 2
 the average being 25.9%. Mr. Barrus in eight cotton-mills
 to be between 18% and 25.7%, the average being 23%. Mr.
 that for shops using heavy machinery the percentage of
 to drive the shafting will average from 40% to 50% of the total
 This presupposes that under the head of shafting are
 fans, and blowers.

ABRASIVE PROCESSES.

g is performed by means of stones, sand,
 undum, crocus, rouge, chilled globules of
 le iron alone. (See paper by John Rich-
 of the Pacific Coast. Am. Mach.,
 uly 25 and Aug. 15, 1891.)



cold saw to cutting iron or steel in the form of a disk in which the piece to be cut is made to revolve faster than the saw. By this means only a small surface is presented at a time to the circumference of the disk of the same size as the cold saw above described, and it rotates at about 25,000 feet per minute. The heat generated against the small surface of the bar rotated against the particles of iron or steel in the bar are actually welded as it falls into a solid mass. This disk will cut iron, or steel. It will cut a bar of steel $1\frac{3}{4}$ inch diameter including the time of setting it in the machine, this takes 200 turns per minute.

Cutting Stone with Wire.—A plan of cutting with wire cord has been tried in Europe. While retaining the agent, M. Paulin Gay, of Marseilles, has succeeded in cutting stone by this means, and as continuously as formerly the stone is cut with both of which appliances his system—the "wire cord"—has considerable analogy. An engine put to work cutting wire cord (varying from five to seven thirty-second inch diameter according to the work), composed of three mild-steel wires of a certain pitch, that is found to give the best results from 15 to 17 feet per second.

The Sand-blast.—In the sand-blast, invented by John S. White, Philadelphia, and first exhibited at the American Exhibition in 1876, common sand, powdered quartz, emery, or other material is blown by a jet of air or steam on glass, metal, or other brittle substance, by which means the latter is abraded. To protect those portions of the surface which are not to be abraded it is only necessary to cover them with such substances as lead, rubber, leather, paper, wax, or rubber. See also in App. Cyc. Mech.; also U. S. report of Vienna Exhibition, 1876.

A "jet of sand" impelled by steam of moderate force and blast of an ordinary fan, depolishes glass in a few minutes; and metals are given the so-called "fine finish" with rapidity. With a jet issuing from under 300 pounds of steam per square inch it will cut through a piece of corundum $1\frac{3}{4}$ inches thick in a few minutes. The sand-blast has been applied to the cleaning of

e. The same weight of small forgings and stampings can be scaled in 20 to 30 minutes.—*Iron Age*, March 8, 1894.

EMERY-WHEELS AND GRINDSTONES.

Selection of Emery-wheels.—A pamphlet entitled "Emery-wheels, their Selection and Use," published by the Brown & Sharpe Mfg. Co., after calling attention to the fact that too much should not be expected of a wheel, and commenting upon the importance of selecting the proper wheel for the work to be done, says:

Wheels are numbered from coarse to fine; that is, a wheel made of No. 100 is coarser than one made of No. 10. Within certain limits, and things being equal, a coarse wheel is less liable to change the temperature of the work and less liable to glaze than a fine wheel. As a rule, the harder the stock the coarser the wheel required to produce a given surface. For example, coarser wheels are required to produce a given surface upon hardened steel than upon soft steel, while finer wheels are required to produce this surface upon brass or copper than upon either hardened or soft steel.

Wheels are graded from soft to hard, and the grade is denoted by the letters of the alphabet, A denoting the softest grade. A wheel is soft or hard chiefly on account of the amount and character of the material contained in its manufacture with emery or corundum. But other characteristics being equal, a wheel that is composed of fine emery is more compact and harder than one made of coarser emery. For instance, a wheel of No. 100 emery, grade B, will be harder than one of No. 60 emery, same grade. The softness of a wheel is generally its most important characteristic. A wheel is less apt to cause a change of temperature in the work, or to glaze, than a harder one. It is best for grinding hardened steel, iron, brass, copper, and rubber, while a harder or more compact wheel is better for grinding soft steel and wrought iron. As a rule, other things being equal, the harder the stock the softer the wheel required to produce a given finish.

Generally speaking, a wheel should be softer as the surface in contact with the work is increased. For example, a wheel 1/16-inch face should be softer than one 1/8-inch face. If a wheel is hard and heats or chatters, it can often be made somewhat more effective by turning off a part of its grinding surface; but it should be clearly understood that while this will sometimes prevent a hard wheel from heating or chattering the work, such a wheel will not prove as economical as one of the full width and proper grade, for it should be borne in mind that the grade should always bear the proper relation to the width. (See the pamphlet referred to for other information. See also lecture by T. Dunkin Paret, Pres't of The Tanite Co., "Emery-wheels," Jour. Frank Inst., March, 1890.)

Speed of Emery-wheels.—The following speeds are recommended for different makers:

Revolutions per minute.				Diameter of Wheel, inches.	Revolutions per minute.			
Waltham E. W. Co.	The Tanite Co.	Grant Corundum Wheel Co.	Norton E. W. Co.		Waltham E. W. Co.	The Tanite Co.	Grant Corundum Wheel Co.	Norton E. W. Co.
19,000				10	1,950	2,160	2,200	2,300
12,500	14,400		12,000	12	1,600	1,800	1,800	1,850
9,500	10,800		10,000	14	1,400	1,570	1,600	1,600
7,600	8,640		8,500	16	1,200	1,350	1,400	1,400
6,400	7,200	7,400	7,400	18	1,050	1,222	1,250	1,250
4,800	5,400	5,400	5,450	20	950	1,080	1,100	1,100
3,800	4,320	4,400	4,400	22	875	1,000	1,000	1,000
3,200	3,600	3,600	3,600	24	800	917	925	925
2,700	3,080	3,200	3,150	26	750	800	600	825
2,400	2,700	2,700	2,750	30	675	733	500	735
2,150	2,400	2,400	2,450	36	550	611	400	550

"We advise the regular speed of 5500 feet per minute." (Detroit Emery Co.) Experience has demonstrated that there is no advantage in ru

solid emery-wheels at a higher rate than 5500 feet per minute speed." (Springfield E. W. Mfg. Co.)

"Although there is no exactly defined limit at which a wheel ceases to render it effective, experience has demonstrated that, taking into account safety, durability, and liability to heat, 5500 feet per minute at the present gives the best results. All first-class wheels have the number of revolutions necessary to give this rate marked on their labels, and a column in the price-list gives a corresponding rate. Above this speed the wheels are unsafe. If run much below it they wear away rapidly in proportion to what they accomplish." (Northampton E. W. Co.)

Grades of Emery.—The numbers representing the grades run from 8 to 120, and the degree of smoothness of surface they are compared to that left by files as follows:

8 and 10	represent the cut of a wood rasp.
16	" 20 " " " " a coarse rough file.
24	" 30 " " " " an ordinary rough file.
36	" 40 " " " " a bastard file.
46	" 60 " " " " a second-cut file.
70	" 80 " " " " a smooth " "
90	" 100 " " " " a superfine " "
120 F and FF	" " " " a dead-smooth file.

Speed of Polishing-wheels.

Wood covered with leather, about.....	7000 ft. per min.
" " " a hair brush, about.....	2500 revs. l.
" " " 1½" to 8" diam., hair 1" to 1¼" long, ab.	4500 " "
Walrus-hide wheels, about.....	8000 ft. per min.
Rag-wheels, 4 to 8 in. diameter, about.....	7000 " "

Safe Speeds for Grindstones and Emery-wheel Hiscox (*Iron Age*, April 7, 1892), by an application of the formula of equal force in fly-wheels (see Fly-wheels), obtains the figures for grindstones and emery-wheels which are given in the tables by the formulae are:

Stress per sq. in. of section of a grindstone = $(.7071D \times N)^2$
 " " " " " an emery-wheel = $(.7071D \times N)^2$

D = diameter in feet, N = revolutions per minute.
 He takes the weight of sandstone at .078 lb. per cubic inch, and emery-wheel at 0.1 lb. per cubic inch; Ohio stone weighs about 1 Huron stone about .080 lb. per cubic inch. The Ohio stone will be at the periphery of 2500 to 3000 ft. per min., which latter should be exceeded. The Huron stone can be trusted up to 4000 ft., when clamped between flanges and not excessively wedged in with the speed of grindstones as a cause of bursting, probably the of accidents have really been caused by wedging them on the shaft wedging to true them. The holes being square, the excessive wedging to true the stones starts cracks in the corners that even out until the centrifugal strain becomes greater than the mass remaining solid stone. Hence the necessity of great caution in using wedges, as well as the holding of large quick-running stones between flanges and leather washers.

Strains in Grindstones.

LIMIT OF VELOCITY AND APPROXIMATE ACTUAL STRAIN PER SQUARE SECTIONAL AREA FOR GRINDSTONES OF MEDIUM TENSILE STRENGTH

Diameter.	Revolutions per minute.					
	100	150	200	250	300	350
feet.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.
2	1.58	3.57	6.35	9.93	14.30	18.20
2½	2.47	5.57	9.88	15.49	22.29	28.64
3	3.57	8.04	14.28	22.34	32.16
3½	4.86	10.93	19.44	30.36
4	6.35	14.30	27.35
4½	8.04	18.08	32.16
5	9.93	22.34
6	14.30	32.17
7	19.44

Approximate breaking times the strain to the bottom figure to

figures at the bottom of columns designate the limit of velocity (in feet per minute), at the head of the columns for stones of the diameter the first column opposite the designating figure. A general rule of safety for any size grindstone that has a compact and fine grain is to limit the peripheral velocity to 47 feet per second. There is a large variation in the listed speeds of emery-wheels by different makers—4000 as a minimum and 5600 maximum feet per minute, while some claim a maximum speed of 10,000 feet per minute as the safe speed for the best emery-wheels. Rim wheels and iron centre wheels are special and require the maker's guarantee and assignment of speed.

Strains in Emery-wheels.

STRAIN PER SQUARE INCH OF SECTION IN EMERY-WHEELS AT THE VELOCITIES AT HEAD OF COLUMNS FOR SIZES IN FIRST COLUMN.

Revolutions per minute.										
500	800	1000	1300	1400	1600	1800	2000	2300	2400	2600
.....	22.67	27.43	32.64	38.31
.....	51.18	61.80	73.62	86.40
.....	22.67	32.65	44.45	58.05	73.47	90.71	109.76	130.64	153.30
.....	35.47	51.05	69.51	90.81	114.94	141.90	171.71
18.40	32.72	51.12	73.62	100.21	130.88	165.65
24.80	43.90	68.70	99.21	134.65	175.00
32.57	57.65	90.24	130.31	177.80
41.41	73.63	115.03	165.65
50.98	90.23	141.22
61.81	109.41	171.23
73.62	130.88
86.36	152.85
115.04
165.64
								Diam	Revs. per min.	
									in.	2800
								4	44.43	51.12
								6	100.21	115.03
								8	177.80

Anna Rose (Modern Machine-shop Practice) says: The average speed of stones in workshops may be given as follows:

Circumferential Speed of Stone.
 For grinding machinists' tools, about 900 feet per minute.
 " " carpenters' " " 600 " " "

The speeds of stones for file-grinding, and other similar rapid grinding is given in the "Grinders' List."

ft.	8	7½	7	6½	6	5½	5	4½	4	3½	3
per min.	135	144	154	166	180	196	216	240	270	308	360

The following table, from the *Mechanical World*, is for the diameter of stones and the number of revolutions they should run per minute (not to be exceeded), with the diameter of change of shift-pulleys required, varying by shift or change ¼ inches, ½ inches, or 2 inches in diameter for each section of 6 inches in the diameter of the stone.

Diameter of Stone.	Revolutions per minute.	Shift of Pulleys, in inches.		
		¼	½	2
8	0	40	36	32
7	6	37½	33¾	30
7	0	35	31½	28
6	6	32½	29¼	26
6	0	30	27	24
5	6	27½	24¾	22
5	0	25	23¼	20
4	6	240	20¾	18
4	0	20	18	16
3	6	17½	15¾	14
3	0	15	13¾	12
2		3	4	

Columns 3, 4, and 5 are given to show that if we start an 8-foot stone, say, a countershaft pulley driving a 40-inch pulley on the grindstone spindle and the stone makes the right number (135) of revolutions per minute, a reduction in the diameter of the pulley on the grinding-stone spindle, and the stone has been reduced 6 inches in diameter, will require to be substituted $2\frac{1}{4}$ inches in diameter, or to shift from 40 inches to 37 $\frac{1}{4}$ inches, and so on similarly for columns 4 and 5. Any other suitable dimensions of pulleys may be used for the stone when eight feet in diameter, but the number of revolutions in each shift named, in order to be correct, will have to be proportional to the numbers of revolutions the stone should run, as given in column 2 of the table.

Varieties of Grindstones.

(Joshua Rose.)

FOR GRINDING MACHINISTS' TOOLS.

Name of Stone.	Kind of Grit.	Texture of Stone.	Color of Stone.
Nova Scotia,	All kinds, from finest to coarsest	All kinds, from hardest to softest	Blue or yellowish gray Uniformly light blue Reddish
Bay Chaleur (New Brunswick),			
Liverpool or Melling.			
	Medium to finest	Soft and sharp	
	Medium to fine	Soft, with sharp grit	

FOR WOOD-WORKING TOOLS.

Wickersley.....	Medium to fine	Very soft	Grayish yellow
Liverpool or Melling.	Medium to fine	Soft, with sharp grit	Reddish
Bay Chaleur (New Brunswick),	Medium to finest	Soft and sharp	Uniform light blue
Huron, Michigan ...	Fine	Soft and sharp	Uniform light blue

FOR GRINDING BROAD SURFACES, AS SAWS OR IRON PLATES.

Newcastle.....	Coarse to med' in	The hard ones	Yellow
Independence.....	Coarse	Hard to medium	Grayish white
Massillon.....	Coarse	Hard to medium	Yellowish white

TAP DRILLS.

Taps for Machine-screws. (The Pratt & Whitney Co.)

Approx. Diameter, fractions of an inch.	Wire Gauge.	No. of Threads to inch.	Approx. Diameter, fractions of an inch.	Wire Gauge.	No. of Threads to inch.
	No. 1	60, 72		No. 13	20, 24
	2	48, 56, 64	$\frac{1}{4}$	14	16, 18, 20, 22
	3	40, 48, 56		15	18, 20, 24
$\frac{7}{64}$	4	32, 36, 40	$\frac{17}{64}$	16	16, 18, 20, 22
	5	30, 32, 36, 40	$\frac{9}{32}$	18	16, 18, 20
$\frac{9}{64}$	6	30, 32, 36, 40		19	16, 18, 20
	7	24, 30, 32	$\frac{5}{16}$	20	16, 18, 20
$\frac{5}{32}$	8	24, 30, 32, 36, 40		22	16, 18
	9	24, 28, 30, 32	$\frac{3}{8}$	24	14, 16, 18
$\frac{3}{16}$	10	20, 22, 24, 30, 32		26	16
	11	22, 24		28	16
$\frac{7}{32}$	12	20, 22, 24		30	16

The Morse Twist Drill and Machine Co. gives the following table of the different sizes of drills that should be used when a full thread tapped in a hole. The sizes given are practically correct.

(The Morse Twist Drill and Machine Co.)

Diam. of Tap.	No. Threads to inch.	Drill for V Thread.	Drill for U. S. S. Thread.	Diam. of Tap.	No. Threads to inch.	Drill for V Thread.	Drill for U. S. S. Thread.
1/4	16	5/32	9/16	1 1/4	7	3/8	15/16
9/32	16	3/16	1 5/32	7	15/16
5/16	18	7/32	1 3/16	8	31/32
11/32	16	1/4	1 7/32	8	1 1/32
3/8	14	5/16	1 1/2	7
13/32	14	9/32	1 3/4	7
7/16	18	1/2	1 9/32	7
15/32	14	19/64	1 5/16	7
1 1/8	14	21/64	1 11/32	7
1 1/4	12	25/64	1 13/32	6
1 1/2	12	31/64	1 7/16	6
1 5/8	12	37/64	1 1/2	6
1 3/4	12	43/64	1 5/8	6
1 7/8	12	49/64	1 3/4	6
1 5/4	10	55/64	1 7/8	6
1 3/2	10	61/64	1 15/16	6
1 1/2	10	67/64	1 1/2	6
1 1/4	10	73/64	1 5/8	5
1 1/2	10	79/64	1 3/4	5
1 3/4	10	85/64	1 7/8	5
1 5/8	10	91/64	1 15/16	5
1 3/2	10	97/64	1 1/2	5
1 1/2	10	103/64	1 5/8	5
1 1/4	10	109/64	1 3/4	5
1 1/2	10	115/64	1 7/8	5
1 3/4	10	121/64	1 15/16	5
1 5/8	10	127/64	1 1/2	5
1 3/2	10	133/64	1 5/8	5
1 1/2	10	139/64	1 3/4	5
1 1/4	10	145/64	1 7/8	5
1 1/2	10	151/64	1 15/16	5
1 3/4	10	157/64	1 1/2	5
1 5/8	10	163/64	1 5/8	5
1 3/2	10	169/64	1 3/4	5
1 1/2	10	175/64	1 7/8	5
1 1/4	10	181/64	1 15/16	5
1 1/2	10	187/64	1 1/2	5
1 3/4	10	193/64	1 5/8	5
1 5/8	10	199/64	1 3/4	5
1 3/2	10	205/64	1 7/8	5
1 1/2	10	211/64	1 15/16	5
1 1/4	10	217/64	1 1/2	5
1 1/2	10	223/64	1 5/8	5
1 3/4	10	229/64	1 3/4	5
1 5/8	10	235/64	1 7/8	5
1 3/2	10	241/64	1 15/16	5
1 1/2	10	247/64	1 1/2	5
1 1/4	10	253/64	1 5/8	5
1 1/2	10	259/64	1 3/4	5
1 3/4	10	265/64	1 7/8	5
1 5/8	10	271/64	1 15/16	5
1 3/2	10	277/64	1 1/2	5
1 1/2	10	283/64	1 5/8	5
1 1/4	10	289/64	1 3/4	5
1 1/2	10	295/64	1 7/8	5
1 3/4	10	301/64	1 15/16	5
1 5/8	10	307/64	1 1/2	5
1 3/2	10	313/64	1 5/8	5
1 1/2	10	319/64	1 3/4	5
1 1/4	10	325/64	1 7/8	5
1 1/2	10	331/64	1 15/16	5
1 3/4	10	337/64	1 1/2	5
1 5/8	10	343/64	1 5/8	5
1 3/2	10	349/64	1 3/4	5
1 1/2	10	355/64	1 7/8	5
1 1/4	10	361/64	1 15/16	5
1 1/2	10	367/64	1 1/2	5
1 3/4	10	373/64	1 5/8	5
1 5/8	10	379/64	1 3/4	5
1 3/2	10	385/64	1 7/8	5
1 1/2	10	391/64	1 15/16	5
1 1/4	10	397/64	1 1/2	5
1 1/2	10	403/64	1 5/8	5
1 3/4	10	409/64	1 3/4	5
1 5/8	10	415/64	1 7/8	5
1 3/2	10	421/64	1 15/16	5
1 1/2	10	427/64	1 1/2	5
1 1/4	10	433/64	1 5/8	5
1 1/2	10	439/64	1 3/4	5
1 3/4	10	445/64	1 7/8	5
1 5/8	10	451/64	1 15/16	5
1 3/2	10	457/64	1 1/2	5
1 1/2	10	463/64	1 5/8	5
1 1/4	10	469/64	1 3/4	5
1 1/2	10	475/64	1 7/8	5
1 3/4	10	481/64	1 15/16	5
1 5/8	10	487/64	1 1/2	5
1 3/2	10	493/64	1 5/8	5
1 1/2	10	499/64	1 3/4	5
1 1/4	10	505/64	1 7/8	5
1 1/2	10	511/64	1 15/16	5
1 3/4	10	517/64	1 1/2	5
1 5/8	10	523/64	1 5/8	5
1 3/2	10	529/64	1 3/4	5
1 1/2	10	535/64	1 7/8	5
1 1/4	10	541/64	1 15/16	5
1 1/2	10	547/64	1 1/2	5
1 3/4	10	553/64	1 5/8	5
1 5/8	10	559/64	1 3/4	5
1 3/2	10	565/64	1 7/8	5
1 1/2	10	571/64	1 15/16	5
1 1/4	10	577/64	1 1/2	5
1 1/2	10	583/64	1 5/8	5
1 3/4	10	589/64	1 3/4	5
1 5/8	10	595/64	1 7/8	5
1 3/2	10	601/64	1 15/16	5
1 1/2	10	607/64	1 1/2	5
1 1/4	10	613/64	1 5/8	5
1 1/2	10	619/64	1 3/4	5
1 3/4	10	625/64	1 7/8	5
1 5/8	10	631/64	1 15/16	5
1 3/2	10	637/64	1 1/2	5
1 1/2	10	643/64	1 5/8	5
1 1/4	10	649/64	1 3/4	5
1 1/2	10	655/64	1 7/8	5
1 3/4	10	661/64	1 15/16	5
1 5/8	10	667/64	1 1/2	5
1 3/2	10	673/64	1 5/8	5
1 1/2	10	679/64	1 3/4	5
1 1/4	10	685/64	1 7/8	5
1 1/2	10	691/64	1 15/16	5
1 3/4	10	697/64	1 1/2	5
1 5/8	10	703/64	1 5/8	5
1 3/2	10	709/64	1 3/4	5
1 1/2	10	715/64	1 7/8	5
1 1/4	10	721/64	1 15/16	5
1 1/2	10	727/64	1 1/2	5
1 3/4	10	733/64	1 5/8	5
1 5/8	10	739/64	1 3/4	5
1 3/2	10	745/64	1 7/8	5
1 1/2	10	751/64	1 15/16	5
1 1/4	10	757/64	1 1/2	5
1 1/2	10	763/64	1 5/8	5
1 3/4	10	769/64	1 3/4	5
1 5/8	10	775/64	1 7/8	5
1 3/2	10	781/64	1 15/16	5
1 1/2	10	787/64	1 1/2	5
1 1/4	10	793/64	1 5/8	5
1 1/2	10	799/64	1 3/4	5
1 3/4	10	805/64	1 7/8	5
1 5/8	10	811/64	1 15/16	5
1 3/2	10	817/64	1 1/2	5
1 1/2	10	823/64	1 5/8	5
1 1/4	10	829/64	1 3/4	5
1 1/2	10	835/64	1 7/8	5
1 3/4	10	841/64	1 15/16	5
1 5/8	10	847/64	1 1/2	5
1 3/2	10	853/64	1 5/8	5
1 1/2	10	859/64	1 3/4	5
1 1/4	10	865/64	1 7/8	5
1 1/2	10	871/64	1 15/16	5
1 3/4	10	877/64	1 1/2	5
1 5/8	10	883/64	1 5/8	5
1 3/2	10	889/64	1 3/4	5
1 1/2	10	895/64	1 7/8	5
1 1/4	10	901/64	1 15/16	5
1 1/2	10	907/64	1 1/			

o inches across the hole of 5.25, ave 63,920 lbs., and 10.6% elonga-

for punches for use in metal of punch. This form is of great- rked is less than two thirds the

wing-press. Oberlin Smith methods of finding the size of d consists simply in a series of roper one is found. This is for the cutting portions of the di- her work is done. The second id then, knowing the weight of the diameter of a piece having eight. The third method is by $\frac{1}{2} + 4dh$ for sharp-cornered cup. of cup, h = height of cup. For l, say radius of corner less than $\frac{1}{2} + 4dh) - r$, about; r being the assumption that the thickness ing operation.

of the Drop-press. R. H. copper cylinders was prepared. fected to the action of pressure of fall. Companion specimens me amount, and measure the n, and of the amount of work rop. Comparing one with the ie hammer was 2% of the work elency. That is to say, the qual to that due the weight of

ht of drop \div fall \div efficiency
compression,
e mean area opposed to crush-

our. Frank. Inst., March, 1877. gh iron blocks $3\frac{1}{4}$ inches thick, i only $1\frac{1}{16}$ inch thick, and its the hole. Therefore, 6% of the into the block itself, increasing

KING FITS.

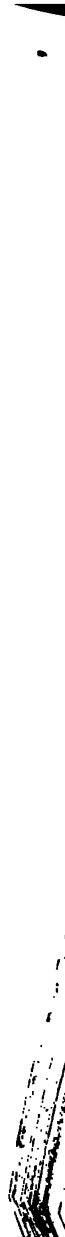
by Hydraulic Pressure. larger than the hole into which pressure of 30 to 35 tons. (Lec-

e driving wheel, when the pin- ould be pressed in with a pres- the wheel fit. When the hole is t of shrinking the tire on the has been bored, or if the hole is ve to be increased to 9 tons for n. Machinist.)

an Railway Master Mechanics' rinkage allowances for tires of ly heated by gas-flames, slipped ol. The centres are turned to irs are bored smaller by the

4	50	56	62	66
7	.053	.060	.066	.070

r 1/80 inch per foot, or 1/660. A modulus of elasticity of steel at



30,000,000, the strain caused by shrinkage would be 30,000 lbs. per square inch, which is well within the elastic limit of machinery steel.

SCREWS, SCREW-THREADS, ETC.¹

Efficiency of a Screw.—Let α = angle of the thread, $\tan \alpha$ = angle whose tangent is the pitch of the screw divided by the circumference of a circle whose diameter is the mean of the diameters at the top and bottom of the thread. Then for a square thread

$$\text{Efficiency} = \frac{1 - f \tan \alpha}{1 + f \cotan \alpha}$$

in which f is the coefficient of friction. (For demonstration, see *College Course*. Applied Mechanics, p. 146.) Since $\cotan \alpha = 1 \div \tan \alpha$, we may write for $\cotan \alpha$ the reciprocal of the tangent, or if p = pitch, and c = mean circumference of the screw,

$$\text{Efficiency} = \frac{1 - f \frac{p}{c}}{1 + f \frac{c}{p}}$$

EXAMPLE.—Efficiency of square-threaded screws of $\frac{1}{4}$ in. pitch.

Diameter at bottom of thread, in . . .	1	2	3
" " top " " " . . .	1 $\frac{1}{4}$	2 $\frac{1}{4}$	3 $\frac{1}{4}$
Mean circumference " " " . . .	3.927	7.069	10.21
Cotangent $\alpha = c \div p$	7.854	14.14	20.42
Tangent $\alpha = p \div c$1273	.0661	.0490
Efficiency if $f = .10$	55.3%	41.2%	32.5%
" " $f = .15$	45%	31.7%	24.4%

The efficiency thus increases with the steepness of the pitch.

The above formulæ and examples are for square-threaded screws, and consider the friction of the screw-thread only, and not the friction of the collar or step by which end thrust is resisted, and which further reduces efficiency. The efficiency is also further reduced by giving an incline to the side of the thread, as in the V-threaded screw. For discussion of this subject, see paper by Wilfred Lewis, *Jour. Frank. Inst.*, 1880; also *A. S. M. E.*, vol. xii, 784.

Efficiency of Screw-bolts.—Mr. Lewis gives the following approximate formula for ordinary screw-bolts (V threads, with collar) pitch of screw, d = outside diameter of screw, F = force applied at end of handle to lift a unit of weight, E = efficiency of screw. For an ordinary case, in which the coefficient of friction may be assumed at .15,

$$F = \frac{p + d}{3d}, \quad E = \frac{p}{p + d}$$

For bolts of the dimensions given above, $\frac{1}{4}$ -in. pitch, and outside diameters $1\frac{1}{2}$, $2\frac{1}{2}$, $3\frac{1}{2}$, and $4\frac{1}{2}$ in., the efficiencies according to this formula would be, respectively, .35, .167, .125, and .10.

James McBride (*Trans. A. S. M. E.*, xii, 781) describes an experiment with an ordinary 2-in. screw-bolt, with a V thread, $4\frac{1}{2}$ threads per inch. A weight of 7500 lbs., the force being applied by turning the nut with a power applied 89.8% was absorbed by friction of the nut on its washer and of the threads of the bolt in the nut. The nut was turned and had the flat side to the washer.

Prof. Ball in his "Experimental Mechanics" says: "Experimentally in two cases respectively about $\frac{2}{3}$ and $\frac{1}{4}$ of the power was lost."

Trautwine says: "In practice the friction of the screw (which increases with heavy loads becomes very great) make the theoretical calculations little value."

Weisbach says: "The efficiency is from 19% to 30%."

Efficiency of a Differential Screw.—A correspondent of the *American Machinist* describes an experiment with a differential screw, consisting of an outer screw 2 in. diam., 3 threads per inch, and an inner screw $1\frac{1}{2}$ in. diam., $3\frac{1}{2}$ threads per inch. The pitch of the outer

¹For U. S. Standard Screw-threads, see page 804.

inner screw $\frac{2}{7}$ in., the punch would advance $\frac{1}{7} = 1.41$ in. Experiments were made to depunch an $\frac{11}{16}$ -in. hole in iron $\frac{1}{4}$ in. thick, the length of a lever-arm of $47\frac{3}{4}$ in. The leverage would be the mean force applied at the end of the lever divided by the area of the punch, if there was no friction, would be the force required to punch the iron, assuming a strength of 50,000 lbs. per sq. in., would be $50,000 \times \frac{11}{16} \times \pi \times \frac{1}{16}$. The efficiency of the punch would be $27,000 \div 598,500 = 4.5\%$. If the screw were only used as a punch the mean force at the end of the lever would be 82 lbs. The leverage in this case was $47\frac{3}{4} \times \frac{1}{16}$ referred to the punch, including friction, $900 \times \frac{1}{16} = 56.25$. The screws were lubricated with lard-oil and plumbago.

Thread.—A. M. Powell (*Am. Mach.*, Jan. 24, 1892) advocates the use of a square thread to replace the square form of thread, for ease in making fits, and provision for "take-up" dimensions are the same as those of square threads. The sides of the thread, instead of being perpendicular to the axis, are inclined $14\frac{1}{2}^\circ$ to such perpendiculars. The flanks of the thread are inclined 29° to each other. The pitch of the thread are the following: Depth of thread = width of space; Depth of root of thread = width of space at bottom = width of space at top = $.6293 \div$ number of threads to the inch.

ARTS OF MACHINES IN A SERIES OF SIZES.

(*Am. Machinist & Tool-Dresser*, April, 1892.)

Proposed by Coleman Sellers while at William Sellers Works, Philadelphia, for the purpose of making one of the parts of machines, based upon the design of the largest machine and a small one to any series of sizes, and the method used in getting up the proportion-book and drawings from which any machine can be constructed for any size, from the largest and smallest of the series.

Construction Formula.—Take difference between the largest and the smallest machines that are to be made. Take also the difference between the capacities of the largest and smallest machines. Divide the former by the latter, and the result obtained will be a constant "increment," which multiplied by the nominal capacity of the intermediate machines, and the result obtained will give the capacity of the intermediate machines.

To find the "increment:" Multiply the nominal capacity of the largest machine by the factor obtained, and subtract the nominal capacity of the smallest machine from the result.

Example: The nominal capacity of a part of a 72-in. machine is 3 in., and the nominal capacity of a part of a 12-in. machine is $\frac{1}{8}$ in.; then $72 - 12 = 60$, $3 - \frac{1}{8} = 2.875$, $2.875 \div 60 = .0479$ is the "factor," $.0479 \times 3 = .1437$ is the "increment" to be added to the nominal capacity; then the formula will read: $x =$

nominal capacity of part of machine + $.1437$ the size of one of the selected parts. $aD + c = x$, in which $D =$ nominal capacity in part of machine, $a =$ the factor, and $x =$ the

KEYS.

Key-gearing. (*Trans. A. S. M. E.*, xlii, 239.)—E. W. Moore (*Am. Machinist & Tool-Dresser*, April, 1892) gives the following formulae for the design of keys for shafts of circular section: Diameter of key = $\frac{1}{8}$ diam. of shaft, depth = $\frac{1}{8}$ diam. of shaft.

For square keys: Keys of square section, side = $\frac{1}{4}$ diam. of shaft, depth = $\frac{1}{8}$ diam. of shaft.

For rectangular keys: Keys of rectangular section, side = $\frac{1}{4}$ diam. of shaft, depth = $\frac{1}{8}$ diam. of shaft.

For keys for 1 to $1\frac{1}{4}$ in. shafts, $5/16$ is

the depth of key for $1\frac{1}{4}$ in. shafts, and so on.

For keys for large end of splice, $4/5$ width of

Unwin (Elements of Machine Design) gives: Width = $\frac{1}{4}d + \frac{1}{16}$ in. Thickness = $\frac{1}{4}d + \frac{1}{16}$ in., in which d = diam. of shaft in inches. When wheels or pulleys transmitting only a small amount of power are keyed on large shafts, he says, these dimensions are excessive. In that case, if H.P. = horse-power transmitted by the wheel or pulley, N = revs. per min., P = force acting at the circumference, in lbs., and R = radius of pulley in inches, take

$$d = \sqrt[3]{\frac{100 \text{ H.P.}}{N}} \quad \text{or} \quad \sqrt[3]{\frac{PR}{630}}$$

Prof. Coleman Sellers (*Stevens Indicator*, April, 1892) gives the following: The size of keys, both for shafting and for machine tools, are the proportions adopted by William Sellers & Co., and rigidly adhered to during a period of nearly forty years. Their practice in making keys and fitting them is, that the keys shall always bind tight sidewise, but not top and bottom; that is, not necessarily touch either at the bottom of the key-seat in the shaft or touch the top of the slot cut in the gear-wheel that is fastened to the shaft; but in practice keys used in this manner depend upon the fit of the wheel upon the shaft being a forcing fit, or a fit that is so tight as to require screw-pressure to put the wheel in place upon the shaft.

Size of Keys for Shafting.

Diameter of Shaft, in.		Size of Key, in.
$1\frac{1}{4}$	1 7/16 1 11/16	5/16 x 3/8
1	15/16 2 3/16	7/16 x 1/2
2	7/16	9/16 x 5/8
2	11/16 2 15/16 3 3/16 3 7/16	11/16 x 3/4
3	15/16 4 7/16 4 15/16	13/16 x 7/8
5	7/16 5 15/16 6 7/16	15/16 x 1
6	15/16 7 7/16 7 15/16 8 7/16 8 15/16	1 1/16 x 1 1/8

Length of key-seat for coupling = $1\frac{1}{2}$ x nominal diameter of shaft.

Size of Keys for Machine Tools.

Diam. of Shaft, in.	Size of Key, in. sq.	Diam. of Shaft, in.	Size of Key, sq. in.
15/16 and under	1/8	4 to 5 7/16	13/16
1 to 1 3/16	3/16	5 1/2 to 6 15/16	15/16
1 1/4 to 1 7/16	1/4	7 to 8 15/16	1 1/16
1 1/2 to 1 11/16	5/16	9 to 10 15/16	1 3/16
1 3/4 to 2 3/16	7/16	11 to 12 15/16	1 5/16
2 1/4 to 2 11/16	9/16	13 to 14 15/16	1 7/16
2 3/4 to 3 15/16	11/16		

John Richards, in an article in *Cassier's Magazine*, writes as follows: There are two kinds or system of keys, both proper and necessary, but widely different in nature. 1. The common fastening key, usually made in width one-fourth of the shaft's diameter, and the depth five eighths to one third the width. These keys are tapered and fit on all sides, or, as it is commonly described, "bear all over." They perform the double function in most cases of driving or transmitting and fastening the keyed-on member against movement endwise on the shaft. Such keys, when properly made, drive as a strut, diagonally from corner to corner.

2. The other kind or class of keys are not tapered and fit on their sides only, a slight clearance being left on the back to insure against wedge action or radial strain. These keys drive by shearing strain.

For fixed work where there is no sliding movement such keys are commonly made of square section, the sides only being planed, so the depth is more than the width by so much as is cut away in finishing or fitting.

For sliding bearings, as in the case of drilling-machine spindles, the depth should be increased, and in cases where there is heavy strain there should be two keys or feathers instead of one.

The following tables are taken from proportions adopted in practical use. Flat keys, as in the first table, are employed for fixed work when the parts are to be held not only against torsional strain, but also against movement endwise; and in case of heavy strain the strut principle being the strongest and most secure against movement when there is strain each way, as in the case of engine cranks and first movers generally. The objection

are, straining the work out of truth, the care-
ing, and destroying the evidence of good or bad
When a wheel or other part is fastened with a
ere is no means of knowing whether the work is
reason such keys are not employed by machine-
e of accurate work of any kind, indeed, cannot
strain, and also the difficulty of inspecting com-

IONS OF FLAT KEYS, IN INCHES.

1¼	1½	1¾	2	2¼	3	3½	4	5	6	7	8
5/16	¾	7/16	1¼	5/8	¾	7/8	1	1½	1¾	1½	1¾
3/16	¼	9/32	5/16	3/8	7/16	1/2	9/8	11/16	13/16	1½	1

IONS OF SQUARE KEYS, IN INCHES.

1¼	1½	1¾	2	2¼	3	3½	4
7/32	9/32	11/32	13/32	15/32	17/32	9/16	11/16
¼	5/16	¾	7/16	1½	9/16	5/8	¾

OF SLIDING FEATHER-KEYS, IN INCHES.

1¾	2	2¼	2½	3	3½	4	4½
5/16	5/16	¾	¾	1½	9/16	9/16	5/8
7/16	7/16	1/2	1/2	5/8	¾	¾	¾

following table of dimensions to the *Am. Machin-*
heavy work and very short hubs we put in two
t. With special long hubs, where we cannot use
should be thicker than the standard.

Thick- ness, in.	Diameter of Shafts, inches.	Width, inches.	Thick- ness, in.
1/16	3 7/16 to 3 11/16	5/8	5/8
1/16	3 15/16 to 4 3/16	1	11/16
5/16	4 7/16 to 4 11/16	1½	¾
3/8	4¾ to 5¾	1½	15/16
1/2	5¾ to 6¾	1½	1
9/16	6¾ to 7¾	1¾	1½

es, say 14 to 16", 1/16" thicker; keys longer than
" thicker; and so on. Special short hubs to have

Woodruff system of keying, see circular of the
Modern Mechanism, page 455.

ER OF KEYS AND SET-SCREWS.

ing-power of Set-screws in Pulleys.
M. E., x. 230.)—These tests were made by using a
aft by two set-screws with the shaft keyed to the
quired at the rim of the pulley to cause it to slip
being multiplied by the number 6.037 (obtained by
he pulley one-half the diameter of the wire rope,
vice the radius of the shaft, since there were two
time) gives the holding-power of the set-screws,
of wrought-iron, 5/8 of an inch in diameter, and ten
shaft used was of steel and rather hard. The set-
s impression upon it. They were set
d of a ten-inch monkey-wrench. The
marked respectively A, B, C, and D.

A, ends perfectly flat, 9/16-in. diameter,	1412 to 2294 lbs.;	average 3054.
B, radius of rounded ends about $\frac{1}{4}$ inch,	2747 " 3079 "	" " 2912.
C, " " " " " $\frac{1}{4}$ "	1902 " 3079 "	" " 2573.
D, ends cup-shaped and case-hardened,	1962 " 2958 "	" " 2470.

REMARKS.—A. The set-screws were not entirely normal to the shaft; hence they bore less in the earlier trials, before they had become flattened by wear.

B. The ends of these set-screws, after the first two trials, were found to be flattened, the flattened area having a diameter of about $\frac{1}{4}$ inch.

C. The ends were found, after the first two trials, to be flattened, as in B.

D. The first test held well because the edges were sharp, then the holding-power fell off till they had become flattened in a manner similar to B, when the holding-power increased again.

Tests of the Holding-power of Keys. (Lanza.)—The load was applied as in the tests of set-screws, the shaft being firmly keyed to the holders. The load required at the rim of the pulley to shear the keys was determined, and this, multiplied by a suitable constant, determined in a similar way to that used in the case of set-screws, gives us the shearing strength per square inch of the keys.

The keys tested were of eight kinds, denoted, respectively, by the letters A, B, C, D, E, F, G and H, and the results were as follows: A, B, D and F, each 4 tests; E, 3 tests; C, G, and H, each 2 tests.

A, Norway iron, $2'' \times \frac{1}{4}'' \times 15/32''$,	40,184 to 47,760 lbs.;	average, 42,726.
B, refined iron, $2'' \times \frac{1}{4}'' \times 15/32''$,	36,482 " 39,254;	" " 38,069.
C, tool steel, $1'' \times \frac{1}{4}'' \times 15/32''$,	91,344 & 100,056.	
D, machinery steel, $2'' \times \frac{1}{4}'' \times 15/32''$,	64,630 to 70,186;	" " 66,575.
E, Norway iron, $1\frac{1}{2}'' \times \frac{3}{8}'' \times 7/16''$,	36,850 " 37,232;	" " 37,036.
F, cast-iron, $2'' \times \frac{1}{4}'' \times 15/32''$,	30,278 " 36,944;	" " 33,034.
G, cast-iron, $1\frac{1}{2}'' \times \frac{3}{8}'' \times 7/16''$,	37,222 & 38,700.	
H, cast-iron, $1'' \times \frac{1}{2}'' \times 7/16''$,	29,814 & 38,978.	

In A and B some crushing took place before shearing. In E, the keys being only $7/16$ in. deep, tipped slightly in the key-way. In H, in the first test, there was a defect in the key-way of the pulley.

DYNAMOMETERS.

Dynamometers are instruments used for measuring power. They are of several classes, as: 1. Traction dynamometers, used for determining the power required to pull a car or other vehicle, or a plough or harrow. 2. Brake or absorption dynamometers, in which the power of a rotating shaft or wheel is absorbed or converted into heat by the friction of a brake; and, 3. Transmission dynamometers, in which the power in a rotating shaft is measured during its transmission through a belt or other connection to another shaft, without being absorbed.

Traction Dynamometers generally contain two principal parts: (1) A spring or series of springs, through which the pull is exerted, the extension of the spring measuring the amount of the pulling force; and (2) a paper-covered drum, rotated either at a uniform speed by clock-work, or at a speed proportional to the speed of the traction, through gearing, on which the extension of the spring is registered by a pencil. From the average height of the diagram drawn by the pencil above the zero-line the average pulling force in pounds is obtained, and this multiplied by the distance traversed, in feet, gives the work done, in foot-pounds. The product divided by the time in minutes and by 33,000 gives the horse-power.

The Prony brake is the typical form of absorption dynamometer. (See Fig. 167, from Flather on Dynamometers and the Measurement of Power.)

Primarily this consists of a lever connected to a revolving shaft or pulley in such a manner that the friction induced between the surfaces in contact will tend to rotate the arm in the direction in which the shaft revolves. This rotation is counterbalanced by weights P , hung in the scale pan at the end of the lever. In order to measure the power for a given number of revolutions of pulley, we add weights to the scale-pan and screw up on bolts A , until the friction induced balances the weights and the lever is unbalanced.

re revolutions of shaft per minute remain generally omitted—the friction being measured by throwing over the pulley. Ropes or cords are used.

scale-pan, as in Fig. 167, the friction may be measured by this arrangement.

the shaft, inner surface of the beam into the shaft.

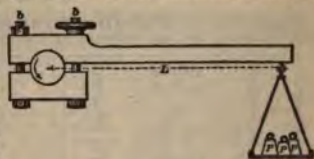


FIG. 167.

the action of gravity; a waste-pipe with its rough that it acts as a scoop, and removes the water. It consists of a flexible strap to which are fitted three brass blocks; the ends of the strap are connected, by means of which any desired tension may be applied.

The power absorbed is determined from the following:
 P = power absorbed, per minute;
 W = weight in pounds, acting on lever-arm

L = length of arm in feet from centre of shaft;
 N = revolutions per minute at distance L, if arm were removed;
 n = revolutions per minute; the speed of the shaft;

$$\text{Average H.P.} = 2\pi LNP + 33,000.$$

$\frac{P}{33,000} = 2\pi LN$ is practically 5 ft. 3 in., a value which is the length of arm.

Small, the resulting friction will show great effects of insufficient lubrication—the jaws between the plates thus producing shocks and sudden vibrations.

Walrus, beech, poplar, or maple are all to be used for the brake-blocks. The rubbing-surface should be smooth.

Dynamometer. (G. I. Alden, Trans. A. S. M. E., xiii, 429.)—This dynamometer is a simple dynamometer of moderate sizes of absorbing large powers and complete regulation. A smooth casting shaft is enclosed in a cast-iron shell. The plates are fixed at their circumference, which is free to rotate. The interior of each of the sides of the shell is between itself and the side a water-tight gasket. The water from the city pipes is admitted into each of the chambers and pressed against the central disk. The water is sealed with oil. To the outer shell is fixed a gasket to prevent the tendency of the shell to rotate with the plates against the central disk. Four dynamometers were used in testing the experimental dynamometer (Trans. A. S. M. E., xiii, 429). Each dynamometer was capable of absorbing 10,500 foot-pounds with a water

with the copper plates on either side, having its outer radius equal to that of the central disk. The apparent coefficient of friction was 31.6%.

W. W. Beaumont (Proc. Inst. C. E. 1886) has deduced a formula by means of which the relative capacity of brakes can be compared, judging from the amount of horse-power ascertained by their use.

If W = width of rubbing-surface on brake-wheel in inches; V = vel. of point on circum. of wheel in feet per minute; K = coefficient; then

$$K = WV + \text{H.P.}$$

Capacity of Friction-brakes.—Prof. Flather obtains the values of K given in the last column of the subjoined table:

Horse-power.	R. P. M. Brake-pulley.	Brake-pulley.		Length of Arm.	Design of Brake.	Value of K .
		Face, in inches.	Diameter, in feet.			
21	150	7	5	33"	Royal Ag. Soc., compensating.....	785
19	148.5	7	5	33.38"	McLaren, compensating.....	833
20	146	7	5	32.19"	" water-cooled and comp.....	802
40	180	10.5	5	32"	Garrett, " " ".....	741
33	150	10.5	5	32"	" " " " ".....	749
150	150	10	9	Schoenheyder, water-cooled.....	282
24	142	12	6	38.31"	Balk.....	1385
180	100	24	5	126.1"	Gately & Kletsch, water-cooled.....	329
475	76.3	24	7	191"	Webber, water-cooled.....	81.7
125 {	290 {	24	4	63"	Westinghouse, water-cooled.....	465
250 {	250 {					
40 {	320 {	13	4	27¾"	" ".....	817
125 {	290 {					

The above calculations for eleven brakes give values of K varying from 84.7 to 1385 for actual horse-powers tested, the average being $K = 655$.

Instead of assuming an average coefficient, Prof. Flather proposes the following:

Water-cooled brake, non-compensating, $K = 400$; $W = 400 \text{ H.P.} + V$.

Water-cooled brake, compensating, $K = 750$; $W = 750 \text{ H.P.} + V$.

Non-cooling brake, with or without compensating device, $K = 900$; $W = 900 \text{ H.P.} + V$.

Transmission Dynamometers are of various forms, as the Batchelder dynamometer, in which the power is transmitted through a "train-arm" of bevel gearing, with its modifications, as the one described by the author in Trans. A. I. M. E., viii. 177, and the one described by Samuel Webber in Trans. A. S. M. E., x. 514; belt dynamometers, as the Tatham; the Van Winkle dynamometer, in which the power is transmitted from a revolving shaft to another in line with it, the two almost touching, through the medium of coiled springs fastened to arms or disks keyed to the shafts; the Brackett and the Webb cradle dynamometers, used for measuring the power required to run dynamo-electric machines. Descriptions of the four last named are given in Flather on Dynamometers.

Much information on various forms of dynamometers will be found in Trans. A. S. M. E., vol. vii. to xv., inclusive, indexed under Dynamometers.

REFRIGERATING MACHINES.

borate discussion of the thermodynamic theory of fluids used in the production of cold was published by *des Mines*, and translated in *Van Nostrand's Magazine* and additions made in the light of recent experiments, Jacobus, and Riesenberger, was reprinted in Science Series, No. 46.) The work is largely mathematical as much information of immediate practical value, matter given below is taken. Other references are *Eng'g*, Chap. V., and numerous papers by Professors Reith, and Linde in *Trans. A. S. M. E.*, vols. x. to xiv.; *Eng'g*, article on Refrigerating-machines; also *Eng'g*, June 17, 1887; June 15, 1888; July 31, Aug. 28, 1889; Sept. 6 and July 8, 1892. For properties of Ammonia and other gases, papers by Professors Wood and Jacobus, *Trans. A. S.*

For describing refrigerating-machines, see *Am. Mach.*, *Eng'g*, and *Mfrs. Record*, Oct. 7, 1892; also catalogues of *Waynesboro, Pa.*; *De La Vergne Refrigerating-machines* and others.

Refrigerating-machine.—Apparatus designed and constructed upon the following series of operations:

1. Compress the gas or vapor by means of some external force, then relieve it so that it expands and increases its volume; next, cause this compressed gas or vapor to do mechanical work, and thus lower its temperature; finally, produce mechanical work, and thus lower its temperature. The addition of heat at this stage by the gas, in resuming its original volume, restores the refrigerating effect of the apparatus.

2. The operation is a heat-engine reversed. The difference between heat-motors and freezing-machines it results from the mechanical theory of heat to determine the first, apply equally to the second. The effect is produced upon the difference between the extremes of temperature.

3. The efficiency of a refrigerating-machine depends upon the ratio of the heat eliminated and the work expended in compressing the gas or vapor.

4. The efficiency of the nature of the body employed. The refrigerating-machine possesses the greatest efficiency when the initial temperature is small, and when the final temperature is large. If the initial and final temperatures are the same, there is no theoretical advantage in employing a vapor in order to produce cold.

5. The intermediate body would be determined by practical considerations, the physical characteristics of the body, such as the ease of manipulating it, the extreme pressures required

6. The advantage that it is everywhere obtainable, and that it can be used at higher pressures, independent of the temperature of the body, to produce a given useful effect the apparatus must be designed so that it requires less than that required by liquefiable vapors.

7. The pressure is determined by the temperature of the condenser and the volatile liquid; this pressure is often very high. The condensation of a saturated vapor is made under constant pressure, and the temperature remains constant. The addition or subtraction of heat, which causes a change of volume, is represented by an increase or decrease of the density of liquid mixed with the vapor.

8. All vapors, even if saturated, are no longer in condensation when they receive an addition of heat either through the action of an external force, or from some external source of heat. The condensation of vapors is in the same way as permanent gases, and is determined by the same laws.

9. The property, that refrigerating-machines using different bodies are differing according to the method of operation.

and depending upon the state of the gas, whether it remains constant, or is superheated during a part of the cycle working.

The temperature of the condenser is determined by local conditions. The interior will exceed by 9° to 18° the temperature of the water forming the exterior. This latter will vary from about 52° F., the temperature of water from considerable depth below the surface, to about 92° F., the temperature of surface-water in hot climates. The volatile liquid employed in the machine ought not at this temperature to have a tension which can be readily managed by the apparatus.

On the other hand, if the tension of the gas at the minimum temperature is too low, it becomes necessary to give to the compression-cylinder dimensions, in order that the weight of vapor compressed by a single stroke of the piston shall be sufficient to produce a notably useful effect.

These two conditions, to which may be added others, such as the danger incurred in its use, either from its inflammability or explosiveness, and finally upon its action upon the metals, limit the choice to a number of substances.

The gases or vapors generally available are: sulphuric ether, sulphur dioxide, ammonia, methylic ether, and carbonic acid.

The following table, derived from Regnault, shows the tensions of these substances at different temperatures between -22° and 104°.

Pressures and Boiling-points of Liquids available for Use in Refrigerating-machines.

Temp. of Ebullition.	Tension of Vapor, in lbs. per sq. in., above Zero				
Deg. Fahr.	Sulphuric Ether.	Sulphur Dioxide.	Ammonia.	Methylic Ether.	Carbonic Acid.
- 40	10.22
- 31	13.23
- 22	5.56	16.95	11.15
- 13	7.23	21.51	13.85	251.6
- 4	1.80	9.27	27.04	17.06	292.9
5	1.70	11.76	33.67	20.84	340.1
14	2.19	14.75	41.58	25.27	393.4
23	2.79	18.31	50.91	30.41	453.4
32	3.55	22.53	61.85	36.34	520.4
41	4.45	27.48	74.55	43.13	594.8
50	5.54	33.26	89.21	50.84	676.3
59	6.84	39.93	105.99	59.56	766.3
68	8.38	47.62	125.08	69.35	864.9
77	10.19	56.39	146.64	80.28	971.1
86	12.31	66.37	170.83	92.41	1085.6
95	14.76	77.64	197.83	1207.9
104	17.50	90.32	227.76	1338.2

The table shows that the use of ether does not readily lead to the production of low temperatures, because its pressure becomes then very high.

Ammonia, on the contrary, is well adapted to the production of low temperatures.

Methylic ether yields low temperatures without attaining too high pressures at the temperature of the condenser. Sulphur dioxide reaches temperatures of -14 to -5, while its pressure is only 3 to 4 atm. at the ordinary temperature of the condenser. These latter substances lend themselves conveniently for the production of cold by the mechanical force.

The "Pictet fluid" is a mixture of 95% sulphur dioxide and 5% carbonic acid. At atmospheric pressure it affords a temperature 14° below zero.

Carbonic acid is as yet (1895) in use but to a limited extent, because of the compactness of compressor that it requires, and its

mmendation for service on shipboard, where

berated with a surplus of liquid present dur-
ating is prevented. This practice is known
ssion.

rding the application of methylic ether or
ene in practical refrigerating service. The
ad the cumbersome of the compressor

It is agreed that the term "ice-melting
d in an insulated bath of brine, on the as-
' represents one pound of ice, this being the
he heat required to melt a pound of ice at
ature.

, expressed in pounds or tons of "ice-melt-
at the refrigerating-machine would make
but that the cold produced is equivalent to
at 32° to water of the same temperature.

er frozen is generally about 70° F. when sub-
of a machine; second, the ice is chilled from
t; third, there is a dissipation of cold, from
nd the manipulation of the ice-cans: there-
ade, multiplied by its latent heat of fusion,
ly about three fourths of the cold produced
r fluid per I.H.P. of the engine driving the
re is considerable fuel consumed to operate
condensing-water and feed-pumps, and to
steam from which the ice is frozen. This
n leakage and drip water, amounts to about
he main steam-engine. Hence the pounds
distilled water is just about half the equiv-
produced in the brine per indicated horse-

om natural water by means of the "plate
used with distilled water, is saved by avoid-
m expansively in a compound engine.

India, are said to have produced about 6
gel consumed.

because the density of the vapor of ether,
re, requires that the compressing-cylinder
in for sulphur dioxide, and 17 times larger

ut 1.2 times greater capacity of compress-
e, more cumbersome than ether machines,
pard. In using air the expansion must take
instead of through a simple expansion-cock
es. The work done in the expansion-cylind-
mpressor.

-machines.—"Cold" vs. "Dry" Systems
"system or "humid" system some of the
sion-cylinder is liquid, so that the heat de-
ed by the liquid and the temperature of the
he boiling-point due to the condenser-pres-
quired about the cylinder.

u all ammonia entering the compressor is
comes by compression several hundred de-
int due to the condenser-pressure. A water-
o permit the cylinder to be properly lubri-

**of Ammonia Compression- and
ssuming no Water to be En-
nia-gas in the Condenser.** (Denton
xiii.)—It is assumed in the calculation for
imparts 10,000 B.T.U. to the boiler. The

ice is 144 thermal units (*Phil.* 3^d
use 142. (Prof. Wood, Trans. 3^d

Ammonia Compression-machines.—Ammonia gas possesses the same volume described by the piston. The perfection of ammonia apparatus now renders it so convenient and reliable that no pressure of pressures afforded by sulphur dioxide. The results of the calculations for ammonia are given in the table below :

PERFORMANCE OF AMMONIA COMPRESSOR-MACHINES.
 gas superheated during compression as in ordinary practice. Temperature of condenser, 64.4° Fahr. Pressure in condenser, 117.44 lbs per sq. in. (Leducoux.)

Temperature Corresponding to Pressure of Vapor in Refrigerating-coils.	Absolute Pressure in Refrigerating-coils.		t_1	Temperature of Gas at End of Compression.	m	Weight of Gas Compressed.	Q_1	Heat Abstracted at Condenser.	Number of Negative Thermal Units Developed.	Work of Compression.		Performance in British Thermal Units.		Ice-melting Capacity per Cubic Foot of Piston Displacement.	Ice-melting Capacity per lb. of Coal, assuming 3 lbs. of Coal per hour per H.P. of Steam-cylinder. With Friction.	Gals.
	$P_2 + 144$	Lbs. per sq. in.								Without Friction.	With Friction, or Indicated Steam-power.	Per Ft.-lb. of Work of Compression, With Friction.	Per hour per Horse-power, With Friction.			
106.66	37.76	1829	158.9	69.41	7070	8130	78.56	69.41	0.0854	16,900	0.00244	39.6	1390			
9.60	33.67	1206	170.1	62.77	7150	8190	71.98	62.77	.00768	15,170	.00221	35.6	1310			
9.50	16.95	.0939	241.2	32.53	6080	6990	40.45	32.53	.00466	9,230	.00115	31.5	1410			

Reasons that have been stated for sulphur dioxide. For heat determined experimentally by the method of Leducoux.

Temp. Due to Pressure Vapor in Condenser.	Deg. F.	Absolute Pressure in Condenser.	Temp. at End of Compression.	Heat Carried away from Condenser.	Refrigerating Effect in Heat Units.	Ratio of Refrigerating Effect to Heat Expanded.	Work of Compression without Friction.	Work of Compression with Friction, or Indicated Steam-power.	Refrigerating Effect in Heat Units.			Ice-melting Capacity.				Condensing-water.		
									Per Ft.-lb. of Work Expanded, without Friction.	Per Ft.-lb. of Work Expanded, including Friction.	Per Hour per H.P. Including Friction.	Without Friction.	With Friction.	Per Hour per H.P. Without Friction.	With Friction.	Per Ton of Ice-melting Capacity in 24 hours.	Per Minute per Ton of Ice-melting Capacity.	Per Ton of Ice-melting Capacity.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)
59	106.0	154.6	71.81	69.47	7.61	6,450	7,410	.00684	.00857	10,960	137.0	119.3	45.8	39.8	.000253	.2872	1360	.80
68	125.1	179.9	72.05	62.31	6.40	7,530	8,660	.00857	.00719	14,250	115.2	100.2	38.4	33.4	.000219	.2852	1320	.92
77	146.6	205.1	72.26	61.13	5.49	8,600	9,890	.00711	.00618	12,240	99.0	86.1	33.0	28.7	.000215	.2890	1350	.94
86	170.8	255.4	72.46	59.93	4.78	9,680	11,130	.00619	.00538	10,660	86.2	75.0	28.7	25.0	.000211	.2898	1380	.96
95	197.8	280.3	72.61	58.70	4.22	10,750	12,960	.00546	.00475	9,400	76.0	66.1	25.3	22.0	.000206	.2904	1410	.98
104	257	280.3	72.74	57.45	3.75	11,830	13,500	.00435	.00423	8,380	67.7	58.9	22.5	19.6	.000202	.2910	1440	1.00

REFRIGERATING EFFECT OF 1 CU. FT. OF AMMONIA EXPANDED THROUGH A SIMPLE COCK TO 16.95 LBS. ABSOLUTE PRESSURE PER SQ. IN., AND TAKEN INTO THE COMPRESSOR AT THIS PRESSURE AND THE CORRESPONDING TEMPERATURE OF - 32° F.																		
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)
100	284.2	284.2	40.28	32.93	4.48	5,680	6,530	.00680	.00504	9,980	80.7	70.2	26.9	23.4	.000116	.1611	1,300	.97
105	282.2	280.2	40.50	32.31	3.95	6,330	7,280	.00510	.00444	8,790	71.0	61.8	23.7	20.6	.000114	.1690	1,420	.99
110	280.2	280.2	40.70	31.69	3.52	6,960	8,000	.00455	.00396	7,840	63.3	55.1	21.1	18.4	.000111	.1638	1,470	1.02
115	278.2	278.2	40.90	31.05	3.15	7,610	8,750	.00408	.00353	7,090	56.8	49.4	18.9	16.5	.000109	.1686	1,500	1.04
120	276.2	276.2	41.07	30.41	2.85	8,240	9,480	.00369	.00321	6,360	51.4	44.7	17.1	14.9	.000107	.1643	1,540	1.07
125	274.2	274.2	41.23	29.75	2.59	8,870	10,200	.00335	.00292	5,780	46.6	40.5	15.5	13.5	.000105	.1649	1,570	1.09

T	Deg. F.	V	Deg. F.		H	R	R	R	V	V	Ft.-lbs.	Ft.-lbs.	B.T.U.	B.T.U.	B.T.U.	B.T.U.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Lbs.	Tons.	Gals.	Gals.	I	I	I	I
			(3)	(4)																								
(1)	59	106.0	154.6	71.81	63.47	7.61	6,450	7,410	.00684	.00857	16,960	137.0	119.8	45.8	39.8	.000233	.3872	1260	.89	(19)								
(2)	68	125.1	179.9	72.05	62.31	6.40	7,530	8,660	.00827	.00719	14,260	115.2	100.2	38.4	33.4	.000219	.3882	1330	.92	(18)								
(3)	77	146.6	205.1	72.26	61.13	5.49	8,600	9,890	.00711	.00618	12,240	89.0	86.1	33.0	28.7	.000215	.3890	1350	.94	(17)								
(4)	86	170.8	230.3	72.46	59.93	4.78	9,680	11,130	.00619	.00538	10,660	86.2	75.0	28.7	25.0	.000211	.3898	1380	.96	(16)								
(5)	95	197.8	255.4	72.61	58.70	4.22	10,750	12,360	.00546	.00475	9,400	76.0	66.1	25.3	22.0	.000206	.3904	1410	.98	(15)								
(6)	104	227.8	280.3	72.74	57.45	3.76	11,830	13,590	.00456	.00423	8,380	67.7	58.9	22.6	19.6	.000202	.3910	1440	1.00	(14)								

REFRIGERATING EFFECT OF 1 CU. FT. OF AMMONIA EXPANDED THROUGH A SIMPLE COCK TO 16.95 LBS. ABSOLUTE PRESSURE PER SQ. IN., AND TAKEN INTO THE COMPRESSOR AT THIS PRESSURE AND THE CORRESPONDING TEMPERATURE OF 23° F.																											
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)									
105.0	224.1	40.38	32.93	4.48	5,680	6,530	.00580	.00504	9,980	80.7	70.2	26.9	23.4	.000116	.1611	1,350	.97										
125.1	252.2	40.50	32.31	3.95	6,330	7,280	.00510	.00444	8,790	71.0	61.8	23.7	20.6	.000114	.1630	1,420	.99										
146.6	280.2	40.70	31.69	3.52	6,960	8,000	.00455	.00396	7,840	63.3	55.1	21.1	18.4	.000111	.1638	1,470	1.02										
168	308.3	40.90	31.05	3.15	7,610	8,750	.00408	.00355	7,030	56.8	49.4	18.9	16.5	.000109	.1636	1,500	1.04										
	7.8	330.2	41.07	30.41	2.85	8,240	9,480	.00369	.00321	6,360	51.4	44.7	17.1	14.9	.000107	.1643	1,540	1.07									
	7.8	351.0	41.23	29.75	2.59	8,870	10,200	.00335	.00282	5,780	46.6	40.6	15.5	13.5	.000105	.1649	1,570	1.09									

The following is a comparison of the theoretical ice-melting required in ammonia compression machine with that obtained in some of Prof. Schröter's tests on a Liede machine having a compression-cylinder 14½ in. bore and 14½ in. stroke, and also in tests by Prof. Denton on a machine having two single-acting compression cylinders 12 in. x 30 in.:

No. of Test.	Temp. in Degrees F. Corresponding to Pressure of Vapor.		Ice-melting Capacity per lb. of Coal, assuming 3 lbs. per hour per Horse-power.		
	Condenser.	Suction.	Theoretical, Friction * included.	Actual.	Per Cent of Loss Due to Cylinder Superheating.
Schröter	1	72.3	36.6	50.4	15.4
	2	70.5	14.3	31.0	31.2
	3	69.2	0.5	29.4	25.3
	4	68.5	-11.8	27.8	24.1
Denton	24	84.2	15.0	27.4	11.7
	25	83.7	- 3.2	21.6	19.0
	25	84.6	-10.8	18.8	21.3

Refrigerating Machines using Vapor of Water. (Leduc.)

In these machines, sometimes called vacuum machines, water, at ordinary temperatures, is injected into, or placed in connection with, a chamber in which a strong vacuum is maintained. A portion of the water vaporizes, the heat to cause the vaporization being supplied from the water not vaporized, so that the latter is chilled or frozen to ice. If brine is used instead of pure water, its temperature may be reduced below the freezing-point of water. The water vapor is compressed from, say, a pressure of one-tenth of a pound per square inch to one and one-half pounds, and discharged to a condenser. It is then condensed and removed by means of an ordinary air-pump. The principle of action of such a machine is the same as that of volatile-vapor machines.

A theoretical calculation for ice-making, assuming a lower temperature of 33° F., a pressure in the condenser of 14½ lbs. per square inch, and a consumption of 3 lbs. per I.H.P. per hour, gives an ice-melting effect of 31 lbs. per pound of coal, neglecting friction. Ammonia for ice-making and Leduc's gives 40.9 lbs. The volume of the compressing cylinder is about 1½ times the theoretical volume for an ammonia machine for these conditions.

Relative Efficiency of a Refrigerating Machine.—The efficiency of a refrigerating machine is sometimes expressed as the quotient of the quantity of heat received by the ammonia from the brine, that is, the quantity of useful work done, divided by the heat equivalent of the mechanical work done in the compressor. Thus in column 1 of the table of performance of the 75-ton machine (page 968) the heat given by the brine to the ammonia per minute is 14,776 B.T.U. The horse-power of the ammonia cylinder is 65.7, and its heat equivalent = $65.7 \times 33,000 + 778 = 2,786$ B.T.U. The $14,776 \div 2,786 = 5.304$, efficiency. The apparent paradox that the efficiency is greater than unity, which is impossible in any machine, is thus explained. The working fluid, as ammonia, receives heat from the brine and rejects heat into the condenser. (If the compressor is jacketed, a portion is rejected into the jacket-water.) The heat rejected into the condenser is greater than that received from the brine; the difference (plus or minus a small difference radiated to or from the atmosphere) is heat received by the ammonia from the compressor. The work to be done by the compressor is not the mechanical equivalent of the refrigeration of the brine, but only that necessary to supply the difference between the heat rejected by the ammonia into the condenser and that received from the brine. If cooling water colder than the brine were available, the brine might transfer its heat directly into the cooling water, and there would be no need of ammonia or of a compressor; the

* Friction taken as figures observed in the tests, which range from 14½ to 15½ per cent of the steam-cylinder.

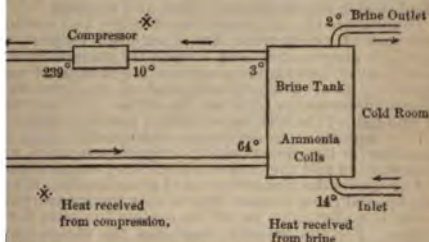
is not available, the brine rejects its heat into the boiler, when the compressor is required to heat the ammonia so that it may reject heat into the cooling water. The refrigerating plant referred to the amount of fuel

$$= \frac{\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Pounds circulated per hour} \\ \times \text{specific heat} \times \text{range} \\ \text{of temperature} \end{array} \right\} \text{ of brine or other circulating fluid.}}{142.2 \times \text{pounds of fuel used per hour.}}$$

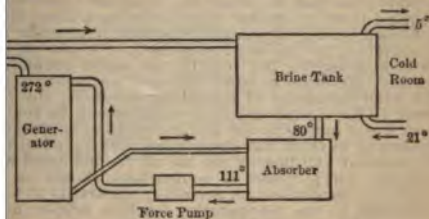
Efficiency is expressed as follows:

$$= \frac{\left\{ \begin{array}{l} 24 \times \text{pounds} \\ \times \text{specific heat} \\ \times \text{range of temp.} \end{array} \right\} \text{ of brine circulated per hour.}}{142.2 \times 2000}$$

The efficiency of a heat-engine and a refrigerating-machine is as follows: The heat-engine receives heat from the boiler, converts a part of it into work in the cylinder, and throws away the difference into the condenser. The refrigerating-machine receives heat from the ammonia in a compression refrigerating machine, rejects the difference into the brine-tank or cold-room, receives an additional amount of work in the compression-cylinder, and rejects the difference into the condenser. The efficiency of the steam-engine is the work received from the boiler. The efficiency of the refrigerating-machine is the work received from the brine-tank or cold-room + heat rejected from the work in the compression-cylinder. In the ammonia



OF AMMONIA COMPRESSION MACHINE.



OF AMMONIA ABSORPTION MACHINE.

The ammonia receives heat from the brine-tank or boiler or generator, and rejects the sum of the heat received from the brine + heat received from the boiler or generator into the condenser. The efficiency of the steam-engine is the work received from the boiler. The efficiency of the refrigerating-machine is the work received from the brine-tank or cold-room + heat rejected from the work in the compression-cylinder. In the ammonia

$$\frac{AL}{Q'} = u, \text{ and } \frac{Q'}{Q} = \frac{T_c - T}{uT}$$

It follows that the expenditure of heat Q' necessary for the production of the quantity of cold Q in a compression-machine will be the smaller the difference of temperature $T_c - T$.

Metering the Ammonia.—For a complete test of an ammonia refrigerating-machine it is advisable to measure the quantity of ammonia circulated, as was done in the test of the 75-ton machine described by Denton. (Trans. A. S. M. E., xii. 326.)

PROPERTIES OF SULPHUR DIOXIDE AND AMMONIA GAS.

Ledoux's Table for Saturated Sulphur-dioxide Gas
Heat-units expressed in B.T.U. per pound of sulphur dioxide

Temperature of Ebullition in deg. F.	Absolute Pressure in lbs. per sq. in. $P + 144$	Total Heat reckoned from 32° F. A	Heat of Liquid reckoned from 32° F. q	Latent Heat of Evaporation r	Heat Equivalent of External Work. $A.P.W.$	Internal Latent Heat. p	Increase of Volume during Evaporation. u
Deg. F.	Lbs.	B.T.U.	B.T.U.	B.T.U.	B.T.U.	B.T.U.	Cu. ft.
-22	5.56	157.43	-19.56	176.99	13.59	163.39	13.17
-13	7.23	158.64	-16.80	174.95	13.83	161.12	10.97
-4	9.27	159.84	-13.05	172.89	14.05	158.84	8.12
5	11.76	161.03	-9.29	170.82	14.26	156.56	6.50
14	14.74	162.20	-5.53	168.73	14.46	154.27	5.25
23	18.31	163.36	-1.77	166.63	14.66	151.97	4.29
32	22.53	164.51	0.00	164.51	14.84	149.68	3.54
41	27.48	165.65	3.27	162.38	15.01	147.37	2.93
50	33.25	166.78	6.55	160.23	15.17	145.06	2.45
59	39.93	167.90	9.85	158.07	15.32	142.75	2.07
68	47.61	168.99	13.11	155.89	15.46	140.43	1.75
77	56.39	170.09	16.39	153.70	15.59	138.11	1.49
86	66.36	171.17	19.69	151.49	15.71	135.78	1.27
95	77.64	172.24	22.98	149.26	15.82	133.45	1.09
104	90.31	173.30	26.28	147.02	15.91	131.11	.91

Density of Liquid Ammonia. (D'Andreff, Trans. A. S. x. 641.)

At temperature C.....	-10	-5	0	5	10	15
" " " F.....	+14	23	32	41	50	59
Density.....	.6492	.6429	.6364	.6298	.6230	.6160

These may be expressed very nearly by
 $\delta = 0.6364 - 0.0014^{\circ} \text{ Centigrade};$
 $\delta = 0.6502 - 0.000777^{\circ} \text{ Fahr.}$

Latent Heat of Evaporation of Ammonia. (Wood, A. S. M. E., x. 641.)

$h_e = 555.5 - 0.613T - 0.000219T^2$ (in B.T.U., Fahr.)
 Ledoux found $h_e = 583.33 - 0.5499T - 0.0001173T^2$.

For experimental values at different temperatures determined by Denton, see Trans. A. S. M. E., xii. 356. For calculated value vol. x. 646.

Density of Ammonia Gas.—Theoretical, 0.5894; experim. 0.596. Regnault (Trans. A. S. M. E., x. 633).

Specific Heat of Liquid Ammonia. (Wood, Trans. A. S. x. 645)—The specific heat is nearly constant at different temperatures about equal to that of water, or unity. From 0° to 100° F., it is

$$c = 1.006 - .0012T, \text{ nearly.}$$

In a later paper by Prof. Wood (Trans. A. S. M. E., xii. 126) he gives a value, viz., $c = 1.12136 + 0.000488T$.

achines) it will be possible to obtain for the accuracy exhibiting small discrepancies only. It is intended to be used for comparison with other machines will therefore have to embrace at least

per hour.....	
refrigerator.....	
refrigerator ..	Q_1
(Fahr.)	
.....	
generator.....	Q_2
hour	
compressor.....	
compressor.....	Q_1
compressor.....	
of the condenser.....	

COMPRESSION-MACHINE.

Compressor :

- Indicated work..... L_t
- Temperature of gases at inlet..
- Temperature of gases at exit..

Steam-engine :

- Feed-water per hour.....
- Temperature of feed-water....
- Absolute steam-pressure before steam-engine.....
- Indicated work of steam-engine..... L_c

- Condensing water per hour....
- Temperature of d_a
- Total sum of losses by radiation and convection... .. $\pm Q_3$

Heat Balance :

$$Q_2 + AL_c = Q_1 \pm Q_3.$$

cy and for comparison of various tests, the compared with the theoretical maximum of efficiency corresponding to the temperature range.

As temperatures (T and T_c) at which the motor and imparted to the condenser, it is correct the brine leaving the refrigerator and that of the condenser, because it is in principle impossible higher than would correspond to the pressure reduce the condenser pressure below that of the cooling water.

maximum theoretical efficiency of a compression machine is expressed by the formula

$$\eta = \frac{T}{T_c - T}$$

abstracted (cold produced);
 of the mechanical work expended;
 work, and $A = 1 + \eta$;
 ure of heat abstraction (refrigerator);
 " " rejection (condenser).
 equivalent of the mechanical work AI
 must be imparted to the motor to Q_1

$$\frac{AL}{Q'} = u, \text{ and } \frac{Q'}{Q} = \frac{T_c - T}{uT}$$

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Deg. F.	Lbs.	B.T.U.	B.T.U.	B.T.U.	B.T.U.	B.T.U.	Cu. ft.	Lb.
-22	5.56	157.49	-19.56	176.90	18.50	168.39	13.17	
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5	11.76	161.08	-9.79	170.82	14.26	156.56	6.50	
14	14.74	162.30	-6.53	168.73	14.46	154.27	5.25	
23	18.31	163.86	-3.27	166.63	14.66	151.97	4.29	
32	22.53	164.51	0.00	164.51	14.84	149.68	3.54	
41	27.48	165.65	3.27	162.38	15.01	147.37	2.98	
50	33.25	166.78	6.55	160.23	15.17	145.06	2.45	
59	39.03	167.90	9.83	158.07	15.33	142.75	2.07	
68	47.61	168.99	13.11	155.89	15.46	140.43	1.78	
77	56.39	170.09	16.39	153.70	15.59	138.11	1.49	
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$$h_e = 535.5 - 0.613T - 0.000219T^2 \text{ (in B.T.U., Fahr. } \delta \text{)}$$

$$\text{Ledoux found } h_e = 583.33 - 0.5499T - 0.0001173T^2.$$

For experimental values at different temperatures determined by Denton, see Trans. A. S. M. E., xii. 326. For calculated values vol. x. 646.

Density of Ammonia Gas.—Theoretical, 0.5894; experim. 0.596. Regnault (Trans. A. S. M. E., x. 633)

Specific Heat of Liquid Ammonia. (Wood, Trans. A. S. M. E., x. 615.)—The specific heat is nearly constant at different temperatures about equal to that of water, or unity. From 0° to 100° F., it is

$$c = 1.096 - .0012T, \text{ nearly.}$$

By Prof. Wood (Trans. A. S. M. E., xii. 136) he gives $c = 1.2135 + 0.000488T$.

Condensing Pressure, lbs.	Suction-pressure, lbs.	Pounds of Ice-melting Effect with Engines—						B. T. U. per lb. of Steam with Engines—		
		Non-condensing.		Non-compound Condensing.		Compound Condensing.		Non-condensing.	Condensing.	Compound Condensing.
		Per lb. Coal.	Per lb. Steam.	Per lb. Coal.	Per lb. Steam.	Per lb. Coal.	Per lb. Steam.			
150	28	24	2.90	30	3.61	37.5	4.51	393	513	640
150	7	14	1.69	17.5	2.11	21.5	2.58	240	300	366
105	28	34.5	4.16	43	5.18	54	6.50	591	725	923
105	7	22	2.65	27.5	3.31	34.5	4.16	376	470	591

The non-condensing engine is assumed to require 25 lbs. of steam per horse-power per hour, the non-compound condensing 20 lbs., and the compound 16 lbs., and the boiler efficiency is assumed at 8.3 lbs. of water per lb. coal under working conditions. The following conclusions were derived from the investigation:

The capacity of the machine is proportional, almost entirely, to the amount of ammonia circulated. This weight depends on the suction-pressure and the displacement of the compressor-pumps. The practical suction-pressures range from 7 lbs. above the atmosphere, with which a temperature of 0° F. can be produced, to 28 lbs. above the atmosphere, with which the temperatures of refrigeration are confined to about 28° F. At the latter pressure only about one half as much weight of ammonia can be circulated as at the upper pressure, the proportion being about in accordance with the ratios of the absolute pressures, 22 and 42 lbs. respectively. For each cubic foot of piston-displacement per minute a capacity of about one sixth ton of "refrigerating effect" per 24 hours can be produced at the lower pressure, and of about one third of a ton at the upper pressure. No other factors practically affect the capacity of a machine, provided the cooling-surface in the brine-tank or other space to be cooled is equal to about 100 sq. ft. per ton of capacity at 28 lbs. back pressure. For example, a difference of 100% in the rate of circulation of brine, while producing a proportional difference in the range of temperature of the latter, made no practical difference in capacity.

The brine-tank was 10½ × 13 × 15¾ ft., and contained 8000 lineal feet of pipe as cooling-surface. The condensing-tank was 12 × 10 × 10 ft., and lined 5000 lineal feet of 1-in. pipe as cooling-surface.

The economy in coal-consumption depends mainly upon both the suction-pressures and condensing-pressures. Maximum economy, with a given engine, where water must be bought at average city prices, is secured at 28 lbs. suction-pressure and about 150 lbs. condensing-pressure. Under these conditions, for a non-condensing steam-engine, consuming coal at a rate of 3 lbs. per hour per I.H.P. of steam-cylinders, 24 lbs. of refrigerating effect are obtained per lb. of coal consumed. For the same engine, using 7 lbs. suction-pressure, and with 7 lbs. condensing-pressure, the possible economy falls to about 14 lbs. of "refrigerating effect" per lb. of coal consumed. The condensing-pressure is determined by the amount of condensing-water supplied to liquefy the ammonia in the condenser. If the latter is about 1 gallon per minute per ton of refrigerating effect per 24 hours, a condensing-pressure of 150 lbs. results, if the initial temperature of the water is about 56° F. Twenty-five per cent less water causes the condensing-pressure to increase to 190 lbs. The work of compression is thereby increased about 20%, and the resulting "economy" is reduced to about 18 lbs. of "ice effect" per lb. of coal at 28 lbs. suction-pressure and 7 lbs. If, on the other hand, the supply of water is made 3 gallons per minute, the condensing-pressure may be confined to about 105 lbs. The work of compression is thereby reduced about 25%, and a proportional increase in economy results. Minor alterations of economy depend on the initial temperature of the condensing-water and variations of latent heat, but these are confined within about 5% of the gross result, the main element of control being the work of compression, as affected by the back pressure and condensing-pressure, or both. If the steam-engine supplying the motive power is a condenser to secure a vacuum, an increase of economy of 25% is possible over the above figures, making the lbs. of "ice effect" per lb. of

Ice-melting Effect with Engines—				B.T.U. per lb. of Steam with Engines—		
Non-compound Condensing.		Compound Condensing.		Non-condensing.	Condensing.	Compound Condensing.
Per lb. Coal.	Per lb. Steam.	Per lb. Coal.	Per lb. Steam.			
30	3.61	37.5	4.51	393	513	640
17.5	2.11	21.5	2.58	240	300	366
43	5.18	54	6.50	501	725	923
27.5	3.31	34.5	4.16	376	470	591

engine is assumed to require 25 lbs. of steam per non-compound condensing 30 lbs., and the condenser efficiency is assumed at 8.3 lbs. of water per additions. The following conclusions were derived

machine is proportional, almost entirely, to the rated. This weight depends on the suction-pressure of the compressor-pumps. The practical vacuum is about 7 lbs. above the atmosphere, with which a vacuum of 28 lbs. above the atmosphere, with which refrigeration are confined to about 28° F. At the one half as much weight of ammonia can be compressed, the proportion being about in accordance with the square of the pressures, 22 and 42 lbs. respectively. For each cubic foot per minute a capacity of about one sixth effect " per 24 hours can be produced at the lower pressure than at the upper pressure. No other than the capacity of a machine, provided the cooling-water or other space to be cooled is equal to about one third of a ton at the upper pressure. For example, a difference of circulation of brine, while producing a proportion of temperature of the latter, made no practical

difference. The condensing-tank was 12 × 10 × 10 ft., and the cooling-surface was 11-in. pipe.

The consumption depends mainly upon both the suction and condensing pressures. Maximum economy, with a given vacuum, must be bought at average city prices, is obtained at a pressure and about 150 lbs. condensing-pressure. For a non-condensing steam-engine, consuming coal 34 lbs. per I.H.P. of steam-cylinders, 24 lbs. of ice obtained per lb. of coal consumed. For the same vacuum with 7 lbs. suction-pressure, which affords tenfold economy falls to about 14 lbs. of " refrigeration consumed. The condensing pressure is determined by the cooling-water supplied to liquefy the ammonia in the condenser. About 1 gallon per minute per ton of refrigerating capacity using pressure of 150 lbs. results, if the initial temperature is 50° F. Twenty-five per cent less water causes a 25% increase to 190 lbs. The work of compression is 25% and the resulting " economy " is reduced to 17% per lb. of coal at 28 lbs. suction-pressure and 150 lbs. condensing-pressure. On the other hand, the supply of water is made 3 gallons per I.H.P. per hour. The condensing-pressure may be confined to about 105 lbs. The vacuum may be reduced about 25%, and a proportional increase in the economy. Alterations of economy depend on the initial temperature of the cooling-water and variations of latent heat, but these variations are of the gross result, the main element of economy being the work of compression, as affected by the back pressure and vacuum.

If the steam-engine supplying the motive power is a vacuum, an increase of economy of 25% is obtained, making the lbs. of " ice effect " 17%.

Performance of a 75-ton Refrigerating-machine

	Maximum Capacity and Economy at 38 lbs. Back Pressure.	Maximum Capacity and Economy at Zero, Brine, and 8 lbs. Back Pressure.	Maximum Capacity and Economy for Zero Brine, 13 lbs. Back Pressure.
Av. high ammonia press. above atmos.	151 lbs.	152 lbs.	147 lbs.
Av. back ammonia press. above atmos.	28 "	8.2 "	13 "
Av. temperature brine inlet.	36.76°	6.27°	14.29°
Av. temperature brine outlet.	28.86°	2.03°	2.39°
Av. range of temperature.	7.9°	4.24°	12.00°
Lbs. of brine circulated per minute.	2281	2173	943
Av. temp. condensing-water at inlet.	44.65°	56.65°	46.9°
Av. temp. condensing-water at outlet.	83.66°	85.4°	85.46°
Av. range of temperature.	39.01°	28.75°	38.56°
Lbs. water circulated p. min. thro' cond' ser	442	315	257
Lbs. water per min. through jackets.	25	44	40
Range of temperature in jackets.	24.0°	16.2°	16.4°
Lbs. ammonia circulated per min.	*28.17	14.68	16.67
Probable temperature of liquid ammonia, entrance to brine-tank.	*71.3°	*68°	*63.7°
Temp. of amm. compres. to av. back press.	-14°	- 8°	- 5°
Av. temperature of gas leaving brine-tanks	31.2°	14.7°	3.0°
Temperature of gas entering compressor. .	*39°	25°	10.13
Av. temperature of gas leaving compressor	213°	263°	235°
Av. temp. of gas entering condenser.	300°	318°	308°
Temperature due to condensing pressure. .	84.5°	84.0°	82.5°
Heat given ammonia:			
By brine, B.T.U. per minute.	14776	7186	8824
By compressor, B.T.U. per minute.	2786	2930	3518
By atmosphere, B.T.U. per minute.	140	147	167
Total heat rec. by amm., B.T.U. per min.	17702	9653	11409
Heat taken from ammonia:			
By condenser, B.T.U. per min.	17343	9056	9910
By jackets, B.T.U. per min.	608	712	656
By atmosphere, B.T.U. per min.	182	338	250
Total heat rej. by amm., B.T.U. per min. .	18032	10106	10816
Diff. of heat rec'd and rej., B.T.U. per min.	330	453	407
% work of compression removed by jackets.	22%	31%	26%
Av. revolutions per min.	58.09	57.7	57.88
Mean eff. press. steam-cyl., lbs. per sq. in. .	32.5	27.17	27.83
Mean eff. press. amm.-cyl., lbs. per sq. in. .	65.9	53.3	59.86
Av. H.P. steam-cylinder.	85.00	71.7	73.6
Av. H.P. ammonia-cylinder.	65.7	54.7	59.37
Friction in per cent of steam H.P.	23.0	24.0	20.0
Total cooling water, gallons per min. per ton per 24 hours.	*0.75	1.185	0.79
Tons ice-melting capacity per 24 hours.	74.8	36.43	44.64
Lbs. ice-refrigerating eff. per lb. coal at 3 lbs. per H.P. per hour.	24.1	14.1	17.27
Cost coal per ton of ice-refrigerating effect at \$4 per ton.	\$0.166	\$0.283	\$0.331
Cost water per ton of ice-refrigerating effect at \$1 per 1000 cu. ft.	\$0.128	\$0.200	\$0.136
Total cost of 1 ton of ice-refrigerating eff. .	\$0.294	\$0.483	\$0.467

Figures marked thus (*) are obtained by calculation; all other figures are obtained from experimental data; temperatures are in Fahrenheit degrees.

the ice-melting capacity ranges from 46.39 of coal, according as the suction pressure above the atmosphere, this pressure being the same as the economy of compression-machines, realizing from 72% to 55% of theoretically perfect cents appear to occur with the higher greater loss from cylinder-heating (a phenomenon condensation in steam-engines), as the the gas in the compression-cylinder is

on-machine, operating on the "dry system," effect realized ranges from 69.5% to 62.6% the American machine. The latter's higher before, to more perfect displacement.

ity" in the American machine is 24.16 lbs. suction-pressures used in American practice red in beer-storage cellars using the direct-ns most nearly corresponding to American tests are those in line 5, which give an "ice-

cial ice, the conditions of practice are those 26. In the former the condensing pressure cooling water than is common in American ity is therefore greater in the German ma-against 17.55 and 14.52 for the American

Pictet Machines.—No records are available elting capacity" of machines using pure use in American machines, but in Europe fluid," a mixture of about 97% of sulphur

The presence of the carbonic acid affords grees lower than is obtained with pure sul-ssure. The latent heat of this mixture has sumed to be equal to that of pure sulphur

ditions, line 17, we have 26.34 lbs. "ice-making conditions, line 13, the "ice-melt-ese figures are practically as economical cent of theoretical effect realized ranging low temperatures, -15° Fahr., lines 14 and as 42.5.

ompression-machines employing volatile difference between the theoretical and the the ammonia, by the warm cylinder walls, apressor, thereby expanding it, so that to a greater number of revolutions must be s than corresponds to the density of the e brine-tank.

ption-machine used in storage-ware-New York and Brooklyn Bridge. (*Eng'g*, id consisted of a solution of chloride of cal-heat was found to be .827.

us for 24 hours was found by taking the (circulating through the pipes by the aver- n the ingoing and outgoing currents, as (the specific heat of the brine (.827) and its e final product, applying all allowances for e amounted to 6,218,816 heat-units as the qual to the melting of 43,565 lbs. of ice in

of the coal used in 24 hours was 27,000,000 f the apparatus was 2%. This is equivalent s. per lb. of coal having a heating value of

machine in New Haven, Conn. b, gave an ice-melting effect of economy equivalent to 3 lbs. of steam-engine. The ammonia above the atmosphere.

a Compression-machine.

ITS OBTAINED AT THE MUNICH TESTS.

le, Trans. A. S. M. E., xiv. 1419.)

.....	1	2	3	4	5
g F.	43.194	28.344	13.952	-0.279	28.251
t deg. F. ...	37.054	22.885	8.771	-5.879	23.072
.....	0.861	0.851	0.843	0.837	0.851
r h., cu. ft.	1,039.38	908.84	693.89	414.98	800.93
r hour....	342,909	263,950	172,776	121,474	220,284
er h., c. ft.	338.76	260.83	187.506	139.99	97.76
linder (Le).	15.89	16.47	15.28	14.24	21.61
comp.-cyl.	24,813	18,471	12,770	10,140	11,151
steam-cyl.	21,703	16,026	11,307	8,530	10,194
am.....	1,100.8	785.6	564.9	435.82	512.12

ing the Cold. (M. C. Bannister, Liverpool most useful means for applying the cold to various tion of brine or chloride of magnesium, which or. The brine is first cooled by being circulated in rator-tubes, and then distributed through coils of the substances requiring a reduction of tempera- s or rooms prepared for them; the air coming in es is immediately chilled, and the moisture in the s. It then falls, making room for warmer air, and ole room is at the temperature of the brine in the

it for refrigerating made by the Linde British Re- brine is circulated through a shallow trough, in of shafts, each geared together, and driven by me- shafts are fixed a number of wrought-iron disks, rine, which cool them down to the brine tempera- r these disks a rapid circulation of air is passed by ntaet with the plates; then it is led into the cham- on, from which it is again drawn by the same fan; purities are removed from the chambers, and ded- ucing the most perfect antiseptic atmosphere yet ; while the maximum efficiency of the brine tem- table, the brine being periodically concentrated by

as the circulating medium. The ammonia-pipes oling-chamber, and large wooden conduits are used it from the rooms to be cooled. An advantage of room may be refrigerated more quickly than by g air deposits its moisture in the form of snow on h is removed by mechanical brushes.

IAL ICE-MANUFACTURE.

ons, with condensing water at 70°, artificial ice-ma- about 190 lbs. above the atmosphere condenser- ion-pressure.

of machine the useful circulation of ammonia. cylinder-heating, is about 13 lbs. per hour per in- he steam cylinder. This weight of ammonia pro- at 15° from water at 70°. If the ice is made from " can system," the amount of the latter supplied 3% greater than the weight of ice obtained. This escaping to the atmosphere, from the re-boiler and fy the distilled water, or free it from air; also, the ips, and loss by melting of the ice in exte- al steam consumed per horse-power is."

About 7.0 lbs. of this covers the stea- driving the brine circulating-pumps,

F, in a ton of 2240 lbs. For fresh water the divisor is 35.93. The U. S. register tonnage will equal the displacement when the entire internal cubic capacity bears to the displacement the ratio of 100 to 35.

The displacement or gross tonnage is sometimes approximately estimated as follows: Let L denote the length in feet of the boat, B its extreme breadth in feet, and D the mean draught in feet; the product of these three dimensions will give the volume of a parallelepipedon in cubic feet. Putting V for this volume, we have $V = L \times B \times D$.

The volume of displacement may then be expressed as a *percentage* of the volume V , known as the "*block coefficient*." This percentage varies for different classes of ships. In racing yachts with very deep keels it varies from 22 to 33; in modern merchantmen from 55 to 75; for ordinary small boats probably 50 will give a fair estimate. The volume of displacement in cubic feet divided by 35 gives the displacement in tons.

Coefficient of Fineness.—A term used to express the relation between the displacement of a ship and the volume of a rectangular prism or box whose lineal dimensions are the length, breadth, and draught of the ship.

Coefficient of fineness = $\frac{D \times 35}{L \times B \times W}$; D being the displacement in tons

of 35 cubic feet of sea-water to the ton, L the length between perpendiculars, B the extreme breadth of beam, and W the mean draught of water, all in feet.

Coefficient of Water-lines.—An expression of the relation of the displacement to the volume of the prism whose section equals the midship section of the ship, and length equal to the length of the ship.

Coefficient of water-lines = $\frac{D \times 35}{\text{area of immersed water section} \times L}$ Seaton

gives the following values:

	Coefficient of Fineness.	Coefficient of Water-lines.
Finely-shaped ships.....	0.55	0.63
Fairly-shaped ships.....	0.61	0.67
Ordinary merchant steamers for speeds of 10 to 11 knots.....	0.65	0.72
Cargo steamers, 9 to 10 knots.....	0.70	0.76
Modern cargo steamers of large size.....	0.78	0.83

Resistance of Ships.—The resistance of a ship passing through water may vary from a number of causes, as speed, form of body, displacement, midship dimensions, character of wetted surface, fineness of lines, etc. The resistance of the water is twofold: 1st. That due to the displacement of the water at the bow and its replacement at the stern, with the consequent formation of waves. 2d. The friction between the wetted surface of the ship and the water, known as skin resistance. A common approximate formula for resistance of vessels is

Resistance = speed² $\times \sqrt{\text{displacement}^2} \times \text{a constant}$, or $R = S^2 D^{\frac{3}{2}} \times C$.

If D = displacement in pounds, S = speed in feet per minute, R = resistance in foot-pounds per minute, $R = CS^2 D^{\frac{3}{2}}$. The work done in overcoming the resistance through a distance equal to S is $R \times S = CS^3 D^{\frac{3}{2}}$; and if E is the efficiency of the propeller and machinery combined, the indicated

horse-power I.H.P. = $\frac{CS^3 D^{\frac{3}{2}}}{E \times 33,000}$.

If S = speed in knots, D = displacement in tons, and C a constant which includes all the constants for form of vessel, efficiency of mechanism, etc.,

I.H.P. = $\frac{S^3 D^{\frac{3}{2}}}{C}$.

The wetted surface varies as the cube root of the square of the displacement; thus, let L be the length of edge of a cube just immersed, whose displacement is D and wetted surface W . Then $D = L^3$ or $L = \sqrt[3]{D}$, and $W = 5 \times L^2 = 5 \times (\sqrt[3]{D})^2$. That is, W varies as $D^{\frac{2}{3}}$.

cans	1 to 1.2
ensers to distilled water.....	26 to 1
ers per pound of coal.....	8.085
mpressor-engines.....	444
from cans.....	2.2

AM IN PER CENTS OF TOTAL AMOUNT.

.....	60.1
ndensers.....	19.7
water engines.....	7.6
water.....	6.5
ght at boilers.....	5.6
ans.....	0.5

the purity of the ice are thus described: the condenser is the accumulation of the and engines, together with an amount of y from the boilers. This last quantity is amount of water necessary to supply the the condensers is violently reboiled, and ugh a coil surface-cooler. It then passes delh it runs through three charcoal-filters nd containing 28 feet of charcoal. It next ich there is an electrical attachment for ests are also made for salt daily. From which are carefully covered so that the impurities.

ENGINEERING.

Dimensions and Obtaining Ton- American & Foreign Shipping. American he dimensions to be measured as follows: de of stem to the after side of stern-post per deck of all vessels, except those hav- vending right fore and aft, in which the nge of deck immediately below the hurri-

king forward, or receding stems, or rak- e distance of the fore side of stem from -load water-line measured at middle line. taken as stern-post in screw-steamers. l over the widest frame at its widest part; th.

at the dead-flat frame and at middle line e from the top of floor-plate to the upper esels except those having a continuous fore and aft, and not intended for the e the depth is to be the distance from top top of hurricane deck-beam and the top ately below hurricane-deck. us hurricane deck, extending right fore erican coasting trade, the depth is to be te to top of deck-beam of deck immedi-

tonnage.—Multiply together the length, luct by .75; divide the last product by 100; $L \times B \times D \times .75$ = tonnage.

Tonnage Law, May 6, 1854, provides vessel shall be her entire internal cubic ach." This measurement includes all the ver many there may be. Explicit direc- ts are given in the law.

Vessel (measured in tons of 2240 lb- r which it displaces. For sea-wa³ f beneath the water-line, in cu mber of cubic feet of sea-wa

quantity in the parenthesis, which is known as the "coefficient of augmentation." The last term of the coefficient may be neglected in calculating the resistance of ships as too small to be practically important. In applying the formula, the mean of the squares of the sines of the angles of maximum obliquity of the water-lines is to be taken for $\sin^2 \theta$, and the rule will then read thus:

To obtain the resistance of a ship of good form, in pounds, multiply the length in feet by the mean immersed girth and by the coefficient of augmentation, and then take the product of this "augmented surface," as Rankine termed it, by the square of the speed in knots, and by the proper constant coefficient selected from the following:

For clean painted vessels, iron hulls.....	$A = .01$
For clean coppered vessels.....	$A = .009$ to $.008$
For moderately rough iron vessels.....	$A = .011$ +

The net, or effective, horse-power demanded will be quite closely obtained by multiplying the resistance calculated, as above, by the speed in knots and dividing by 326. The gross, or indicated, power is obtained by multiplying the last quantity by the reciprocal of the efficiency of the machinery and propeller, which usually should be about 0.6. Rankine uses as a divisor in this case 200 to 260.

The form of the vessel, even when designed by skilful and experienced naval architects, will often vary to such an extent as to cause the above constant coefficients to vary somewhat; and the range of variation with good forms is found to be from 0.8 to 1.5 the figures given.

For well-shaped iron vessels, an approximate formula for the horse-power required is $H.P. = \frac{SV^3}{20,000}$, in which S is the "augmented surface." The expression $\frac{SV^3}{H.P.}$ has been called by Rankine the *coefficient of propulsion*. In the Hudson River steamer "Mary Powell," according to Thurston, this coefficient was as high as 23,500.

The expression $\frac{D^3 V^3}{H.P.}$ has been called the *locomotive performance*. (See Rankine's Treatise on Shipbuilding, 1864; Thurston's Manual of the Steam-engine, part ii, p. 16; also paper by F. T. Bowles, U.S.N., Proc. U.S. Naval Institute, 1883.)

Rankine's method for calculating the resistance is said by Seaton to give more accurate and reliable results than those obtained by the older rules, but it is criticised as being difficult and inconvenient of application.

Dr. Kirk's Method.—This method is generally used on the Clyde.

The general idea proposed by Dr. Kirk is to reduce all ships to so definite and simple a form that they may be easily compared; and the magnitude of certain features of this form shall determine the suitability of the ship for speed, etc.

The form consists of a middle body, which is a rectangular parallelepiped, and fore body and after body, prisms having isosceles triangles for bases, as shown in Fig. 168.

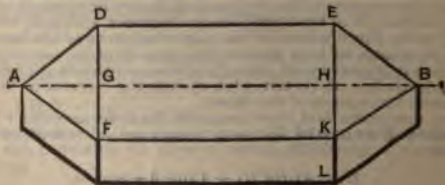


FIG. 168.

This is called a block model, and is such that its length is equal to that of the ship, the depth is equal to the mean draught, the capacity equal to the displacement volume, and its area of section equal to the area of the

mersed midship section. The dimensions of the block model may be obtained as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Let } AG = HB &= \text{length of fore- or after-body} = F; \\ GH &= \text{length of middle body} = M; \\ KL &= \text{mean draught} = H; \\ EK &= \frac{\text{area of immersed midship section}}{KL} = B. \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Volume of block} &= (F + M) \times B \times H; \\ \text{Midship section} &= B \times H; \\ \text{Displacement in tons} &= \text{volume in cubic ft.} \div 35. \end{aligned}$$

$$AH = AG + GH = F + M = \text{displacement} \times 35 \div (B \times H).$$

The wetted surface of the block is nearly equal to that of the ship of the same length, beam and draught; usually 2% to 3% greater. In exceedingly fine hollow-line ships it may be 8% greater.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Area of bottom of block} &= (F + M) \times B; \\ \text{Area of sides} &= 2M \times H. \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Area of sides of ends} = 4 \sqrt{F^2 + \left(\frac{B}{2}\right)^2} \times H;$$

$$\text{Tangent of half angle of entrance} = \frac{\frac{1}{2}B}{F} = \frac{B}{2F}.$$

From this, by a table of natural tangents, the angle of entrance may be obtained:

	Angle of Entrance of the Block Model.	Fore-body in parts of length.
Ocean-going steamers, 14 knots and upward.	18° to 15°	.3 to .36
" " " 12 to 14 knots.....	21 to 18	.36 to .3
" " " cargo steamers, 10 to 12 knots..	30 to 22	.32 to .26

B. R. Mumford's Method of Calculating Wetted Surfaces

is given in a paper by Archibald Denny, *Eng'g*, Sept. 21, 1894. The following is this formula, which gives closely accurate results for medium draughts, beams, and finenesses:

$$S = (L \times D \times 1.7) + (L \times B \times C),$$

which S = wetted surface in square feet;
 L = length between perpendiculars in feet;
 D = middle draught in feet;
 B = beam in feet;
 C = block coefficient.

The formula may also be expressed in the form $S = L(1.7D + BC)$. In the case of twin-screw ships having projecting shaft-casings, or in the case of a ship having a deep keel or bilge keels, an addition must be made for such projections. The formula gives results which are in general much more accurate than those obtained by Kirk's method. It underestimates the surface when the beam, draught, or block coefficients are excessive; but is small except in the case of abnormal forms, such as stern-wheel steamers having very excessive beams (nearly one fourth the length), and in very full block coefficients. The formula gives a surface about 6% too small for such forms.

To Find the Indicated Horse-power from the Wetted Surface. (Seaton.)—In ordinary cases the horse-power per 100 feet of wetted surface may be found by assuming that the rate for a speed of 10 knots is 5, and that the quantity varies as the cube of the speed. For example: To find the number of I.H.P. necessary to drive a ship at a speed of 15 knots, having a wetted skin of block model of 16,300 square feet:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{The rate per 100 feet} &= (15/10)^3 \times 5 = 16.875. \\ \text{Then I.H.P., required} &= 16.875 \times 162 = 2734. \end{aligned}$$

of the block model may be obtained

$$\begin{aligned} \text{fore-body} &= F; \\ &= M; \\ &= H; \\ \text{ship section} &= B. \end{aligned}$$

$$C \times B \times H;$$

area in cubic ft. = $3K$.

$$= \text{displacement} \times 35 + (B \times H).$$

is nearly equal to that of the ship of the usually 25 to 35 greater. In exceedingly greater.

$$ck = (F + M) \times B;$$

$$= 4 \sqrt{F^2 + \left(\frac{B}{2}\right)^2} \times H;$$

$$\text{of entrance} = \frac{16B}{F} = \frac{B}{2F}.$$

tangents, the angle of entrance may be

	Angle of Entrance of the Block Model.	Fore-body in parts of length.
upward.	18° to 15°	.3 to .56
.....	21 to 18	.36 to .3
.....	30 to 22	.32 to .26

of Calculating Wetted Surfaces
by, *Eng'g*, Sept. 21, 1894. The following
accurate results for medium draughts,

$$1.7) + (L \times B \times C),$$

are feet;

perpendiculars in feet;

;

and in the form $S = L(1.7D + BC)$.

having projecting shaft-castings, or in the
of bilge keels, an addition must be made
gives results which are in general much
by Kirk's method. It underestimates
t, or block coefficients are excessive; but
of abnormal forms, such as stern-wheel
ms (nearly one fourth the length), and
the formula gives a surface about 6% too

horse-power from the Wetted
cases the horse-power per 100 feet of
assuming that the rate for a speed of 10
ies as the cube of the speed. For ex-
cessary to drive a ship at a speed
model of 16,300 square feet;

$$\begin{aligned} &= (15/10)^3 \times 5 = 16.875, \\ &= 16.875 \times 162 = 2734. \end{aligned}$$

When the ship is exceptionally well-proportioned, the bottom quite clean, and the efficiency of the machinery high, as low a rate as 4 I.H.P. per 100 feet of wetted skin of block model may be allowed.

The gross indicated horse-power includes the power necessary to overcome the friction and other resistance of the engine itself and the shafting, and also the power lost in the propellor. In other words, I.H.P. is no measure of the resistance of the ship, and can only be relied on as a means of deciding the size of engines for speed, so long as the efficiency of the engine and propellor is known definitely, or so long as similar engines and propellers are employed in ships to be compared. The former is difficult to obtain, and it is nearly impossible in practice to know how much of the power shown in the cylinders is employed usefully in overcoming the resistance of the ship. The following example is given to show the variation in the efficiency of propellers:

	Knots.	I.H.P.
H.M.S. "Amazon," with a 4-bladed screw, gave,	12.064	with 1940
H.M.S. "Amazon," with a 2-bladed screw, increased pitch, and less revolutions per minute.....	12.396	" 1663
H.M.S. "Iris," with a 4-bladed screw.....	16.577	" 7503
H.M.S. "Iris," with 2-bladed screw, increased pitch, less revolutions per knot.....	18.587	" 7556

Relative Horse-power Required for Different Speeds of Vessels. (Horse-power for 10 knots = 1.)—The horse-power is taken usually to vary as the cube of the speed, but in different vessels and at different speeds it may vary from the 2.8 power to the 3.5 power, depending upon the lines of the vessel and upon the efficiency of the engines, the propeller, etc.

Speed, knots.	4	6	8	10	12	14	16	18	20	22	24	26	28	30
HP \propto														
$S^{2.8}$.0769	.339	.535	1.	1.666	2.565	3.729	5.185	6.964	9.095	11.60	14.52	17.87	21.67
$S^{3.0}$.0701	.327	.524	1.	1.697	2.653	3.908	5.499	7.464	9.841	12.67	15.97	19.80	24.19
S^3	.0640	.316	.512	1.	1.728	2.744	4.096	5.832	8.	10.65	13.82	17.58	21.95	27.
$S^{3.2}$.0584	.305	.501	1.	1.760	2.838	4.293	6.185	8.574	11.52	15.09	19.34	24.33	30.14
$S^{3.4}$.0533	.295	.490	1.	1.792	2.935	4.500	6.559	9.189	12.47	16.47	21.28	26.97	33.63
$S^{3.5}$.0486	.285	.479	1.	1.825	3.036	4.716	6.957	9.849	13.49	17.98	23.41	29.90	37.54
$S^{3.6}$.0444	.276	.468	1.	1.859	3.139	4.943	7.378	10.56	14.60	19.62	25.76	33.14	41.90
$S^{3.8}$.0405	.267	.458	1.	1.893	3.247	5.181	7.824	11.31	15.79	21.42	28.34	36.73	46.77

EXAMPLE IN USE OF THE TABLE.—A certain vessel makes 14 knots speed with 587 I.H.P. and 16 knots with 900 I.H.P. What I.H.P. will be required at 18 knots, the rate of increase of horse-power with increase of speed remaining constant? The first step is to find the rate of increase, thus: $14^3 : 16^3 :: 587 : 900$.

$$x \log 16 - x \log 14 = \log 900 - \log 587;$$

$$x(0.204120 - 0.146128) = 2.954343 - 2.768638,$$

whence x (the exponent of S in formula $H.P. \propto S^x$) = 3.2.

From the table, for $S^{3.2}$ and 16 knots, the I.H.P. is 4.5 times the I.H.P. at 10 knots, \therefore H.P. at 10 knots = $900 \div 4.5 = 200$.

From the table, for $S^{3.2}$ and 18 knots, the I.H.P. is 6.559 times the I.H.P. at 10 knots; \therefore H.P. at 18 knots = $200 \times 6.559 = 1312$ H.P.

Resistance per Horse-power for Different Speeds. (One horse-power = 33,000 lbs. resistance overcome through 1 ft. in 1 min.)—The resistances per horse-power for various speeds are as follows: For a speed of 1 knot, or 6080 feet per hour = $101\frac{1}{2}$ ft. per min., $33,000 \div 101\frac{1}{2} = 325.658$ lbs. per horse-power; and for any other speed 325.658 lbs. divided by the speed in knots; or for

1 knot	325.66 lbs.	6 knots	54.28 lbs.	11 knots	29.61 lbs.	16 knots	20.35 lbs.
2 knots	162.83 "	7 "	46.52 "	12 "	27.14 "	17 "	19.16 "
3 "	108.55 "	8 "	40.71 "	13 "	25.05 "	18 "	18.09 "
4 "	81.41 "	9 "	36.18 "	14 "	23.33 "	19 "	17.14 "
5 "	65.13 "	10 "	32.57 "	15 "	21.71 "	20 "	16.28 "

of Steam-vessels of Various Sizes.
(after Eaton's Marine Engineering.)

	S.S. "Torpedo."	P.S. "John Penn."	S.S. "Africa."	P.S. "Mary Powell"	S.S. "Harrar."	R. M. P. S. "Connaught."
.....	90' 0"	171' 9"	130' 0"	286' 0"	230' 0"	377' 0"
.....	10' 6"	18' 9"	21' 0"	34' 3"	29' 0"	35' 0"
.....	2' 0"	6' 9 1/2"	8' 10"	6' 0"	13' 6"	13' 0"
.....	29.73	280	370	800	1500	1900
.....	24 1/2	99	148	200	340	336
.....	903	3793	3754	8222	10,075	15,782
.....	45' 0"	72' 00"	42' 6"	143' 0"	79' 6"	129' 0"
.....	12° 40'	11° 30'	23° 50'	13° 21'	17° 0"	11° 26'
.....	0.481	0.576	0.608	0.489	0.671	0.605
.....	22 01	15.3	10.74	17.20	10.04	17.8
.....	460	798	371	1490	503	4751
.....	50.9	21.04	9.88	18.12	5.00	30.00
.....	4.78	5.87	7.97	3.56	4.90	5.32
.....	223	192	172.8	293.7	266	182
.....	556?	445	495	683	600	399

	H.M.S. "Active."	H.M.S. "Iris."	H.M.S. "Iris."	S.S. "Garonne."	H.M.S. "Hecla."	R. M. S. S. "Britannic."
.....	270' 0"	300' 0"	300' 0"	370' 0"	392' 0"	450' 0"
.....	42' 0"	46' 0"	46' 0"	41' 0"	39' 0"	45' 2"
.....	18' 10"	18' 2"	18' 2"	18' 11"	21' 4"	23' 7"
.....	3057	3290	3.90	4635	5767	8500
.....	682	700	700	656	738	926
.....	16,008	18,168	18,168	22,633	26,235	32,578
.....	101' 0"	135' 6"	135' 6"	123' 0"	118' 0"	129' 0"
.....	18° 44'	16° 16'	16° 16'	16° 4'	16° 30'	17° 16'
.....	0.629	0.548	0.548	0.668	0.698	0.714
.....	14.966	18.573	15.746	13.80	12.054	15.045
.....	4015	7714	3958	2500	1758	4900
.....	25.08	42.46	21.78	11.04	6.7	15.04
.....	7.49	6.634	5.58	4.20	3.83	4.42
.....	175.8	183.7	218.2	292	2"	
.....	527.5	581.4	690.5	689		

Results of Progressive Speed Trials in Typical Vessels

(Eng'g, April 15, 1892, p. 463.)

		Torpedo-boat.	Torpedo-gumboat, "Sharrp-shooter" Class.	"Medusa," 34-cl. Cruiser.	"Terpsichore," 26-cl. Cruiser.	"Edgar," 1st-cl. Cruiser.	"Blanchino," 1st-cl. Cruiser.
Length (in feet).....		135	230	265	300	360	375
Breadth " ".....		14	27	41	43	60	60
Draught (mean) on trial.....		5' 1"	8' 3"	16' 6"	16' 2"	23' 9"	25' 1"
Displacement (tons).....		103	735	2800	3390	7390	910
I.H.P.—10 knots.....		110	450	700	500	1000	1000
" 14 ".....		260	1100	2100	2400	3000	4000
" 18 ".....		870	2500	6400	6000	7500	9000
" 20 ".....		1130	3500	10000	9000	11000	12000
Speed	Ratio of speed ²						
10	1.						
14	2.744	Ratio of H.P. =	1	1	1	1	1
18	5.832	" " =	2.36	2.44	3	3	3
20	8.	" " =	7.91	5.56	9.14	7.5	7.5
		" " =	10.27	7.78	14.14	11.25	11
Admiralty coeff.							
$C = \frac{D^5 \times S^3}{I.H.P.}$	{ 10 knots.	200	181	284	279	280	280
	{ 14 " "	232	203	259	255	347	347
	{ 18 " "	147	190	181	217	295	295
	{ 20 " "	156	186	159	198	276	276

The figures for I.H.P. are "round." The "Medusa's" figures are from trial on Stokes Bay, and show the retarding effect of shall draught. The figures for the other ships for 20 knots are estimated for deep draught.

More accurate methods than those above given for estimating horse-power required for any proposed ship are: 1. Estimations from the results of trials of "similar" vessels driven at "corresponding" speeds; "similar" vessels being those that have the same ratio of breadth and draught, and the same coefficient of fineness, answering "similar" speeds those which are proportional to the square root of the lengths of the respective vessels. Froude found that the resistance of such vessels varied almost exactly as wetted surface \times (speed)².

2. The method employed by the British Admiralty and by some shipbuilders, viz., ascertaining the resistance of a model of the vessel in a tank, and calculating the power from the results.

Speed on Canals.—A great loss of speed occurs when a vessel passes from open water into a more or less restricted channel. The speed of vessels in the Suez Canal in 1882 was only $5\frac{1}{2}$ statute miles per hour (Eng'g, Feb. 15, 1884, p. 139.)

Estimated Displacement, Horse-power, etc.—The figures in the next page, calculated by the author, will be found convenient for making approximate estimates.

The figures in 7th column are calculated by the formula H.P. = $c \times L^3 \times S^3$, in which $c = 200$ for vessels under 200 ft. long when $C = .5$; when $C = .55$; $c = 300$ for vessels 200 to 400 ft. long when $C = .57$; $C = .65$, 340 when $C = .55$; $c = 330$ for vessels over 400 ft. long when $C = .55$; 250 when $C = .65$, 260 when $C = .55$.

The figures in the 8th column are based on 5 H.P. per 100 sq. ft. of surface.

The diameters of screw in the 9th column are from formula $D = 3.31 \sqrt[3]{\frac{H.P.}{R}}$, and in the 10th column from formula $D = 2.71 \sqrt[3]{\frac{H.P.}{R}}$.

To find the diameter of screw for any other speed than 10 knots, multiply the diameter given in the table by the cube root of the given speed $\div 10$. For any other revolutions per minute than 100, divide by the revolutions and multiply by 100.

To find the approximate horse-power for any other speed than 10 knots, multiply the horse-power given in the table by the cube of the relative figure from table on p. 1008.

ent, Horse-power, etc., of Steam-
s of Various Sizes.

Wetted Surface (L ² .D + BC) (sq. ft.)	Estimated Horse- power at 16 knots.		Diam. of Screw for 10 knots speed and 100 revs. per minute.	
	Calc. from Dis- placement.	Calc. from Wetted Surface.	If Pitch = Diam.	If Pitch = 1.4 Diam.
48	4.3	2.4	4.4	3.6
64	5.2	3.2	4.6	3.8
80	8.9	4.8	5.1	4.2
80	6.0	4.0	4.7	3.9
120	10.3	6.0	5.3	4.3
104	7.5	5.2	5	4.1
152	12.6	7.6	5.5	4.5
168	11.3	8.4	5.4	4.4
224	18.2	11.2	5.9	4.8
235	15.1	11.8	5.7	4.7
326	24.9	16.3	6.3	5.2
430	27.8	21.0	6.4	5.4
558	43.2	27.9	7.1	5.8
621	42.2	31.1	7.0	5.7
729	62.9	39.9	7.6	6.2
861	59.4	43.1	7.5	6.1
1082	85.1	54.1	8.1	6.6
1140	79.2	57.0	7.9	6.5
1408	111	70.4	8.5	7.0
1408	97	70.4	8.3	6.8
1854	147	92.7	9	7.3
1565	104	78.3	8.4	6.9
1910	143	95.5	8.9	7.3
2225	202	115	9.6	7.8
2046	131	102	8.8	7.2
2472	179	124	9.4	7.6
2946	250	147	10	8.2
2660	169	133	9.2	7.4
3185	227	159	9.8	8.0
3766	312	188	10.5	8.5
3264	203	163	9.6	7.8
3880	269	191	10.1	8.3
4560	368	228	10.8	8.8
4122	257	206	10.1	8.2
4869	327	243	10.6	8.7
5688	455	284	11.3	9.2
4800	257	240	10.1	8.2
5970	373	299	10.8	8.8
7260	526	363	11.6	9.5
7250	388	363	10.9	8.9
9450	592	473	11.9	9.7
11850	875	593	12.8	10.5
10380	548	519	11.7	9.6
18140	806	657	12.6	10.4
17140	1175	857	13.6	11.1
14455	769	723	12.5	10.2
17885	1111	894	13.5	11.0
21535	1562	1080	14.4	11.8
19200	1028	960	13.3	10.8
22360	1451	1168	14.2	11.6
27840	2006	1392	15.2	12.4
24515	1221	1226	13.7	11.2
29565	1616	1478	14.5	11.9
34875	2171	1744	15.4	12.6
29600	1454	1480	14.2	11.6
35200	1966	1760	15.1	12.4
41200	2543	2060	15.9	13.2
39245	1747	1812	14.7	12.2
42735	2266	2127	15.5	13.0
49665	2998	2483	16.4	13.9
42900	2065	2145	15	12.1
50220	2656	2511	15.5	12.6
58920	3489	2901	16.5	13.6

THE SCREW-PROPELLER.

The "pitch" of a propeller is the distance which any point in a blade, describing a helix, will travel in the direction of the axis during one revolution, the point being assumed to move around the axis. The pitch of a propeller with a uniform pitch is equal to the distance a propeller will advance during one revolution, provided there is no slip. In a case of this kind, the term "pitch" is analogous to the term "pitch of the thread" of an ordinary single-threaded screw.

Let P = pitch of screw in feet, R = number of revolutions per second, V = velocity of stream from the propeller = $P \times R$, v = velocity of the ship in feet per second, $V - v$ = slip, A = area in square feet of section of stream from the screw, approximately the area of a circle of the same diameter, $A \times V$ = volume of water projected astern from the ship in cubic feet per second. Taking the weight of a cubic foot of sea-water at 64 lbs., and the force of gravity at 32, we have from the common formula for force of acceleration, viz.: $F = M \frac{v_1}{t} = \frac{W}{g} \frac{v_1}{t}$, or $F = \frac{W}{g} v_1$, when $t = 1$ second, v_1 being the acceleration.

$$\text{Thrust of screw in pounds} = \frac{64AV}{32}(V - v) = 2AV(V - v).$$

Rankine (Rules, Tables, and Data, p. 275) gives the following: To calculate the thrust of a propelling instrument (jet, paddle, or screw) in pounds, multiply together the transverse sectional area, in square feet, of the stream driven astern by the propeller; the speed of the stream relatively to the ship in knots; the real slip, or part of that speed which is impressed on that stream by the propeller, also in knots; and the constant 5.66 for sea-water, or 5.5 for fresh water. If S = speed of the screw in knots, s = speed of ship in knots, A = area of the stream in square feet (of sea-water),

$$\text{Thrust in pounds} = A \times S(S - s) \times 5.66.$$

The *real slip* is the velocity (relative to water at rest) of the water projected sternward; the *apparent slip* is the difference between the speed of the ship and the speed of the screw; i.e., the product of the pitch of the screw by the number of revolutions.

This apparent slip is sometimes negative, due to the working of the screw in disturbed water which has a forward velocity, following the ship. Negative apparent slip is an indication that the propeller is not suited to the ship.

The apparent slip should generally be about 8% to 10% at full speed in well-formed vessels with moderately fine lines; in bluff cargo boats it rarely exceeds 5%.

The effective area of a screw is the sectional area of the stream of water laid hold of by the propeller, and is generally, if not always, greater than the actual area, in a ratio which in good ordinary examples is 1.2 or thereabouts, and is sometimes as high as 1.4; a fact probably due to the stiffness of the water, which communicates motion laterally amongst its particles. (Rankine's Shipbuilding, p. 89.)

Prof. D. S. Jacobus, Trans. A. S. M. E., xi. 1028, found the ratio of the effective to the actual disk area of the screws of different vessels to be as follows:

Tug-boat, with ordinary true-pitch screw	1.42
" " " screw having blades projecting backward51
Ferryboat " Bergen," with or-) at speed of 12.09 stat. miles per hour.	1.53
dinary true-pitch screw) " " " " " " " " " " " "	1.48
Steamer " Homer Ramsdell," with ordinary true-pitch screw	1.20

Size of Screw.—Seaton says: The size of a screw depends on so many things that it is very difficult to lay down any rule for guidance, and much must always be left to the experience of the designer, to allow for all the circumstances of each particular case. The following rules are given for ordinary cases. (Seaton and Routhwaite's Pocket-book):

$$P = \text{pitch of propeller in feet} = \frac{10133S}{R(100 - x)}, \text{ in which } S = \text{speed in knots,}$$

R = revolutions per minute, and x = percentage of apparent slip.

$$\text{For a slip of 10\%, pitch} = \frac{112.68}{R}.$$

$$\sqrt{\frac{\text{I.H.P.}}{\left(\frac{P \times R}{100}\right)^3}}, K \text{ being a coefficient given}$$

If $K = 20, D = 20000 \sqrt{\frac{\text{I.H.P.}}{(P \times R)^3}}$

les = $C \sqrt{\frac{\text{I.H.P.}}{R}}$, in which C is a coefficient

given in Seaton's Marine Engineering, is = 737 for ordinary vessels, and 660 for slow-
nes.

= $\sqrt{\frac{d^3}{nb}} \times k$, in which d = diameter of tail-

f blades, b = breadth of blade in inches where
allel to the shaft axis; k = 4 for cast iron, 1.5

1.5 for high-class bronze.

ast iron .04*D* + .4 in.; cast steel .08*D* + .4 in.;

lass bronze .03*D* + .3 in., where D = diameter

eller Coefficients.

	Number of Screws.	Number of Blades per Screw.	Values of <i>K</i> .	Values of <i>C</i> .	Usual Mate- rial of Blades.
0	One	4	17 -17.5	19 -17.5	Cast iron
9	"	4	18 -19	17 -15.5	" "
7	"	4	19.5-20.5	15 -13	C. I. or S.
7	Twin	4	20.5-21.5	14.5-12.5	" " "
2	One	4	21 -22	12.5-11	G. M. or B
2	Twin	3	22 -23	10.5-9	" " "
2	"	4	21 -22.5	11.5-10.5	" " "
2	"	3	22 -23.5	8.5-7	" " "
3	One	3	25	7-6	B. or F. S.

etal; B., bronze; S., steel; F. S., forged steel.

$$\sqrt{\frac{\text{I.H.P.}}{(P \times R)^3}} \text{ and } P = \frac{737}{R} \sqrt[3]{\frac{\text{I.H.P.}}{D^3}}, \text{ if } P = D$$

$$\sqrt[5]{400 \times \text{I.H.P.}} = 3.31 \sqrt[5]{\text{I.H.P.}}$$

$$\text{in } D = \sqrt[5]{145.8 \times \text{I.H.P.}} = 2.71 \sqrt[5]{\text{I.H.P.}}$$

figures for diameter of screw in the table on
l. They may be used as rough approximations
rew for any given horse-power, for a speed of
er minute.

evolutions per minute multiply the figures in
the given number of revolutions. For any
ce the I.H.P. varies approximately as the cube
r of the screw as the 5th root of the I.H.P.,
for 10 knots by the 5th root of the cube of one
multiply by the following factors:

8 9 11 12 13 14

.875 .939 1.059 1.116 1.170 1.224

Speed:	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28
$\sqrt[3]{(S+10)^3}$												
=	1.375	1.423	1.470	1.515	1.561	1.605	1.648	1.691	1.733	1.774	1.815	1.8

For more accurate determinations of diameter and pitch of screw, the formulae and coefficients given by Seaton, quoted above, should be used.

Efficiency of the Propeller.—According to Rankine, if the slip of the water be s , its weight W , the resistance R , and the speed of the ship

$$R = \frac{Ws}{g}; \quad Rv = \frac{Wsv}{g}.$$

This impelling action must, to secure maximum efficiency of propeller, be effected by an instrument which takes hold of the fluid without shock or disturbance of the surrounding mass, and, by a steady acceleration, gives the required final velocity of discharge. The velocity of the propeller overcoming the resistance R would then be

$$\frac{v + (v + s)}{2} = v + \frac{s}{2},$$

and the work performed would be

$$R\left(v + \frac{s}{2}\right) = \frac{Wvs}{g} + \frac{Ws^2}{2g},$$

the first of the last two terms being useful, the second the minimum lost work; the latter being the wasted energy of the water thrown backward. The efficiency is

$$E = v + \left(v + \frac{s}{2}\right);$$

and this is the limit attainable with a perfect propelling instrument, when the limit is approached the more nearly as the conditions above prescribed are the more nearly fulfilled. The efficiency of the propelling instrument probably rarely much above 0.60, and never above 0.80.

In designing the screw-propeller, as was shown by Dr. Froude, the best angle for the surface is that of 45° with the plane of the disk; but as parts of the blade cannot be given the same angle, it should, where practicable, be so proportioned that the "pitch-angle at the centre of effort should be made 45°. The maximum possible efficiency is then, according to Froude, 77%.

In order that the water should be taken on without shock and discharged with maximum backward velocity, the screw must have an axially increasing pitch.

The true screw is by far the more usual form of propeller, in all steamers both merchant and naval. (Thurston, Manual of the Steam-engine, part p. 176.)

The combined efficiency of screw, shaft, engine, etc., is generally taken at 50%. In some cases it may reach 60% or 65%. Rankine takes the effect H.P. to equal the I.H.P. + 1.63.

Pitch-ratio and Slip for Screws of Standard Form.

Pitch-ratio.	Real Slip of Screw.	Pitch-ratio.	Real Slip of Screw
.8	15.55	1.7	21.3
.9	16.22	1.8	21.8
1.0	16.88	1.9	22.4
1.1	17.55	2.0	22.9
1.2	18.2	2.1	23.5
1.3	18.8	2.2	24.0
1.4	19.5	2.3	24.5
1.5	20.1	2.4	25.0
1.6	20.7	2.5	25.4

writes on the efficiency of screw-propellers. In a paper read before section G of R. I. N. E. He states that the following general:

of real slip at which, and at which only, best with a screw of any given type, and pitch. The slip-ratio proper to a given σ is discovered and tabulated for a screw table on page 3022:

besides being best efficient in themselves, by an amount bearing some proportion to amount of rotation left in the race.

ably between 1.1 and 1.2.

and, the less the pitch-ratio should be.

It be placed further from the stern than

natural result of abnormal proportions of

ered for high-speed vessels, but when the air or even more may be advantageously

an ellipse having a minor axis equal to

screws should increase from forward to aft, *very* results when the blades are narrow. *tion* should be a function of the width of

f screw-shaft produces vibration, and with *r* outwards, if the shafts are inclined at yards from the propellers.

screw-propellers, see F. C. Marshall, Proc. Trans. Institution of Naval Architects, 1886; of Naval Architects 1887; and S. W. Bar-

vol. cil.

Its deduced from experiments on model e practically equal efficiencies throughout and in surface-ratio; so that great latitude the form of the propeller. Another in- these experiments are not a direct guide to propeller for a particular ship, they sup- performances of screws fitted to vessels, and at are likely to be the best dimensions of se results are known. Thus a great ad- method of trial upon the ship itself, which conceivable erroneous view respecting the 2., July, 1891.)

SCREW-WHEEL.

Radial Floats. (Seaton's Marine En- *er* of a radial wheel is usually taken from ut it is difficult to say what is absolutely on the form of float, the amount of dip, the wheel. The slip of a radial wheel is on the size of float.

$$\text{slip of float} = \frac{\text{I.H.P.}}{D} \times C.$$

feet, and *C* is a multiplier, varying from *r* light steamers.

lly about $\frac{1}{4}$ its length, and its thickness *r* of floats varies directly with the diam- *t* for every foot of diameter.

of the radial wheel, see Thurston, *Manual* 82.)

Reels. (Seaton.) — The draw- *vs* : The amount of slip varies *ats* are small or the resistanc

is as high as 25 per cent; a well-designed wheel on a well-formed ship will not exceed 15 per cent under ordinary circumstances.

If K is the speed of the ship in knots, S the percentage of slip, and R revolutions per minute,

$$\text{Diameter of wheel at centres} = \frac{K(100 + S)}{3.14 \times R}$$

The diameter, however, must be such as will suit the structure of the ship, so that a modification may be necessary on this account, and the revolutions altered to suit it.

The diameter will also depend on the amount of "dip" or immersion of the float.

When a ship is working always in smooth water the immersion of the edge should not exceed $\frac{1}{2}$ the breadth of the float; and for general use at sea an immersion of $\frac{1}{2}$ the breadth of the float is sufficient. If it is intended to carry cargo, the immersion when light need not be more than 2 or 3 inches, and should not be more than the breadth of float when deepest draught; indeed, the efficiency of the wheel falls off rapidly with the immersion of the wheel.

$$\text{Area of one float} = \frac{\text{I.H.P.}}{D} \times C.$$

C is a multiplier, varying from 0.3 to 0.35; D is the diameter of the float centres, in feet.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{The number of floats} &= \frac{1}{2}(D + 2), \\ \text{The breadth of the float} &= 0.35 \times \text{the length}, \\ \text{The thickness of floats} &= \frac{1}{12} \text{ the breadth}, \\ \text{Diameter of gudgeons} &= \text{thickness of float}. \end{aligned}$$

Seaton and Routhwaite's Pocket-book gives:

$$\text{Number of floats} = \frac{60}{\sqrt{R}}$$

where R is number of revolutions per minute.

$$\text{Area of one float (in square feet)} = \frac{\text{I.H.P.} \times 33000 \times K}{N \times (D \times R)^2}$$

where N = number of floats in one wheel.

For vessels plying always in smooth water $K = 1200$. For steamers $K = 1400$. For tugs and such craft as require to stop frequently in a tide-way $K = 1600$.

It will be quite accurate enough if the last four figures of $(D \times R)^2$ be taken as ciphers.

For illustrated description of the feathering paddle-wheel see Marine Engineering, or Seaton and Routhwaite's Pocket-book. The efficiency of a feathering-wheel is about one half that of a radial wheel (Thurston.)

Efficiency of Paddle-wheels.—Computations by Prof. of the efficiency of propulsion by paddle-wheels give for light vessels with ratio of velocity of the vessel, v , to velocity of the paddle centre of pressure, V , or $\frac{v}{V} = \frac{3}{4}$, with a dip = $\frac{3}{20}$ radius of the wheel a slip of 25 per cent, an efficiency of .714; and for ocean steamers the same slip and ratio of $\frac{v}{V}$, and a dip = $\frac{1}{8}$ radius, an efficiency of .67.

JET-PROPULSION.

Numerous experiments have been made in driving a vessel by the reaction of a jet of water pumped through an orifice in the stern. They have all resulted in commercial failure. Two jet-propellers on the "Waterwitch," 1100 tons, and the "Squirt," a small torpedo boat, were built by the British Government. The former was tried in 1867, and gave an efficiency of apparatus of only 18 per cent. The latter gave an efficiency of 17 knots attained by a sister-ship having an equal steam-power. The mathematical theory of the efficiency of jet-propulsion was discussed by Rankine in *The Engineer*, Jan. 11, 1867, and he has shown that the efficiency of water operated on by a jet-propeller, is

ence both of the theory and of the results of earlier opinions of many naval engineers, more than 30 in New York upon two experimental boats, the Evolution," in which the jet was made of very small only $\frac{5}{8}$ -inch diameter, and with a pressure of 2500 had been predicted, the vessel was a total failure. (in *Mechanics*, March, 1891.)

propeller is similar to that of the screw-propeller. in square feet, V its velocity with reference to the d, v = the velocity of the ship in reference to the the jet (see Screw-propeller, ante) is $2AV(V-v)$, vessel is $2AV(V-v)v$, and the work wasted on the the jet is $\frac{1}{2} \times 2AV(V-v)^2$. The efficiency is

$\frac{2v}{V+v}$. This expression equals unity when

velocity of the jet with reference to the earth, or thrust of the propeller is also 0. The greater the with v , the less the efficiency. For $V = 30v$, as was ion," the efficiency of the jet would be less than 10 be further reduced by the friction of the pumping ater in pipes.

propulsion may be summed up in Rankine's words: best, other things being equal, which drives astern r at the lowest velocity."

ible to devise any system of hydraulic or jet propul- favorably, under these conditions, with the screw

t.—If a jet of water issues horizontally from a ves- side of the vessel opposite the orifice is equal to the water the section of which is the area of the orifice, he head.

a jet-propulsion is the reaction of the stream issuing it is the same whether the jet is discharged under or against a solid wall. For proof, see account of Jr., given by Prof. J. Burkitt Webb, *Trans. A. S. M.*

PRACTICE IN MARINE ENGINES.

. Blechynden on Marine Engineering during the past cade, *Proc. Inst. M. E.*, July, 1891.)

stage-expansion engine has become the rule, and the en increased to 160 lbs. and even as high as 200 lbs. per age-expansion engines of various forms have also been

t has become the rule in all vessels for naval service, ommon in both passenger and cargo vessels. By this onsiderably to augment the power obtained from a ong as it is kept within certain limits it need result in , but when pushed too far the increase is sometimes able cost.

omy of forced draught, an examination of the ap- 8) will show that while the mean consumption of coal king under natural draught is 1.573 lbs. per indicated it is only 1.336 lbs. in those fitted with forced draught. n economy of 15%. Part of this economy, however, other heat-saving appliances with which the latter

aterial for boilers, iron is now a thing of the past, ble that it will continue yet awhile to be the material s can be procured at 132 square feet super^{flicial area} For purely boiler work a punching-mach^{ine}

ie-engine work.
res of steam have also caused attention e led to the adoption of various artifices ad spiral flues, with the object of gi e without abnormally increasing th ce-plate is viewed by many engine

is added to each pound of the feed-water there would be 1005 units against 1123 units of expenditure of only 89.4% of the heat against the expenditure of heat in relation to the high-pressure receiver, equivalent to a heat economy of 3.6% when compared with the low-pressure receiver, the

Fitted with Twin Screws.

Beam.	Cylinders, two sets in all.		Boiler-pressure per sq. in.	Indicated Horse-power
	Diameters.	Stro.		
Feet	Inches	In.	Lbs.	I.H.P.
63½	45, 71, 113	60	150	20,000
58	43, 68, 110	60	190	18,000
57½	40, 67, 106	66	160	11,500
55½	41, 66, 101	66	160	12,500
40	51, 32, 51, 82	54	160	10,125
15	48, 34, 54, 85	51	160	10,000
60	54½, 34½, 57½, 92	60	170	11,656

Comparison of Working of Marine Engines, 1881, and 1891.

Indicated Horse-power	1872.	1881.	1891.
Coal, lbs. per sq. ft.	52.4	77.4	158.5
Water, sq. ft.	4.410	3.917	3.275
.....	55.67	59.76	63.75
.....	376	467	529
.....	2.110	1.838	1.522

Comparison of Large-expansion Engines in Nine Years from 1872 to 1891, as to Indicated Horse-power and Weight.

Relative Weight of Machinery.					Type of Machinery.
Year.	Indicated Horse-power.		Engine-room per cu. ft. of Cylinder-capacity.	Boiler-room per 100 sq. ft. of Heating-surface.	
	Boiler-room.	Total			
1872	lbs.	lbs.	tons.	tons.	Mercantile
	220	446	1.30	3.75	
	251	510	1.46	4.10	
	198	405	1.23	3.23	
	203	373	1.29	3.30	
	162	329	1.41	3.44	
	202	343	1.87	3.37	
	108	185	1.21		
	116	194	1.11		
1891	102	165	0.82		

nd Horse - power, and Cylinder - stage - expansion Engines in Nine

Cylinder	Revolutions per minute.	Boiler-pressure per sq. in.	Indicated Horse-power.	Cylinder-capacity.	Heating-surface.	
					Total.	Per I.H.P.
18	64.5	160	6751	522	17,640	2.62
16	67.8	160	5525	496	15,107	2.73
12	83	160	1450	109	3,973	2.73
14	90	150	510	30	1,403	2.75
14	88	160	9625	508	20,193	2.10
7	113	150	1194	55	3,300	2.68
14	191	145	1265	36.3	2,227	1.76
14	182.5	140	2105	66.2	3,928	1.87
19	145	150	9400	319	15,882	1.62

CTION OF BUILDINGS.*

Building Laws of the City of New York, 1893.)
Basements, Stores, Factories, and Stables.—
 masonry walls, not less than 12 in. to height of 40 ft.;
 less than 16 in. to 40 ft., and 12 in. thence to top;
 " " 20 " 25 " 16 " "
 " " 24 " 20 ft.; 20 in. to 60 ft., and 16 in.

less than 28 in. to 25 ft.; 24 in. to 50 ft.; 20 in.
 to 100 ft.;
 additional 25 ft. in height, or part thereof, next
 to be increased 4 inches in thickness, the upper 100
 feet as specified for a wall of that weight.
 In part, the bearing-walls shall be 4 inches thicker
 than 1 1/2 feet or fraction thereof that said walls

Floors, Roofs, and Supports.

Floors calculated to bear
 safely per sq. ft., in addition
 to their own weight.

for an apartment-house or hotel, not	70 lbs.
less than.....	100 "
for a building, not less than.....	130 "
for a warehouse, etc., not less than.....	150 "
less than.....	50 "

adequate strength to bear safely the weight to be
 added to the weight of the materials of which the

—The strength of all columns and posts shall be
 determined by Gordon's formula, and the crushing weights in
 the formula, for the following-named materials,
 substituted in said formulæ, namely: Cast iron, 80,000;

and forbid any extended treatment of this subject.
 Upon it will be found in Trautwine's Civil Engi-
 neer's Architect's and Builder's Pocket-book.
 The following works of reference: "Notes
 on the Strength of Materials," by R. G. Hatfield; "Notes
 on the Strength of Materials," by R. G. Hatfield; "Graphical Analysis of
 Structures," by W. C. Greene; "The Fire Protection of Mills," by
 J. H. Drainage and Water Service," by J. H. Drainage
 and Estimator's Price-book," and "The
 Foundations of Buildings," by Fred. T. Hodgson; "Foundations of
 Buildings," by E. Dobson, Weale's Series, 1.

wrought or rolled iron, 40,000; rolled steel, 48,000; white pine and 3500; pitch or Georgia pine, 5000; American oak, 6000. The breaking of wooden beams and girders shall be computed according to the in which the constants for transverse strains for central load shall follows, namely: Hemlock, 400; white pine, 450; spruce, 450; pitch or pine, 550; American oak, 550; and for wooden beams and girders carrying uniformly distributed load the constants will be doubled. The safety shall be as one to four for all beams, girders, and other pieces to a transverse strain; as one to four for all posts, columns, and vertical supports when of wrought iron or rolled steel; as one to six for other materials, subject to a compressive strain; as one to six for rods, tie-beams, and other pieces subject to a tensile strain. Good natural earth shall be deemed to safely sustain a load of four tons superficial foot, or as otherwise determined by the superintendent of works, and the width of footing-courses shall be at least sufficient to the requirement. In computing the width of walls, a cubic foot of brick shall be deemed to weigh 115 lbs. Sandstone, white marble, granite and other kinds of building-stone shall be deemed to weigh 160 lbs. per cubic foot. The safe-bearing load to apply to good brickwork shall be taken as one ton superficial foot when good lime mortar is used, 1½ tons per superficial foot when good lime and cement mortar mixed is used, and 15 tons per superficial foot when good cement mortar is used.

Fire-proof Buildings—Iron and Steel Columns.—Iron, wrought-iron, or rolled-steel columns shall be made true and straight at both ends, and shall rest on iron or steel bed-plates, and have steel cap-plates, which shall also be made true. All iron or steel beams, headers, and tail-beams shall be suitably framed and connected together, and the iron girders, columns, beams, trusses, and all other members of all floors and roofs shall be strapped, bolted, anchored, and connected together, and to the walls, in a strong and substantial manner. Columns are framed into headers, the angle-irons, which are bolted to the columns, shall have at least two bolts for all beams over 7 inches in depth, and bolts for all beams 12 inches and over in depth, and these bolts shall be less than ¾ inch in diameter. Each one of such angles or knees, when used as girders, shall have the same number of bolts as stated for the columns. The angle-iron in no case shall be less in thickness than the header to which it is bolted, and the width of angle in no case shall be less than one third the depth of beam, excepting that an angle-knee shall be less than 3½ inches wide, nor required to be more than 6 inches wide. All iron or rolled-steel beams 8 inches deep and under shall have bearings to their depth, if resting on a wall; 9 to 12 inch beams shall have bearings of 10 inches, and all beams more than 12 inches in depth shall have bearings of not less than 12 inches if resting on a wall. Where beams rest on supports, and are properly tied to the same, no greater bearings are required than one third of the depth of the beams. Iron or steel beams shall be so arranged as to spacing and length of beams that the supports supported by them, together with the weights of the materials used in the construction of the said floors, shall not cause a deflection of the beams of more than 1/30 of an inch per linear foot of span; and they shall be supported together at intervals of not more than eight times the depth of the beams.

Under the ends of all iron or steel beams, where they rest on stone or cast-iron templates shall be built into the walls. Said templates shall be 8 inches wide in 12-inch walls, and in all walls of greater thickness the template shall be 12 inches wide; and such templates, if of stone, shall in any case less than 3½ inches in thickness, and no template shall be less than 12 inches long.

No cast-iron post or column shall be used in any building of less than the thickness of shaft than three quarters of an inch, nor shall it be supported length of more than twenty times its least lateral diameter. No wrought-iron or rolled-steel column shall have an unsupported length of more than thirty times its least lateral dimension or diameter, and shall its metal be less than one fourth of an inch in thickness.

Lintels, Bearings and Supports.—All iron or steel lintels shall have bearings proportionate to the weight to be imposed, they shall be used to span any opening more than 10 feet in width shall have bearings of less than 12 inches at each end, if resting on a wall; but if resting on posts, each lintel shall have a bearing of at least 6 inches on each side of the wall to be supported.

Beams and Girders and Rivets.—Rolled iron or steel

girders used as lintels or as girders, shall be so proportioned that the loads not produce strains in tension or compression more than 12,000 lbs. for iron, nor more than 1/2 of the gross section of each of such girders. The web-plate of more than 6000 lbs. per plate, if of iron, nor more than 7000 lbs. per plate shall be less than 1/4 inch in thickness, and shall not be less than 5/8 inch in diameter, and shall be not less than 1/4 inch in diameter, inches apart in any case. They shall be so proportioned that the loads shall not exceed 3000 lbs. per square foot by the thickness of the plates through the girders shall be proportioned upon the loads so that the strains are resisted entirely by the web-plate. The shearing strains are resisted entirely by the web-plate. The bearing strains shall be estimated as flange area, nor shall be less than 1/2 of the angle-iron which lies against the flange. The stresses of gravity of the flange areas will be resisted by the girder.

New York contain a great amount of details, and penalties are provided for violation of Buildings, etc., Chapter 275, published by Baker, Voorhies & Co., New York.

LOAD ON FLOORS.

Maximum load per square foot of floor for dense crowd. Considerable variation is shown by various authorities, as the following table

	Weight of Crowd, lbs. per sq. ft.
Stone and Stoney	41
London	70
Wine	84
Day bridges according to London	100
Palace,	130
at Melbourne	136
On Stresses," p. 617 ...	143.1
by crowding a number of persons pre- the men being tightly packed so as to occurs on the stairways and platforms	147.4

LOAD ON FLOORS.

Manufacturers' Mutual Insurance Co.)
and by C. J. H. Woodbury, for determining
observed to select the figure giving the
concentration of load as the one which may
be used; and in no case should beams be
used unless specified, unless a lower factor of
safety of a competent engineer.

When heavy timbers are made use of in
houses, they should not be painted, var-
nished, or covered with any material, as
fermentation should destroy them by

floor-beams in two parts, with a small
ventilation may be secured, even if the
beams are filled.

loads, but the first can be used in respect
of distributed loads by using half the figure given
twice as much load when evenly distrib-
uted load was concentrated in the centre

deducted from the figure given in
which may be placed upon any
at 30 lbs. per cubic foot, and 1/2

Southern-pine beams. From this should be deducted the weight which would amount to $17\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. per square foot, leaving 13 lbs. per square foot as a safe load to be carried upon such a floor. If the floor is of spruce, the result of $147\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. would be multiplied by 0.78, and the result would be 115 lbs. The weight of the floor, in this instance amounting to 25 lbs. per square foot, would leave the safe net load as 90 lbs. per square foot for the floor.

Table II applies to the design of floors whose strength is to be determined, or that necessary to sustain the weight, in order to meet the requirements of delicate or rapidly moving machinery, to the end that the torsion of the floor may be reduced to the least practicable limit.

In the table the limit is that of load which would cause the beams to a curve of which the average radius would be 125 feet.

This table is based upon a modulus of elasticity obtained from tests upon the deflection of loaded storehouse floors, and is applicable to Southern pine; the same table can be applied to other woods if the modulus of elasticity is taken as 1,200,000 lbs., if six tenths of the modulus of Southern pine is taken as the proper load for spruce; or, in designing, the load should be increased one and two thirds times the dimension of timbers for this increased load as found in the table used for spruce.

It can also be applied to beams and floor-timbers which are supported at each end and in the middle, remembering that the deflection of a beam supported in that manner is only four tenths that of a beam supported at each end; that is to say, the floor-planks which rest at each end; that is to say, the floor-planks which are supported half times as stiff, cut two bays in length, as they would be supported at each end. When a floor-plank two bays in length is supported at each end, three sixteenths of the load on the plank is sustained by the beams under the middle of the plank, and ten sixteenths by the beam under the middle of the plank; so that for a completed floor three eighths of the load is sustained by the beams under the joints of the plank, and five eighths by the beams under the middle of the plank; this is the reason for breaking joints in a floor-plank every three feet if the beams shall receive an identical load. If it were not so, the whole load upon the floor would be sustained by every other beam, and the beams would receive one eighth of the load by the corresponding alternate beams.

Repeating the former example for the load on a mill floor of Southern pine beams 10×14 inches, and 30 feet span, laid 8 feet on centers, a 1×14 inch beam should receive 61 lbs. per foot of span, or 183 lbs. per sq. ft. of floor, for Southern-pine beams. Deducting the weight of the beams, $17\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. per sq. ft., leaves 57 lbs. per sq. ft. as the advisable safe load. If the beams are of spruce, the result of 75 lbs. should be

**Loads upon Southern-pine Beams
1 Inch in Width.**

(J. H. Woodbury.)

(At the centre of the span, the beams will sustain the loads given in the table.)

Depth of Beam in inches.

7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
---	---	---	----	----	----	----	----	----	----

in pounds per foot of Span.

170	614	778	960						
327	437	540	667	807					
240	314	397	490	593	705	828			
184	240	304	375	454	540	634	735		
145	190	240	296	359	427	501	581	667	759
118	154	194	240	290	346	406	470	540	614
97	127	161	198	240	286	335	389	446	508
82	107	135	167	202	240	282	327	375	474
70	90	115	142	172	205	240	278	320	364
60	78	99	123	148	176	207	240	276	314
52	68	86	107	129	154	180	209	240	273
46	60	76	94	113	135	158	184	211	240
41	53	67	83	101	120	140	163	187	217
36	47	60	74	90	107	125	145	167	190
..	43	54	66	80	96	112	130	150	170
..	38	49	60	73	86	101	118	135	154
..	..	44	54	66	78	92	107	122	139
..	50	60	71	84	97	112	127
..	45	55	65	77	89	102	116
..	50	60	70	82	94	107
..	46	55	65	75	86	98

Loads upon Southern-pine Beams sufficient to sustain a Standard Limit of Deflection.

(J. H. Woodbury.)

Depth of Beam in inches.

8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
---	---	----	----	----	----	----	----	----

in pounds per foot of Span.

182	259								.0300
126	180	247							.0432
93	132	181	241						.0588
71	101	139	185	240	305				.0768
56	80	110	146	190	241	301			.0972
46	65	89	118	154	195	244	300		.1300
38	54	73	98	127	161	202	248	301	.1452
32	45	62	82	107	136	169	208	253	.1728
27	38	53	70	91	116	144	178	215	.2028
23	33	45	60	78	100	124	153	186	.2352
20	29	40	53	68	87	108	133	162	.2700
18	25	35	46	60	76	95	117	147	.3072
16	22	31	41	53	68	84	104	126	.3468
..	20	27	37	47	60	75	93	112	.3888
..	18	25	33	43	54	68	85	101	.4332
..	..	22	30	38	49	61	75	91	.4800
..	20	27	35	44	55	68	.5280
..	24	32	40	50	62	.5772
..	22	29	37	46	.57
..	27	34	42	.63
..	25	31	39	.68

$$\text{Unit of force} = 1 \text{ dyne} = \frac{1}{981} \text{ gramme} = \frac{1}{981} \text{ lb.}$$

A dyne is that force which, acting on a mass of one gramme, will give it a velocity of one centimetre per second in latitude 40° to 45° is about 980 dynes, at the equator and at the poles nearly 984 dynes. Taking the value of g , due to gravity, in British measures at 32.185 feet per second metre = 39.37 inches, we have

$$1 \text{ gramme} = 32.185 \times 12 + .3937 = 981.00 \text{ dynes}$$

$$\text{Unit of work} = 1 \text{ erg} = 1 \text{ dyne-centimetre} = .000000737$$

$$\text{Unit of power} = 1 \text{ watt} = 10 \text{ million ergs per second,}$$

$$= .7373 \text{ foot-pound per second,}$$

$$= \frac{.7373}{550} = \frac{1}{746} \text{ of 1 horse-power} =$$

C.G.S. Unit of magnetism = the quantity which attracts an equal quantity at a centimetre's distance with the force of 1 dyne.

C.G.S. Unit of electrical current = the current which, flowing through a length of 1 centimetre of wire, acts with a force of 1 dyne on a magnetism distant 1 centimetre from every point of the wire. The commercial unit of current, is one tenth of the C.G.S. unit.

The Practical Units used in Electrical Calculation

Ampere, the unit of current strength, or rate of flow, represented by A .
Volt, the unit of electro-motive force, electrical pressure, or potential, represented by E .

Ohm, the unit of resistance, represented by R .

Coulomb (or ampere-second), the unit of quantity, Q .

Ampere-hour = 3600 coulombs, Q' .

Watt (ampere-volt, or volt-ampere), the unit of power, P .

Joule (volt-coulomb), the unit of energy or work, W .

Farad, the unit of capacity, represented by K .

Henry, the unit of induction, represented by L .

Using letters to represent the units, the relations between them are expressed by the following formulæ, in which t represents time, T one hour:

$$C = \frac{E}{R}, \quad Q = Ct, \quad Q' = CT, \quad K = \frac{Q}{E}, \quad W = QE,$$

As these relations contain no coefficient other than unity,

as adopted at the International Electrical Congress as established by Act of Congress of the United States as follows:

The unit of resistance is the ohm, represented by the resistance offered to an unbranched column of mercury at 32° F., 14.4521 grammes cross-sectional area, and of the length of 106.3 centi-

metres, which will produce a current of one ampere when a constant potential difference of current of the C.G.S. system, and is the unit of work which when passed through a circuit in water in accordance with standard specifications at a rate of .001118 gramme per second.

The unit of electromotive force is the volt, which is the electromotive force that, steadily applied to a conductor of one ohm, will produce a current of one ampere, and is equal to 1/1434 (or .6974) of the electro-motive force of a Clark's cell at a temperature of 15° C., as described in the standard specifications.

The unit of electricity transferred by a current of one ampere for one second is the coulomb, which is the quantity of electricity transferred by a current of one ampere from a condenser charged to a potential of one volt.

The unit of energy expended in one second by an ampere of current is the joule, which is the energy expended in one second by an ampere

of current in a circuit when the electro-motive force in the circuit is one volt, and the inducing current varies at the rate of one ampere per second.

The unit of power in the C.G.S. system, and is the watt, which is the power expended in one second at the rate of one joule per second.

The units of resistance, electromotive force, and electricity, as defined, are called the "international" ohm, volt, and coulomb, respectively, and are distinguished from the "legal" ohm, B.A. unit, etc.

The "legal" ohm, B.A. unit, etc., as defined and determined by a committee of the British Association, was the resistance of a certain piece of platinum wire of a certain length and cross-sectional area. The so-called "legal" ohm, as adopted by the International Congress of Electricians in Paris in 1884, was a correction of the "legal" ohm, and is defined as the resistance of a column of mercury of a certain length and cross-sectional area, and of a certain temperature.

3 B.A. units, 1 B.A. unit = 0.9889 legal ohm;

6 " " 1 " " = 0.9866 int. ohm;

3 legal ohm, 1 legal ohm = 0.9977 " "

DERIVED UNITS.

= 1 million ohms;
= 1 millionth of an ohm;
= 1/1000 of an ampere;
= 1 millionth of a farad.

UNITS OF VARIOUS UNITS.

= 1 coulomb per second;
= 1 watt = 1 volt-coulomb per second;
= .7373 foot-pound per second,
= .0009477 heat-units per second (Fahr.),
= 1/746 of one horse-power;
= .7373 foot-pound,
= work done by one watt in one second,
= .0009477 heat-unit;
= 1055.2 joules;
= 737.3 foot-pound per second,
= .9477 heat-units per second,
= 1000/746 or 1.3405 horse-powers;
= 1.3405 horse-power hours,
= 2,654,200 foot-pounds,
= 3416 heat-units;
= 746 watts = 746 volt-amperes,
= 33,000 foot-pounds per minute.

The units of resistance, electromotive force, and electricity, as defined in terms of one another as follows: The unit of resistance is the ohm, which is the resistance offered to a current of one ampere by a column of mercury of a certain length and cross-sectional area, and of a certain temperature. The unit of electromotive force is the volt, which is the electromotive force that, steadily applied to a conductor of one ohm, will produce a current of one ampere. The unit of electricity is the coulomb, which is the quantity of electricity transferred by a current of one ampere for one second.

Equivalent Values of Electrical and Mechanical Units.

Unit,	Equivalent Value in Other Units,	Unit.	Equivalent Value in Other Units,
$\frac{1}{\text{Hour}} =$ K. W.	1,000 watt hours. 1.34 horse-power hours. 2,654,300 ft.-lbs. 3,600,000 joules. 3,413 heat-units. 367,000 kilogram metres. 235 lbs. carbon oxidized with perfect efficiency. 3.53 lbs. water evap. from and at 212° F. 23.75 lbs. of water raised from 62° to 212° F.	1 Heat-unit =	1,055 watt seconds. 778 ft.-lbs. 107.6 kilogram metres. 60,0293 K. W. hour. 60,0363 H. P. hour. 60,00088 lbs. carbon oxidized. 60,01936 lbs. water evap. from and at 212° F. .122 watts per square in. .0176 K. W. per sq. ft. .0236 H. P. per sq. ft.
$\frac{1}{\text{Hour}} =$ H. P.	746 K. W. hours. 1,980,000 ft.-lbs. 2,545 heat-units. 273,740 k. g. m. .175 lb. carbon oxidized with perfect efficiency. 2.64 lbs. water evaporated from and at 212° F. 17.0 lbs. water raised from 62° F. to 212° F.	1 Heat-unit per Sq. Ft. =	7.323 ft.-lbs. .0000365 H. P. hour. .0003272 K. W. hour. .0093 heat-units.
$\frac{1}{\text{Hour}} =$ H. P.	1,000 watts. 1.34 horse-power. 2,654,300 ft.-lbs. per hour. 3,600,000 joules. 3,413 heat-units per hour. 367,000 kilogram metres per hour. 235 lbs. carbon oxidized per hour. 3.53 lbs. water evap. per hour. 23.75 lbs. carbon oxidized per hour. 2.64 lbs. water evap. per hour from and at 212° F. 1 watt second. .000000278 K. W. hour. .102 k. g. m. .0009477 heat-units. .7373 ft.-lb.	1 Kilogram Metre =	14,544 heat-units. 1.11 lb. Anth. elite coal ox. 2.5 lbs. dry wood oxidized. 21 cu. ft. illuminating gas. 4.26 K. W. hours. 5.71 H. P. hours. 11,315,000 ft.-lbs. 15 lbs. of water evap. from and at 212° F.
$\frac{1}{\text{Hour}} =$ H. P.	1 Joule =	1 lb. Water Evaporated from and at	.983 K. W. hour. 373 H. P. hour. 665 heat-units. 1,039,900 k. g. m. 4,019,000 joules.
$\frac{1}{\text{Hour}} =$ H. P.	1 Watt =	1 lb. Water Evaporated from and at	.983 K. W. hour. 373 H. P. hour. 665 heat-units. 1,039,900 k. g. m. 4,019,000 joules.

gh a resistance of one ohm when the electro-
the electro-motive force required to cause a
through a resistance of one ohm.

Circuit.—(See Electro-magnets, page 1058.)
ing Electrical Measurements, Test-
-injeson's Pocket-Book of Electrical Rules,
-son's Dynamo-Electric Machinery; and works

and Mechanical Units.—H. Ward
Electrical Engineer, Feb. 25, 1895, a table of use-
l mechanical units, from which the table on
modifications.

IN THE FLOW OF WATER AND ELECTRICITY.

ELECTRICITY.

t. in., in } Volts; electro-motive force; differ-
ence of potential or of pressure; E.
or E.M.F.

etc., with } Ohms, resistance, R . The resistance
; de- } increases directly as the length of
dional } the conductor or wire and inversely
d de- } as its sectional area, $R \propto l + s$.
plex } It varies with the nature or quality
f. } of the conductor.
Conductivity is the reciprocal of spe-
cific resistance.

second, } Amperes; current; current strength;
volume } intensity of current; rate of flow; 1
unit } ampere = 1 coulomb per second.

$$\text{Amperes} = \frac{\text{volts}}{\text{ohms}}; \quad C = \frac{E}{R}; \quad E = CR.$$

cubic } Coulomb, unit of quantity, Q , = rate
pulsive, } of flow \times time, as ampere-seconds.
as many } 1 ampere-hour = 3600 coulombs.

foot- } Joule, volt-coulomb, W , the unit of
fall- } work, = product of quantity by the
ll; in } electro-motive force = volt-ampere-
ity in } second. 1 joule = .7373 foot-pound.
n lbs. } If C (amperes) = rate of flow, and
h the } E (volts) = difference of pressure
between two points in a circuit,
energy expended = CEt , = C^2Rt ,
since $E = CR$.

er, ft. } Watt, unit of power, P , = volts \times
33,000 } amperes, = current or rate of flow
ng in } \times difference of potential.
owing } 1 watt = .7373 foot-pound per second
3 feet } = $1/746$ of a horse-power.
g the }

Ampere and the Miner's Inch.

er's inch is defined as the quantity of water
rture an inch square in a board two inches
six inches. Here, as in the case of the am-
any abstract quantity, such as gallons or
to time. It is simply a rate of flow. We
r, six inches, as the representative of electri-
e aperture restricting the flow of water may
sistance of one ohm; the flow through a re-
pressure of one volt is one ampere. A
-inch hole two inches long und
of the opening is one miner's
e correct analogue of the an
of water, 0.194 gallon; the
b.

ELECTRICAL RESISTANCE.

Laws of Electrical Resistance.—The resistance, R , of any conductor varies directly as its length, l , and inversely as its sectional area,

$$R \propto \frac{l}{a}$$

EXAMPLE.—If one foot of copper wire .01 in. diameter has a resistance of .000 001 ohm, what will be the resistance of a mile of wire 3 in. diam. at the same temperature? The sectional areas being proportional to the square of the diameters, the ratio of the areas is $.01^2 : .03^2 = 100 : 1$. The length of the second wire is 5280 ft. The resistances being directly as the lengths and inversely as the sectional areas, the resistance of the second wire is $.0001 \times 5280 \times 100 = 5.28$ ohms.

Resistance, r , is the inverse of resistance. $R = \frac{l}{ac}$, $c = \frac{l}{aR}$. If c_1 and c_2 represent the conductances, and R_1 and R_2 the respective resistance of two conductors of the same length and section, then $c_1 : c_2 :: R_2 : R_1$.

Equivalent Conductors.—With two conductors of length l_1 , of resistances r_1 , and sectional areas s_1 , we have the same resistance as one may be substituted for the other when $\frac{l_1}{cs} = \frac{l_2}{c_1 s_1}$.

The specific resistance, also called resistivity, α , of a material of unit length and section is its resistance as compared with the resistance of a standard conductor, such as pure copper. Conductivity, or specific conductance, is the reciprocal of resistivity.

$$R = \frac{l}{ac}, \quad R = \frac{\alpha l}{s}$$

If two wires have lengths l_1 , l_2 , areas s_1 , s_2 , and specific resistances α_1 , α_2 , their

$$\text{actual resistances are } R = \frac{\alpha l}{s}, \quad R_2 = \frac{\alpha_2 l_2}{s_2}, \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{R}{R_2} = \frac{\alpha l s_2}{\alpha_2 l_2 s}$$

Electrical Conductivity of Different Metals and Alloys.

Welter presented to the Société Internationale des Electriciens the results of his experiments upon the relative electrical conductivity of certain metals and alloys, as here appended:

Pure silver.....	100	17. Phosphor tin.....	7.7
Pure copper.....	100	18. Alloy of gold and silver (50%).....	16.12
Rolled and crystallized copper.....	95.9	19. Swedish iron.....	34
Polymorphic silicious bronze.....	98	20. Pure Banca tin.....	32.42
Alloy of copper and silver (80%).....	81.65	21. Antimonial copper.....	17.7
Pure gold.....	78	22. Aluminum bronze (100).....	22.1
Sulfide of copper, 4% S.....	75	23. Siemens steel.....	31
Sulfide of copper, 12% S.....	54.7	24. Pure platinum.....	34.4
Pure aluminum.....	54.2	25. Copper with 10% nickel.....	34.3
Tin with 12% of sodium.....	46.9	26. Cadmium amalgam (5%).....	36.7
Polymorphic silicious bronze.....	35	27. Bismuth mercurial bronze.....	34.34
Copper with 10% of lead.....	30	28. Pure lead.....	3.1
Pure zinc.....	29.9	29. Bronze with 20% of tin.....	3.8
Alloy of zinc and phosphor.....	29	30. Pure nickel.....	7.5
95% zinc.....	26.46	31. Phosphor-bronze, 10% tin.....	6.3
90% zinc.....	27.3	32. Phosphor-copper, 2% phosphor.....	4.3
		33. Antimony.....	3.9

Relative resistances may be reduced to ohms on the basis of pure copper one millimetre in diameter at a temperature of 20°C. of .000 001 international ohm per metre, or a wire of length one metre and sectional area of .25 international ohm per foot.

Resistances of Different Metals at 0° and 100° C. (Matthiessen.)

Resistivities.	Metals.	Conductivities.	
		At 0° C. " 32° F.	At 100° C. " 212° F.
71.56	Tin	12.86	8.67
79.27	Lead	8.32	5.86
55.90	Arsenic	4.76	3.33
20.67	Antimony	4.62	3.26
16.77	Mercury, pure..	1.60
.....	Bismuth	1.245	0.878

Insulators in Order of their Value.

Insulators (Non-conductors).	
Dry Air	Ebonite
Shellac	Gutta-percha
Paraffin	India-rubber
Amber	Silk
Resin	Dry Paper
Sulphur	Parchment
Wax	Dry Leather
Jet	Porcelain
Glass	Oils
Mica	

resistance of distilled water is 6754 million times

with Temperature.—For every degree Centigrade the resistance of copper increases about 0.4%, or for every degree Fahrenheit the resistance of copper wire having a resistance of 10 ohms at 32° F. is 11.11 ohms at 82° F. The following table shows the amount of resistance of a few substances in order of purposes by which 1 ohm is increased by a rise of 1° C.

Rise of R. of 1 Ohm when Heated—	
1° F.	1° C.
..... .00013	.00021
..... .00018	.00031
(below) .. .00024	.00044
..... .00036	.00065
..... .00044	.00080
..... .00222	.00400

degree of hardness or softness of a metal or alloy is lessened by annealing. Matthiessen's table shows the conductivities for copper and silver, the comparative values for silver at 100° C.:

Temp. C.	Hard.	Annealed.
..... 11°	95.31	97.83
..... 14.6°	95.36	103.33

The following table shows the comparative conductivities of copper, silver, and brass with the following results:

	Hard.	Annealed.
.....	52.207	55.253
.....	56.252	64.330
.....	11.439	13.502

The Electrical Congress 1893, p. 179) says that the resistance depends on its composition. Matthiessen's table shows the comparative conductivities for copper and silver, the comparative values for silver at 100° C. Matthiessen, with a temperature coefficient of resistance, has found copper-nickel-zinc alloy

(silver) which had a resistance of nearly 38 times that of copper, and a temperature coefficient of about one half that given by Matthiessen. Ke and Fessenden (Proc. Elec. Cong., p. 186) find that copper has a temperature coefficient of 0.406% per degree C., between the limits of 250° C.

Standard of Resistance of Copper Wire. (Trans. A. I. Sept. and Nov. 1890.)—Matthiessen's standard is: A hard-drawn copper wire 1 metre long, weighing 1 gramme has a resistance of 0.1469 B.A. U. at 0° C. (1 B.A. unit = 0.9889 legal ohm = 0.9866 international ohm.) Resistance of hard copper = 1.0226 times that of soft copper. Relative conductivity (Matthiessen): silver, 100; hard or unannealed copper, 99.35; annealed copper, 102.21. Conductivity of copper at other temperatures

$$C_t = C_0(1 - .00387t + .000009009t^2).$$

The resistance is the reciprocal of the conductivity, and is

$$R_t = R_0(1 + .00387t + .00000597t^2).$$

A committee of the Am. Inst. Electrical Engineers recommend the following as the most correct form of the Matthiessen standard, taking 100 sp. gr. of pure copper:

A soft copper wire 1 metre long and 1 mm. diam. has an electrical resistance of .02067 B.A. unit at 0° C. From this the resistance of a soft wire 1 foot long and .001 in. diam. (mil-foot) is found to be 9.720 B.A. units at 0° C.

Standard Resistance at 0° C.	B.A. Units.	Legal Ohms.
Metre-millimetre, soft copper.....	.02057	.02024
Cubic centimetre " ".....	.000001616	.000001598
Mil-foot " ".....	9.720	9.612
1 mil-foot, of soft copper at 10° 22 C. or 50° 4 F. . .	10	9.8
" " " " " " 15° 5 " 59° 9 F. . .	10.20	10
" " " " " " 23° 9 " 75° F. . .	10.53	10

For tables of the resistance of copper wire, see pages 218 to 220, pp. 1034, 1035.

Taking Matthiessen's standard of pure copper as 100%, some refinements have exhibited an electrical conductivity equivalent to 103%.

Matthiessen found that impurities in copper sufficient to decrease its conductivity from 8.94 to 8.90 produced a marked increase of electrical resistance.

ELECTRIC CURRENTS.

Ohm's Law.—This law expresses the relation between the fundamental units of resistance, electrical pressure, and current. It is

$$\text{Current} = \frac{\text{electrical pressure}}{\text{resistance}}; \quad C = \frac{E}{R}; \quad \text{whence } E = CR, \text{ and}$$

In terms of the units of the three quantities,

$$\text{Amperes} = \frac{\text{volts}}{\text{ohms}}; \quad \text{volts} = \text{amperes} \times \text{ohms}; \quad \text{ohms} = \frac{\text{volts}}{\text{amp}}$$

EXAMPLES; Simple Circuits.—1. If the source has an effective electrical pressure of 100 volts, and the resistance is two ohms, what is the current?

$$C = \frac{E}{R} = \frac{100}{2} = 50 \text{ amperes.}$$

2. What pressure will give a current of 50 amperes through a resistance of 2 ohms? $E = CR = 50 \times 2 = 100$ volts.

3. What resistance is required to obtain a current of 50 amperes from a source of 100 volts? $R = \frac{E}{C} = \frac{100}{50} = 2$ ohms.

The following examples are from R. E. Day's "Electric Light and Power."

1. The internal resistance of a certain Brush dynamo-machine is 73 ohms and the external resistance is 73 ohms; the electro-motive force of the machine being 839 volts. Find the strength of the current flowing in the circuit.

$$E = 839; \quad R = 73 + 73 = 146 \text{ ohms.}$$

$$C = E \div R = 839 \div 146 = 5.75 \text{ amperes.}$$

a resistance of 0.36 ohms, while the re-ohm, and that of the dynamo is 2.8 ohms. ve force of the machine when the strength peres.

13.26 ohms; $C = 14.8$ amperes;

$4.8 = 196.3$ volts.

data the average resistance of each of . The electro-motive force of the machine ohms, while that of the leading wires is 2 through each lamp is 21 amperes.

ance in ohms of each lamp, then the total $+ 2 + 3.7$.

$.3x + 5.7 = 244/21 = 11.61$ ohms, whence

mps were placed in series. The average was 39.3 ohms, and that of the dynamo at electro-motive force was required to through this circuit?

$+ 11.2 = 129.1$ ohms, and

re;

$1.2 \times 129.1 = 154.9$ volts.

certain Brush lamp was 3.8 ohms when a through it. What was the electro-motive

$= 10 \times 3.8 = 38$ volts.

alvanic cells, each of which had an aver- were joined up in series to one incandes- and produced a current of 0.112 amperes. rent produced by a series of 30 such cells resistance?

he problem enable us to determine the ch cell of the battery. Let this be repre-

$(35 \times 15 + 70) = .112 \times 445$;

$\frac{445}{30} = 2$ volts, nearly.

part of the problem, we have, by Ohm's

$\frac{445}{30} = \frac{60}{510} = 0.118$ ampere.

rcuit has two paths, the total current in resistances.

f the two branches, and C and C_1 the cur-

$\frac{R_1}{R}$, whence

$R = \frac{C_1 R_1}{C}$; $R_1 = \frac{CR}{C_1}$.

, one circuit is said to be in *shunt* to the e arc or in parallel.

conductors are arranged on- and the total resistance is the

R_2 .

simple circuit we have 1 e internal parts of the st

small as is commercially practicable, so that no energy may be wasted in heating the wire. The amount of fuel burned in the boiler to the electric energy is

the amount of mechanical energy by means of the boiler

transformed into electrical energy in the dynamo,

and transformed into heat in the electric light.

The efficiency of the motor is the equivalent of the energy causing

the expenditure of energy in watts = electro-motive

force = EC , and the energy in joules = watts

time = $C^2Rt = ECh$.

It is (From Kapp's Electrical Transmission

of great importance to determine beforehand

what is to be expected in each given case, and if

the loss is greater than appears safe, provision must be

made that such heat is carried off. This can generally

be done by increasing the superficial area of the conductor.

Say we have a conductor of one square inch area, and find that with 1000 amperes

it gets too hot. Now by splitting up this conductor into

ten wires of one-tenth of a square inch cross-sectional area, we

increase the amount of energy transformed into heat, but we

also increase the surface exposed to the cooling action of the surrounding

air, and therefore the ten thin wires can dissipate more

heat than the single thick wire.

Subaqueous and Aerial Cables (Insulated). (Prof. Forbes.)

Example - Diameter of conductor = 4.

Temperature of air = $30^{\circ}\text{C} = 86^{\circ}\text{F}$.

Temperature of conductor over air.

Current in amperes.

$t = 9^{\circ}\text{C}.$ $= 48.2^{\circ}\text{F}.$	$t = 35^{\circ}\text{C}.$ $= 95^{\circ}\text{F}.$	$t = 49^{\circ}\text{C}.$ $= 120.2^{\circ}\text{F}.$	$t = 81^{\circ}\text{C}.$ $= 175.8^{\circ}\text{F}.$
11.0	17.8	24.0	29.5
27.0	43.8	59.0	72.5
44.4	72.1	97.3	119
62.5	102	137	168
81.0	131	177	218
100	164	219	268
119	192	259	319
137	223	301	369
157	253	342	420
175	285	384	472
197	316	426	523
219	348	468	574
241	380	510	625
263	412	552	676
285	444	594	727
307	476	636	778
329	508	678	829
351	540	720	880
373	572	762	931
395	604	804	982
417	636	846	1033
439	668	888	1084
461	700	930	1135
483	732	972	1186
505	764	1014	1237
527	796	1056	1288
549	828	1098	1339
571	860	1140	1390
593	892	1182	1441
615	924	1224	1492
637	956	1266	1543
659	988	1308	1594
681	1020	1350	1645
703	1052	1392	1696
725	1084	1434	1747
747	1116	1476	1798
769	1148	1518	1849
791	1180	1560	1900
813	1212	1602	1951
835	1244	1644	2002
857	1276	1686	2053
879	1308	1728	2104
901	1340	1770	2155
923	1372	1812	2206
945	1404	1854	2257
967	1436	1896	2308
989	1468	1938	2359
1011	1500	1980	2410
1033	1532	2022	2461
1055	1564	2064	2512
1077	1596	2106	2563
1099	1628	2148	2614

Insulated wire carries a greater current without heating than a bare wire of the same diameter if the diameter be not too great. Assuming the insulation to be twice the diam. of the conductor, a greater current can be carried in insulated wires than in bare wires up to 1.9 inch diam. of cable = 4 times diam. of conductor.

The table on pages 1034 and 1035 is from the Committee on Units and Standards of the Institution of Electrical Engineers (Trans. Oct. 1893).

Gauges.	A. W. G., B. & S.	R. W. G., S. S.	Diam- eter, Inches.	Area, Circular mills,	Weight.		Length.		Resistances in International Ohms.			
					Lbs. per Foot.	Lbs. per Ohm, at 30° C., 68° F.	Feet per Lb.	Ft. per Ohm, at 30° C., 68° F.	Ohms per Lb., at 30° C., 68° F.	Ohms per ft., at 30° C., 68° F.	Ohms per ft., at 50° C., 112° F.	Ohms per ft., at 80° C., 176° F.
17			0.04526	2.048	0.005300	1.236	181.3	177.8	0.8153	0.005655	0.005648	0.005559
18			0.04530	1.764	0.005340	0.997	167.3	170.4	1.099	0.005670	0.005658	0.007367
19			0.04530	1.634	0.004917	0.713	205.4	156.9	1.296	0.006374	0.007122	0.007892
20			0.04530	1.525	0.004560	0.437	281.9	118.3	1.581	0.007050	0.008032	0.009442
21			0.04530	1.424	0.004300	0.306	328.6	98.90	2.270	0.008452	0.009443	0.01153
22			0.04530	1.329	0.004092	0.205	382.4	88.66	2.928	0.01011	0.01132	0.01555
23			0.04530	1.241	0.003922	0.149	407.8	78.24	3.512	0.01278	0.01428	0.01883
24			0.04530	1.159	0.003782	0.107	477.2	68.45	4.387	0.01612	0.01813	0.02451
25			0.04530	1.084	0.003662	0.079	514.9	60.36	5.158	0.02033	0.02271	0.02951
26			0.04530	1.016	0.003562	0.058	558.6	54.21	5.982	0.02519	0.02794	0.03649
27			0.04530	950.0	0.003480	0.043	615.9	48.75	6.868	0.03068	0.03383	0.04429
28			0.04530	894.0	0.003410	0.033	683.9	44.75	7.812	0.03688	0.04042	0.05285
29			0.04530	840.0	0.003350	0.025	763.9	41.50	8.823	0.04366	0.04749	0.06154
30			0.04530	790.0	0.003300	0.019	858.9	38.52	9.919	0.05119	0.05519	0.07382
31			0.04530	745.0	0.003260	0.014	974.9	35.74	11.100	0.05944	0.06344	0.08322
32			0.04530	705.0	0.003230	0.010	1107.9	33.10	12.380	0.06866	0.07266	0.09322
33			0.04530	670.0	0.003200	0.008	1259.9	30.59	13.760	0.07888	0.08288	0.10400
34			0.04530	640.0	0.003180	0.006	1434.9	28.11	15.240	0.09010	0.09410	0.12176
35			0.04530	615.0	0.003160	0.005	1634.9	25.76	16.820	0.10232	0.10632	0.13760
36			0.04530	595.0	0.003140	0.004	1864.9	23.52	18.500	0.11564	0.11964	0.15248
37			0.04530	580.0	0.003130	0.003	2129.9	21.39	20.280	0.13006	0.13406	0.17040
38			0.04530	568.0	0.003120	0.002	2434.9	19.44	22.160	0.14568	0.14968	0.18824
39			0.04530	559.0	0.003110	0.002	2774.9	17.63	24.140	0.16250	0.16650	0.21176
40			0.04530	553.0	0.003100	0.001	3154.9	15.93	26.320	0.18052	0.18452	0.23376
41			0.04530	549.0	0.003090	0.001	3579.9	14.33	28.700	0.20074	0.20474	0.25824
42			0.04530	546.0	0.003080	0.001	4054.9	12.82	31.180	0.22326	0.22726	0.28376
43			0.04530	544.0	0.003070	0.001	4584.9	11.39	33.760	0.24808	0.25208	0.31024
44			0.04530	543.0	0.003060	0.001	5174.9	10.04	36.440	0.27530	0.27930	0.34672
45			0.04530	543.0	0.003050	0.001	5829.9	8.75	39.220	0.30502	0.30902	0.38224
46			0.04530	543.0	0.003040	0.001	6554.9	7.52	42.100	0.33724	0.34124	0.41824
47			0.04530	543.0	0.003030	0.001	7354.9	6.34	45.080	0.37306	0.37706	0.45824
48			0.04530	543.0	0.003020	0.001	8234.9	5.21	48.160	0.41248	0.41648	0.50176
49			0.04530	543.0	0.003010	0.001	9204.9	4.13	51.340	0.45460	0.45860	0.54824
50			0.04530	543.0	0.003000	0.001	10274.9	3.10	54.720	0.50042	0.50442	0.60176
51			0.04530	543.0	0.002990	0.001	11454.9	2.21	58.300	0.55004	0.55404	0.65824
52			0.04530	543.0	0.002980	0.001	12754.9	1.44	62.080	0.60346	0.60746	0.72176
53			0.04530	543.0	0.002970	0.001	14284.9	0.79	66.160	0.66068	0.66468	0.79176
54			0.04530	543.0	0.002960	0.001	16054.9	0.44	70.540	0.72190	0.72590	0.86176
55			0.04530	543.0	0.002950	0.001	18084.9	0.25	75.320	0.78722	0.79122	0.93176
56			0.04530	543.0	0.002940	0.001	20484.9	0.14	80.500	0.85664	0.86064	1.00176
57			0.04530	543.0	0.002930	0.001	23284.9	0.08	86.180	0.93006	0.93406	1.08176
58			0.04530	543.0	0.002920	0.001	26584.9	0.05	92.360	1.00748	1.01148	1.16176
59			0.04530	543.0	0.002910	0.001	30484.9	0.03	99.040	1.08990	1.09390	1.25176
60			0.04530	543.0	0.002900	0.001	35084.9	0.02	106.320	1.17732	1.18132	1.34176
61			0.04530	543.0	0.002890	0.001	40484.9	0.01	114.200	1.27074	1.27474	1.44176
62			0.04530	543.0	0.002880	0.001	46884.9	0.01	122.680	1.37016	1.37416	1.55176
63			0.04530	543.0	0.002870	0.001	54484.9	0.01	131.860	1.47558	1.47958	1.67176
64			0.04530	543.0	0.002860	0.001	63484.9	0.01	141.740	1.58700	1.59100	1.80176
65			0.04530	543.0	0.002850	0.001	74084.9	0.01	152.320	1.70442	1.70842	1.94176
66			0.04530	543.0	0.002840	0.001	86484.9	0.01	163.600	1.82784	1.83184	2.19176
67			0.04530	543.0	0.002830	0.001	100884.9	0.01	175.580	1.95726	1.96126	2.35176
68			0.04530	543.0	0.002820	0.001	117484.9	0.01	188.260	2.09268	2.09668	2.52176
69			0.04530	543.0	0.002810	0.001	136484.9	0.01	201.640	2.23410	2.23810	2.70176
70			0.04530	543.0	0.002800	0.001	158084.9	0.01	215.820	2.38152	2.38552	2.89176
71			0.04530	543.0	0.002790	0.001	183684.9	0.01	230.900	2.53494	2.53894	3.09176
72			0.04530	543.0	0.002780	0.001	213684.9	0.01	246.880	2.69436	2.69836	3.30176
73			0.04530	543.0	0.002770	0.001	248484.9	0.01	263.760	2.85978	2.86378	3.52176
74			0.04530	543.0	0.002760	0.001	289484.9	0.01	281.540	3.03120	3.03520	3.75176
75			0.04530	543.0	0.002750	0.001	338084.9	0.01	299.320	3.20862	3.21262	3.99176
76			0.04530	543.0	0.002740	0.001	395684.9	0.01	317.100	3.39204	3.39604	4.24176
77			0.04530	543.0	0.002730	0.001	46484.9	0.01	335.980	3.58146	3.58546	4.50176
78			0.04530	543.0	0.002720	0.001	54884.9	0.01	355.960	3.77688	3.78088	4.77176
79			0.04530	543.0	0.002710	0.001	65084.9	0.01	376.140	3.97830	3.98230	5.05176
80			0.04530	543.0	0.002700	0.001	77484.9	0.01	397.520	4.18572	4.18972	5.34176
81			0.04530	543.0	0.002690	0.001	92484.9	0.01	419.100	4.39914	4.40314	5.64176
82			0.04530	543.0	0.002680	0.001	110484.9	0.01	441.880	4.61856	4.62256	5.95176
83			0.04530	543.0	0.002670	0.001	132084.9	0.01	465.860	4.84398	4.84798	6.27176
84			0.04530	543.0	0.002660	0.001	158084.9	0.01	491.040	5.07540	5.07940	6.60176
85			0.04530	543.0	0.002650	0.001	188084.9	0.01	517.420	5.31282	5.31682	6.94176
86			0.04530	543.0	0.002640	0.001	223084.9	0.01	544.900	5.55624	5.56024	7.29176
87			0.04530	543.0	0.002630	0.001	263084.9	0.01	573.480	5.80566	5.80966	7.65176
88			0.04530	543.0	0.002620	0.001	309084.9	0.01	603.160	6.06108	6.06508	8.02176
89			0.04530	543.0	0.002610	0.001	362084.9	0.01	633.940	6.32250	6.32650	8.40176
90			0.04530	543.0	0.002600	0.001	424084.9	0.01	665.820	6.58992	6.59392	8.79176
91			0.04530	543.0	0.002590	0.001	496084.9	0.01	698.900	6.86334	6.86734	9.19176
92			0.04530	543.0	0.002580	0.001	580084.9	0.01	733.180	7.14276	7.14676	9.60176
93			0.04530	543.0	0.002570	0.001	678084.9	0.01	768.660	7.42818	7.43218	1.00176
94			0.04530	543.0	0.002560	0.001	794084.9	0.01	805.340	7.71960	7.72360	1.05176
95			0.04530	543.0	0.002550	0.001	930084.9	0.01	843.220	8.01702	8.02102	1.10176
96			0.04530	543.0	0.002540	0.001	1088084.9	0.01	882.300	8.32044	8.32444	1.15176
97			0.04530	543.0	0.002530	0.001	1274084.9	0.01	922.580	8.63086	8.63486	1.20176
98			0.04530	543.0	0.002520	0.001	1494084.9	0.01	964.060	8.94828	8.95228	1.25176
99			0.04530	543.0	0.002510	0.001	1754084.9	0.01	1006.740	9.27270	9.27670	1.30176
100			0.04530	543.0	0.002500	0.001	2064084.9	0.01	1050.620	9.60412	9.60812	1.35176

The data from which the foregoing table has been computed are as follows: Matthiessen's standard resistivity, Matthiessen's temperature coefficient, specific gravity of copper = 8.89. Resistance in terms of the international ohm.

Matthiessen's standard 1 metre-gramme of hard-drawn copper = 1.0231 B. A. U. @ 0° C. Ratio of resistivity hard to soft copper 1.0231.

Matthiessen's standard 1 metre-gramme of soft-drawn copper = 0.9866 B. A. U. @ 0° C. One B. A. U. = 0.9866 international ohm.

Matthiessen's standard 1 metre-gramme of soft-drawn copper = 0.9866 international ohm @ 0° C.

Temperature coefficients of resistance for 20° C., 50° C., and 80° C., 1.93625, 1.93625, and 1.33681 respectively. 1 foot = 0.3048028 metre, 1 pound = 453.59236 grammes.

Heating of Coils.—To calculate the heating of a coil, given the cooling surface and its resistance. (Forbes.)

Let ρ = the resistance of a coil in ohms at the permissible temperature (the resistance (cold) must be increased by 1/3 of its value)

S = the surface exposed to the air measured in square centimetres

(1 square cm. = .155 square inch; 1 sq. in. = 6.45 square cm.)

t = the rise in temperature, centigrade scale;

C = the current in amperes.

$$.24C^2\rho = \text{heat generated} = eI^2R.$$

where e is McFarlane's constant, varying from .0002 to .0003. The value may be taken. If 50° C. be the permissible rise in temperature,

$$C = \sqrt{\frac{.0003 \times 50 \times S}{.24 \times \rho}} = .25 \sqrt{\frac{S}{\rho}}$$

EXAMPLE.—The resistance of the field-magnets of a dynamo is 1.5 ohms cold, and the surface exposed to the air is 1 square metre; find the current to heat it not more than 50° C.

Here $S = 10,000$; $\rho = 1.8$ ohms; and $C = .25 \sqrt{\frac{10,000}{1.8}} = 33.5$ amperes

For the heating of coils of field-magnets Mr. C. Hering gives 1 watt energy dissipated for every 223 square inches of cooling-surface for each degree F. of difference between the temperature of the coil and the surrounding air.

$W = CE = 1/223TS$, in which W = watts lost in coil, degrees Fahr., and S = square-inches.

$C = \frac{TS}{223E}$ is the greatest current which can be used in the magnet of a shunt machine having a certain pressure in order that they do not rise above a certain temperature. Thus for a rise of temperature of 60° F. above the surrounding air,

$$C = \frac{50S}{223E} = .224 \frac{S}{E}. \text{ Substituting for } E \text{ its equivalent } CR, \text{ we get}$$

$$C = \sqrt{.224 \frac{S}{R}}.$$

If 80° F. is the maximum difference of temperature,

$$C = \frac{80S}{223E} = .36 \frac{S}{E} = .60 \sqrt{\frac{S}{R}}.$$

The formula can be used for series machines when C is known, for we

$$C^2R = 1/223TS, \text{ we get } R = \frac{TS}{223C^2}.$$

With a permissible rise of 50° F. or 80° F., we have respectively,

$$R = \frac{.224S}{C^2}; \text{ and } R = \frac{.36S}{C^2}.$$

The surface area of the coil in square inches may be found from

$$S = \frac{223W}{T} = \frac{223CE}{T} = \frac{223C^2R}{T}.$$

50° F. or 80° F., respectively, the surface will

$$.46W; \text{ and } S = \frac{238W}{80} = 2.8W.$$

H. Preece gives a formula for the current-re-
sistent metals, viz.: $C = ad^2$ in which d is the
efficient whose value for different metals is as
follows: platinum 5172; German silver 5296;
1642; lead, 1379; alloy of 2 lead and 1 tin, 1318.

**Wires which will be Fused by a
Given Current.**

42 for tin = 1379 for lead = 10244 for copper =

Lead Wire.		Copper Wire.		Iron Wire.	
Diam. inches.	Approx. S.W. G.	Diam. inches.	Approx. S.W. G.	Diam. inches.	Approx. S.W. G.
.0081	35	.0021	47	.0047	40
.0128	29	.0034	43	.0074	36
.0168	27	.0044	41	.0097	33
.0208	25	.0053	39	.0117	31
.0236	23	.0062	38	.0136	29
.0275	20	.0098	33	.0216	24
.0491	18	.0129	30	.0283	22
.0595	17	.0156	28	.0343	20.5
.0690	15	.0181	26	.0398	19
.0779	14	.0205	25	.0450	18.5
.0864	13.5	.0227	24	.0498	18
.0944	13	.0248	23	.0545	17
.1021	12	.0268	22	.0589	16.5
.1095	11.5	.0288	22	.0632	16
.1237	10	.0325	21	.0714	15
.1371	9.5	.0360	20	.0791	14
.1499	8.5	.0394	19	.0864	13.5
.1621	8	.0426	18.5	.0935	13
.1739	7	.0457	18	.1003	12
.1864	6	.0516	17.5	.1133	11
.2176	5	.0572	17	.1255	10
.2379	4	.0625	16	.1372	9.5
.2573	3	.0676	16	.1484	9
.2760	2	.0725	15	.1592	8
.3203	0	.0841	13.5	.1845	6.5
.3617	00.5	.0950	12.5	.2086	5

**Wires Required to Fuse Wires According
to the Formula $C = ad^2$.**

d^2 .	Tin. $a = 1642$.	Lead $a = 1379$.	Copper $a = 10244$	Iron. $a = 3148$.
22627	37.15	31.30	231.8	71.22
16191	26.58	22.32	165.8	50.96
110516	17.27	14.50	107.7	33.10
90831	11.22	9.419	69.97	21.50
84685	7.692	6.461	48.00	14.75
83263	5.357	4.499	33.43	10.97
82415	3.965	3.330	24.74	"
81801	2.956	2.483	18.44	"
81381	2.267	1.904	14.15	"
81132	1.843	1.548	11.50	"

ELECTRIC TRANSMISSION.

Cross-section of Wire Required for a Given Current Constant Current (Series) System.—The cross-sectional area of copper necessary in any circuit for a given constant current depends on the distance between the pressure at the generating station and the maximum pressure required by all the apparatus on the circuit, and on the total length of the circuit. The following formulæ are given in "Practical Electrical Engineering:"

- If V = pressure in volts at generators;
 v = sum of all the pressures (in volts) required by apparatus supplied in the circuit;
 n = total length (going and return) of circuit in miles;
 C = current in amperes;
 r = resistance of 1 mile of copper-conductor of 1 square inch sectional area in ohms;
 a = required cross-sectional area of copper in square inches,—

$$a = \frac{nrC}{V-v}.$$

If we take the temperature of the conductor when the current has been flowing for some time through it, as 80° F.,

$$r = 0.0455 \text{ ohm, and } a = \frac{0.0455nC}{V-v}.$$

It generally happens, however, that we are not tied down to a particular value of V , as the pressure at the generators can be varied by a few per cent. suit requirements. In this case it is usual to fix upon a current density and determine the cross-sectional area of copper in accordance with it.

If D = current density in amperes per square inch determined upon

$$a = \frac{C}{D}.$$

The current density is frequently taken at 1000 amperes to the square inch, but should in general be determined by economical considerations in every case in question.

Allowable Current Density in Insulated Cables.—Experiments on insulated cables in casing gave the results shown below, but they need confirmation or correction of the current densities permissible in different cases of insulated cables run underground. C and D are the current in amperes and the current density in amperes per square inch, respectively, which raise the temperature of the conductor by the number of degrees indicated by the suffix.

No. of Strands.	S.W.G.* of each Wire.	Area of Strand in square inches.	C_{15}	D_{15}	C_{30}
7	20	0.0072	18	2,500	28
7	14	0.0357	59	1,400	95
19	14	0.0975	126	1,300	205
37	14	0.191	210	1,100	339

Constant Pressure (Parallel System).—To determine the pressure in a feeder of given size in the case of two-wire parallel distribution

Let a = cross-sectional area of copper of one conductor of the feeder in square inches;

n = length of feeder (going and return) in miles;

C = current in amperes;

$V - v$ = loss of pressure in feeder in volts;

r = resistance of 1 mile of copper conductor of 1 square inch sectional area in ohms.

$$V - v = \frac{nrC}{a}.$$

* Standard (British) Wire-gauge.

conductor with this current flowing in it is

$$\text{and } V - v = \frac{0.0455nC}{a}.$$

In the case of a three-wire feeder, let p_1, q_1 , and p_2, q_2 be the outer conductors, and let p', q' represent the middle conductor between the feeding-point and q_1, q', q_2 at the generat-

ing station;
 p_1 and q_1 in volts at feeding-point;
 p_2 and q_2 in volts at feeding-point;
 p' and q' in volts at feeding-point;
 p_1 and q_1 in volts at generating station;
 p_2 and q_2 in volts at generating station;
 p' and q' in volts at generating station;
 n number of copper conductor of 1 square inch sectional

$$\frac{C_2}{a'} \left\{ \right\}; \quad V_2 - v_2 = nr \left\{ \frac{C_2}{a} - \frac{C_1 - C_2}{a'} \right\}.$$

where $v_1 = v_2$, and if C_1 is greater than C_2 , V_1 is greater than V_2 . The pressure in the middle wire; this result shows that the pressure in the circuit with the two outer conductors.

Let a' be the area of the middle conductor; then, if the greatest want of balance between the two outer conductors of the three-wire system is $m\%$ per cent of the heavily loaded section, and if C_1 is the maximum current in the outer conductors of the feeder under consideration, $\left(1 - \frac{m}{100}\right)$, and consequently $C_1 - C_2$ will not be

$$\frac{200 + m}{200} C_1; \quad V_2 - v_2 = \frac{nrC_1}{a} \times \frac{200 - m}{200};$$

where $v_1 = v_2$ —the pressure required to be maintained at the feeding-point—we can calculate V_1 and V_2 for given values of m , which we estimate should be.

It is now shown that the difference in the pressures required at the two sections of a three-wire feeder increases with the length of the feeder; hence the regulators on each of the outer conductors are equivalent to a variable resistance having at least

an area of the middle conductor one half of that of the outer conductors, but this is not invariably the case.

From the law $C = \frac{E}{R}$ it is seen that with any pressure the current becomes very great if R is made very small. In the case of a three-wire feeder, the resistance becomes small and the current therefore great, and the pressure required to circulate a current.

Rule for the most economical section of conductor. (R. G. Blaine, *Eng'g*, June 1890.)

The ratio of m to n may vary from 10 to 25, according to the conditions of the system. The ratio of m to n varies from 10 to 25, according to the conditions of the system. At a certain station supplied by a three-wire system to about 25,000 s.c.p. the maximum current exceeded 7 or 8.

is that for which the "annual interest on capital outlay is equal to annual cost of energy wasted," and its practical outcome is that the copper conductor should be such that its resistance per mile (C being the current in amperes).

Tables have been compiled by Professor Forbes and others in accordance with modifications of Sir W. Thomson's rule. For a given entering power the question is merely one as to what current density, or how many amperes per square inch of conductor, should be employed. Sir W. Thomson's rule gives about 393 amperes per square inch, and Professor Forbes' tables—for a medium cost of one electrical horse-power per hour—current density of about 380 amperes per square inch as most economical.

When a given horse-power is to be delivered at a given distance, it is somewhat different, and Professors Ayrton and Perry (*Electricity*, 1886) have shown that in that case both the current and resistance variables, and that their most economical values may be found from the following formulæ:

$$C = \frac{w}{P}(1 + \sin \phi), \text{ and } r = \frac{I^2 \sin \phi}{nw(1 + \sin \phi)^2},$$

in which C = the proper current in amperes; r = resistance in ohms per mile which should be given to the conductor; P = pressure at entrance in volts; n = number of miles of conductor; w = power delivered in horse-power; ϕ = such an angle that $\tan \phi = nt + P$, t being a constant depending on the price of copper, the cost of one electrical horse-power, interest, &c. may be taken as about 17.

In this case the current density should not remain constant, but it diminishes as the length increases, being in all cases less than that calculated by Sir W. Thomson's rule.

EXAMPLE.—If the current for an electric railway is sent in at 300 volt horse-power being delivered, find the waste of power in heating the conductor, the distance being 5 miles and there being a return conductor. Here $n = 10$, $t = 17$, $P = 300$; $\tan \phi = 170 + 300 = .85$, $\phi = 40^\circ 29'$, $\sin \phi = .6477$.

Hence most economical resistance

$$r = \frac{300^2}{10 \times 74600} \times \frac{.6477}{1.6477^2} = .01279 \text{ ohm per mile,}$$

or .1279 ohm in its total length.

The most economical current, $C = \frac{74600}{300} \times 1.6477 = 614.58$ amperes, &c.

the power wasted in heat, $= \frac{C^2 R}{746} = \frac{614.58^2 \times .1279}{746} = 64.75$ horse-power.

The following tables show the power wasted as heat in the conductor.

HORSE-POWER WASTED IN TRANSMITTING POWER ELECTRICALLY TO A DISTANCE, THE ENTERING POWER BEING FIXED. PRESSURE AT ENTRANCE 300 VOLTS. CURRENT DENSITY, 380 AMPERES PER SQUARE INCH.

Horse-power sent in.*	Horse-power Wasted, the Distance to which the Power is Transmitted being one Mile (there being a Return Conductor).	Horse-power Wasted, the Distance Five Miles.
10	1.663	8.318
20	3.327	16.636
40	6.654	33.27
50	8.318	41.59
80	13.308	66.54
100	16.636	83.18
200	33.272	166.36

*horse-power at the generator terminals.

ENTRANCE, 2000 VOLTS.

Horse-power Wasted. Distance Five Miles.	Horse-power Wasted. Distance Ten Miles.	Horse-power Wasted. Distance Twenty Miles.
8.318	16.636	33.27
16.636	33.272	66.54
33.272	66.54	133.08
41.59	83.18	166.36
66.54	133.08	266.17
83.18	166.36	332.72
166.36	332.72	665.44

numbers that when the current density is fixed is proportional to the entering horse-power and the length inversely proportional to the potential. For a may be simply stated as

$$W = 16.6358 \frac{E}{P} \times l,$$

and P the pressure at entrance, and l the length of

ON ELECTRIC TRANSMISSION TO A GIVEN DISTANCE, DELIVERED AT THE DISTANT END BEING FIXED. PRESSURE 200 VOLTS. CURRENT AND RESISTANCE CALCULATED BY WATTS'S RULES.

Horse-power Wasted. Distance to which Power is Transmitted One Mile (there being a Return Conductor).	Horse-power Wasted. Distance Five Miles.	Horse-power Wasted. Distance Ten Miles.
1.676	6.476	8.620
3.352	12.952	17.24
6.704	25.904	34.48
8.38	32.38	43.10
13.408	51.808	68.96
16.76	64.86	86.20
33.52	129.52	172.4

PRESSURE AT ENTRANCE, 2000 VOLTS.

Horse-power Wasted. Distance One Mile.	Horse-power Wasted. Distance Five Miles.	Horse-power Wasted. Distance Ten Miles.
1.716	8.484	16.763
3.432	16.968	33.526
6.864	33.938	67.052
8.58	42.42	83.815
13.728	67.87	134.104
17.16	84.84	167.63
34.32	169.68	335.26

er sent in, w = power delivered in watts, r = resistance in ohms per mile, P = pressure in volts, l = number of miles of conductor,

$$P^2 + C^2 r^2 + 746 = H; \quad w = 746H - C^2 r^2$$

and the formulae for best current and resistance become

$$C = \frac{746H - C^2 r}{P} (1 + \sin \phi); \quad r = \frac{P^2}{n(746H - C^2 r)} \times \frac{\sin \phi}{1 + \sin \phi}$$

$$\text{Energy wasted as heat in watts per mile} = C^2 r = \frac{746H \sin \phi}{n + \sin \phi}$$

$$\text{Horse-power wasted per mile} = W_1 = \frac{H \sin \phi}{n + \sin \phi}$$

(ϕ = angle whose tangent = $nr + P$, and the value of t corresponding to a current density of 380 amperes per sq. in. is 16.636.)

TABLE OF ELECTRICAL HORSE-POWER

Formula: $\frac{\text{Volts} \times \text{Amperes}}{746} = \text{H.P.}$, or 1 volt-ampere = 0.00134 H.P.

Read amperes at top and volts at side, or vice versa.

Amperes or Volts.	Volts or Amperes.										
	1	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
1	.00134	.0134	.0268	.0402	.0536	.0670	.0804	.0938	.1072	.1206	.1341
2	.00268	.0268	.0536	.0804	.1072	.1341	.1609	.1877	.2145	.2413	.2681
3	.00402	.0402	.0804	.1206	.1609	.2011	.2413	.2815	.3217	.3619	.4021
4	.00536	.0536	.1072	.1609	.2145	.2681	.3217	.3753	.4290	.4826	.5362
5	.00670	.0670	.1341	.2011	.2681	.3351	.4022	.4692	.5362	.6032	.6702
6	.00804	.0804	.1609	.2413	.3217	.4022	.4826	.5630	.6434	.7238	.8042
7	.00938	.0938	.1877	.2815	.3753	.4692	.5630	.6568	.7507	.8445	.9383
8	.01072	.1072	.2145	.3217	.4290	.5362	.6434	.7507	.8579	.9652	1.0724
9	.01206	.1206	.2413	.3619	.4826	.6032	.7239	.8445	.9652	1.0859	1.2066
10	.01341	.1341	.2681	.4022	.5362	.6703	.8043	.9383	1.0724	1.2064	1.3404
11	.01475	.1475	.2949	.4424	.5898	.7373	.8847	1.0321	1.1795	1.3269	1.4743
12	.01609	.1609	.3217	.4826	.6434	.8043	.9652	1.1261	1.2870	1.4479	1.6088
13	.01743	.1743	.3485	.5228	.6970	.8713	1.046	1.220	1.394	1.568	1.743
14	.01877	.1877	.3753	.5630	.7407	.9284	1.116	1.314	1.501	1.689	1.877
15	.02011	.2011	.4022	.6032	.8043	1.005	1.206	1.408	1.609	1.810	2.011
16	.02145	.2145	.4290	.6434	.8579	1.072	1.287	1.501	1.716	1.930	2.145
17	.02279	.2279	.4558	.6837	.9115	1.139	1.367	1.595	1.823	2.051	2.279
18	.02413	.2413	.4826	.7239	.9652	1.206	1.448	1.689	1.930	2.172	2.413
19	.02547	.2547	.5094	.7641	1.019	1.273	1.528	1.783	2.037	2.292	2.547
20	.02681	.2681	.5362	.8043	1.072	1.340	1.609	1.877	2.145	2.413	2.681
21	.02815	.2815	.5630	.8445	1.126	1.408	1.689	1.971	2.252	2.523	2.815
22	.02949	.2949	.5898	.8847	1.180	1.475	1.769	2.064	2.359	2.624	2.949
23	.03083	.3083	.6166	.9249	1.233	1.542	1.850	2.158	2.467	2.775	3.083
24	.03217	.3217	.6434	.9652	1.287	1.609	1.930	2.252	2.574	2.893	3.217
25	.03351	.3351	.6703	1.005	1.341	1.676	2.011	2.346	2.681	3.016	3.351
26	.03485	.3485	.6971	1.046	1.394	1.743	2.091	2.440	2.788	3.137	3.485
27	.03619	.3619	.7239	1.086	1.448	1.810	2.172	2.534	2.895	3.257	3.619
28	.03753	.3753	.7507	1.126	1.501	1.877	2.252	2.627	3.003	3.378	3.753
29	.03887	.3887	.7775	1.166	1.555	1.944	2.332	2.721	3.110	3.499	3.887
30	.04022	.4022	.8043	1.206	1.609	2.011	2.413	2.815	3.217	3.619	4.022
31	.04156	.4156	.8311	1.247	1.662	2.078	2.493	2.909	3.324	3.740	4.156
32	.04290	.4290	.8579	1.287	1.716	2.145	2.574	3.003	3.432	3.861	4.290
33	.04424	.4424	.8847	1.327	1.769	2.212	2.654	3.097	3.539	3.966	4.424
34	.04558	.4558	.9115	1.367	1.823	2.279	2.735	3.189	3.646	4.104	4.558
35	.04692	.4692	.9384	1.408	1.877	2.346	2.815	3.284	3.753	4.223	4.692
36	.04826	.4826	.9652	1.448	1.930	2.413	2.895	3.378	3.861	4.343	4.826
37	.04960	.4960	.9920	1.488	1.984	2.480	2.976	3.472	3.968	4.464	4.960
38	.05094	.5094	1.019	1.528	2.038	2.547	3.056	3.566	4.075	4.583	5.094
39	.05228	.5228	1.046	1.568	2.091	2.614	3.137	3.660	4.182	4.705	5.228
40	.05362	.5362	1.072	1.609	2.145	2.681	3.217	3.753	4.290	4.826	5.362
41	.05496	.5496	1.099	1.649	2.198	2.748	3.298	3.847	4.397	4.948	5.496
42	.05630	.5630	1.126	1.689	2.252	2.815	3.378	3.941	4.504	5.067	5.630
43	.05764	.5764	1.153	1.729	2.306	2.883	3.458	4.035	4.611	5.187	5.764
44	.05898	.5898	1.180	1.769	2.359	2.949	3.539	4.132	4.719	5.308	5.898
45	.06032	.6032	1.206	1.810	2.413	3.016	3.619	4.223	4.826	5.429	6.032
46	.06166	.6166	1.233	1.850	2.467	3.083	3.700	4.316	4.933	5.550	6.166
47	.06300	.6300	1.260	1.890	2.520	3.150	3.780	4.410	5.040	5.670	6.300
48	.06434	.6434	1.287	1.930	2.574	3.217	3.861	4.504	5.148	5.791	6.434
49	.06568	.6568	1.314	1.970	2.627	3.284	3.941	4.598	5.255	5.912	6.568
50	.06702	.6702	1.341	2.011	2.681	3.351	4.022	4.692	5.362	6.032	6.702

ELECTRICAL HORSE-POWERS—(Continued.)

Volts or Amperes.

	40	50	60	70	80	90	100	110	120
	2.949	3.686	4.424	5.161	5.898	6.635	7.373	8.110	8.847
	3.217	4.022	4.826	5.630	6.434	7.239	8.043	8.847	9.652
	3.485	4.357	5.228	6.099	6.970	7.842	8.713	9.584	10.46
	3.753	4.692	5.630	6.568	7.507	8.445	9.384	10.32	11.26
	4.021	5.027	6.032	7.037	8.043	9.048	10.05	11.06	12.06
	4.290	5.362	6.434	7.507	8.579	9.652	10.72	11.80	12.87
	4.558	5.697	6.836	7.976	9.115	10.26	11.39	12.53	13.67
	4.826	6.032	7.239	8.445	9.652	10.86	12.06	13.27	14.48
	5.094	6.367	7.641	8.914	10.18	11.46	12.73	14.01	15.28
	5.362	6.703	8.043	9.384	10.72	12.06	13.41	14.75	16.09
	10.72	13.41	16.09	18.77	21.45	24.13	26.81	29.49	32.17
	16.09	20.11	24.13	28.15	32.17	36.19	40.22	44.24	48.26
	21.45	26.81	32.17	37.53	42.90	48.26	53.62	58.98	64.34
	26.81	33.61	40.22	46.92	53.62	60.32	67.03	73.73	80.43
	32.17	40.22	48.26	56.30	64.34	72.39	80.43	88.47	96.52
5	37.53	46.92	56.30	65.68	75.07	84.45	93.84	103.2	112.6
7	42.90	53.62	64.34	75.07	85.79	96.52	107.2	118.0	128.7
9	48.26	60.32	72.39	84.45	96.52	108.6	120.6	132.7	144.8
12	53.62	67.03	80.43	93.84	107.2	120.6	134.1	147.5	160.9
15	59.00	73.73	88.47	103.2	118.0	132.7	147.5	160.9	175.3
18	64.34	80.43	96.52	112.6	128.7	144.8	160.9	175.3	190.3
21	69.70	87.13	104.6	122.0	139.6	155.8	171.3	186.8	201.8
24	75.07	93.84	112.6	131.5	149.5	166.8	181.3	196.8	213.3
27	80.43	100.55	120.6	140.9	159.4	177.8	192.3	207.8	224.8
30	85.79	107.2	128.7	150.4	169.3	188.8	202.8	218.3	236.3
33	91.15	113.9	136.8	159.9	179.2	199.8	213.3	228.8	247.8
36	96.52	120.6	144.8	169.4	189.1	210.8	223.8	239.3	259.3
39	101.88	127.3	152.8	178.9	199.0	221.8	234.3	250.3	270.8
42	107.2	134.1	160.9	188.4	208.9	232.8	244.8	261.3	282.3
45	112.6	140.9	169.4	197.9	218.8	243.8	255.3	272.3	293.8
48	118.0	147.5	177.4	207.4	228.7	254.8	265.8	283.3	305.3
51	123.4	154.2	185.9	216.9	238.6	265.8	276.3	294.3	316.8
54	128.8	160.9	194.4	226.4	248.5	276.8	286.8	305.3	328.3
57	134.2	167.6	202.9	235.9	258.4	287.8	297.3	316.3	339.8
60	139.6	174.3	211.4	245.4	268.3	298.8	307.8	327.3	351.3
63	145.0	181.0	219.9	254.9	278.2	309.8	318.3	338.3	362.8
66	150.4	187.7	228.4	264.4	288.1	320.8	328.8	349.3	374.3
69	155.8	194.4	236.9	273.9	298.0	331.8	339.3	360.3	385.8
72	161.2	201.1	245.4	283.4	307.9	342.8	349.8	371.3	397.3
75	166.6	207.8	253.9	292.9	317.8	353.8	360.3	382.3	408.8
78	172.0	214.5	262.4	302.4	327.7	364.8	370.8	393.3	420.3
81	177.4	221.2	270.9	311.9	337.6	375.8	381.3	404.3	431.8
84	182.8	227.9	279.4	321.4	347.5	386.8	391.8	415.3	443.3
87	188.2	234.6	287.9	330.9	357.4	397.8	402.3	426.3	454.8
90	193.6	241.3	296.4	340.4	367.3	408.8	412.8	437.3	466.3
93	199.0	248.0	304.9	349.9	377.2	419.8	423.3	448.3	477.8
96	204.4	254.7	313.4	359.4	387.1	430.8	433.8	459.3	489.3
99	209.8	261.4	321.9	368.9	397.0	441.8	444.3	470.3	500.8
102	215.2	268.1	330.4	378.4	406.9	452.8	454.8	481.3	512.3
105	220.6	274.8	338.9	387.9	416.8	463.8	465.3	492.3	523.8
108	226.0	281.5	347.4	397.4	426.7	474.8	475.8	503.3	535.3
111	231.4	288.2	355.9	406.9	436.6	485.8	486.3	514.3	546.8
114	236.8	294.9	364.4	416.4	446.5	496.8	496.8	525.3	558.3
117	242.2	301.6	372.9	425.9	456.4	507.8	507.3	536.3	569.8
120	247.6	308.3	381.4	435.4	466.3	518.8	517.8	547.3	581.3
123	253.0	315.0	389.9	444.9	476.2	529.8	528.3	558.3	592.8
126	258.4	321.7	398.4	454.4	486.1	540.8	538.8	569.3	604.3
129	263.8	328.4	406.9	463.9	496.0	551.8	549.3	580.3	615.8
132	269.2	335.1	415.4	473.4	505.9	562.8	559.8	591.3	627.3
135	274.6	341.8	423.9	482.9	515.8	573.8	570.3	602.3	638.8
138	280.0	348.5	432.4	492.4	525.7	584.8	580.8	613.3	650.3
141	285.4	355.2	440.9	501.9	535.6	595.8	591.3	624.3	661.8
144	290.8	361.9	449.4	511.4	545.5	606.8	601.8	635.3	673.3
147	296.2	368.6	457.9	520.9	555.4	617.8	612.3	646.3	684.8
150	301.6	375.3	466.4	530.4	565.3	628.8	622.8	657.3	696.3
153	307.0	382.0	474.9	539.9	575.2	639.8	633.3	668.3	707.8
156	312.4	388.7	483.4	549.4	585.1	650.8	643.8	679.3	719.3
159	317.8	395.4	491.9	558.9	595.0	661.8	654.3	690.3	730.8
162	323.2	402.1	500.4	568.4	604.9	672.8	664.8	701.3	742.3
165	328.6	408.8	508.9	577.9	614.8	683.8	675.3	712.3	753.8
168	334.0	415.5	517.4	587.4	624.7	694.8	685.8	723.3	765.3
171	339.4	422.2	525.9	596.9	634.6	705.8	696.3	734.3	776.8
174	344.8	428.9	534.4	606.4	644.5	716.8	706.8	745.3	788.3
177	350.2	435.6	542.9	615.9	654.4	727.8	717.3	756.3	799.8
180	355.6	442.3	551.4	625.4	664.3	738.8	727.8	767.3	811.3
183	361.0	449.0	559.9	634.9	674.2	749.8	738.3	778.3	822.8
186	366.4	455.7	568.4	644.4	684.1	760.8	748.8	789.3	834.3
189	371.8	462.4	576.9	653.9	694.0	771.8	759.3	800.3	845.8
192	377.2	469.1	585.4	663.4	703.9	782.8	769.8	811.3	857.3
195	382.6	475.8	593.9	672.9	713.8	793.8	780.3	822.3	868.8
198	388.0	482.5	602.4	682.4	723.7	804.8	790.8	833.3	880.3
201	393.4	489.2	610.9	691.9	733.6	815.8	801.3	844.3	891.8
204	398.8	495.9	619.4	701.4	743.5	826.8	811.8	855.3	903.3
207	404.2	502.6	627.9	710.9	753.4	837.8	822.3	866.3	914.8
210	409.6	509.3	636.4	720.4	763.3	848.8	832.8	877.3	926.3
213	415.0	516.0	644.9	729.9	773.2	859.8	843.3	888.3	937.8
216	420.4	522.7	653.4	739.4	783.1	870.8	853.8	899.3	949.3
219	425.8	529.4	661.9	748.9	793.0	881.8	864.3	910.3	960.8
222	431.2	536.1	670.4	758.4	802.9	892.8	874.8	921.3	972.3
225	436.6	542.8	678.9	767.9	812.8	903.8	885.3	932.3	983.8
228	442.0	549.5	687.4	777.4	822.7	914.8	895.8	943.3	995.3
231	447.4	556.2	695.9	786.9	832.6	925.8	906.3	954.3	1006.8
234	452.8	562.9	704.4	796.4	842.5	936.8	916.8	965.3	1018.3
237	458.2	569.6	712.9	805.9	852.4	947.8	927.3	976.3	1029.8
240	463.6	576.3	721.4	815.4	862.3	958.8	937.8	987.3	1041.3
243	469.0	583.0	729.9	824.9	872.2	969.8	948.3	998.3	1052.8
246	474.4	589.7	738.4	834.4	882.1	980.8	958.8	1009.3	1064.3
249	479.8	596.4	746.9	843.9	892.0	991.8	969.3	1020.3	1075.8
252	485.2	603.1	755.4	853.4	901.9	1002.8	979.8	1031.3	1087.3
255	490.6	609.8	763.9	862.9	911.8	1013.8	990.3	1042.3	1098.8
258	496.0	616.5	772.4	872.4	921.7	1024.8	1000.8	1053.3	1110.3
261	501.4	623.2	780.9	881.9	931.6	1035.8	1011.3	1064.3	1121.8
264	506.8	629.9	789.4	891.4	941.5	1046.8	1021.8	1075.3	1133.3
267	512.2	636.6	797.9	900.9	951.4	1057.8	1032.3	1086.3	1144.8
270	517.6	643.3	806.4	910.4	961.3	1068.8	1042.8	1097.3	1156.3
273	523.0	650.0	814.9	919.9	971.2	1079.8	1053.3	1108.3	1167.8
276	528.4	656.7	823.4	929.4	981.1	1090.8	1063.8	1119.3	1179.3
279	533.8	663.4	831.9	938.9	991.0	1101.8	1074.3	1130.3	1190.8
282	539.2	670.1	840.4	948.4	1000.9	1112.8	1084.8	1141.3	1202.3
285	544.6	676.8	848.9	957.9	1010.8	1123.8	1095.3	1152.3	1213.8
288	550.0	683.5	857.4	967.4	1020.7	1134.8	1105.8	1163.3	1225.3
291	555.4	690.2	865.9	976.9	1030.6	1145.8	1116.3	1174.3	1236.8
294	560.8	696.9	874.4	986.4	1040.5	1156.8	1126.8	1185.3	1248.3
297	566.2	703.6	882.9	995.9	1050.4	1167.8	1137.3	1196.3	1259.8
300	571.6	710.3	891.4	1005.4	1060.3	1178.8	1147.8	1207.3	1271.3

The wire table on the following page (from a circular of E. Mfg. Co.) shows at a glance the size of wire necessary for any given current over a known distance with a drop of 5% at 100 volts, for 100-volt and 500-volt circuits, with varying current, the size of wire which this table has been calculated is

$$\frac{D \times 1000}{C \times 2L} = R,$$

where D is the diameter of wire, L the length of wire, C the current, R the resistance of wire, and R the line resistance per foot.

and the formulæ for best current and resistance become

$$C = \frac{746H - C^2r}{P} (1 + \sin \phi); \quad r = \frac{P^2}{n(746H - C^2r)} \times \frac{\sin \phi}{1 + \sin \phi}$$

$$\text{Energy wasted as heat in watts per mile} = C^2r = \frac{746H \sin \phi}{n + \sin \phi}$$

$$\text{Horse-power wasted per mile} = W_s = \frac{H \sin \phi}{n + \sin \phi}$$

(ϕ = angle whose tangent = $nt + P$, and the value of t corresponding to a current density of 380 amperes per sq. in. is 16.636.)

TABLE OF ELECTRICAL HORSE-POWERS.

Formula: $\frac{\text{Volts} \times \text{Amperes}}{746} = \text{H.P.}$, or 1 volt-ampere = .0013405 H.P.

Read amperes at top and volts at side, or vice versa.

Amperes or Volts.	Volts or Amperes.												
	1	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100	110	120
1	.00154	.0124	.0298	.0492	.0536	.0570	.0604	.0638	.0672	.0706	.0740	.0774	.0808
2	.00268	.0268	.0536	.0804	.1072	.1341	.1609	.1877	.2145	.2413	.2681	.2949	.3217
3	.00402	.0402	.0804	.1206	.1609	.2011	.2413	.2815	.3217	.3619	.4022	.4424	.4826
4	.00536	.0536	.1072	.1609	.2145	.2681	.3217	.3753	.4290	.4826	.5362	.5898	.6434
5	.00670	.0670	.1341	.2011	.2681	.3351	.4022	.4692	.5362	.6032	.6702	.7372	.8042
6	.00804	.0804	.1609	.2413	.3217	.4022	.4826	.5630	.6434	.7238	.8042	.8846	.9650
7	.00938	.0938	.1877	.2815	.3753	.4692	.5630	.6568	.7507	.8445	.9384	1.0322	1.1260
8	.01072	.1072	.2145	.3217	.4290	.5362	.6434	.7507	.8579	.9652	1.0724	1.1796	1.2868
9	.01206	.1206	.2413	.3619	.4826	.6032	.7239	.8445	.9652	1.0858	1.2064	1.3270	1.4476
10	.01341	.1341	.2681	.4022	.5362	.6702	.8043	.9383	1.0723	1.2064	1.3404	1.4744	1.6084
11	.01475	.1475	.2949	.4424	.5898	.7373	.8847	1.0322	1.1796	1.3270	1.4744	1.6218	1.7692
12	.01609	.1609	.3217	.4826	.6434	.8043	.9652	1.1261	1.2870	1.4479	1.6088	1.7697	1.9306
13	.01743	.1743	.3485	.5228	.6970	.8713	1.0456	1.2200	1.3944	1.5687	1.7431	1.9174	2.0917
14	.01877	.1877	.3753	.5630	.7507	.9384	1.1261	1.3144	1.5027	1.6910	1.8793	2.0676	2.2559
15	.02011	.2011	.4022	.6032	.8043	1.005	1.206	1.408	1.609	1.810	2.011	2.212	2.413
16	.02145	.2145	.4290	.6434	.8579	1.072	1.287	1.501	1.716	1.930	2.145	2.359	2.573
17	.02279	.2279	.4558	.6837	.9115	1.139	1.367	1.595	1.823	2.051	2.279	2.507	2.735
18	.02413	.2413	.4826	.7239	.9652	1.206	1.448	1.689	1.930	2.172	2.413	2.654	2.895
19	.02547	.2547	.5094	.7611	1.019	1.273	1.528	1.783	2.037	2.292	2.547	2.801	3.056
20	.02681	.2681	.5362	.8043	1.072	1.340	1.609	1.877	2.145	2.413	2.681	2.949	3.217
21	.02815	.2815	.5630	.8445	1.126	1.408	1.689	1.971	2.252	2.533	2.815	3.097	3.378
22	.02949	.2949	.5898	.8847	1.180	1.475	1.759	2.064	2.359	2.654	2.949	3.244	3.539
23	.03083	.3083	.6166	.9249	1.233	1.542	1.850	2.158	2.467	2.775	3.083	3.391	3.700
24	.03217	.3217	.6434	.9652	1.287	1.609	1.930	2.252	2.574	2.895	3.217	3.539	3.860
25	.03351	.3351	.6702	1.005	1.341	1.676	2.011	2.346	2.681	3.016	3.351	3.686	4.022
26	.03485	.3485	.6971	1.046	1.394	1.743	2.091	2.440	2.788	3.137	3.485	3.834	4.182
27	.03619	.3619	.7239	1.086	1.448	1.810	2.172	2.534	2.895	3.257	3.619	3.981	4.343
28	.03753	.3753	.7507	1.136	1.501	1.877	2.252	2.627	3.003	3.378	3.753	4.129	4.504
29	.03887	.3887	.7776	1.166	1.553	1.944	2.332	2.721	3.110	3.499	3.887	4.276	4.666
30	.04022	.4022	.8043	1.206	1.609	2.011	2.413	2.815	3.217	3.619	4.022	4.424	4.826
31	.04156	.4156	.8311	1.247	1.662	2.078	2.493	2.909	3.324	3.740	4.156	4.571	4.987
32	.04290	.4290	.8579	1.287	1.716	2.145	2.574	3.003	3.432	3.861	4.290	4.719	5.143
33	.04424	.4424	.8847	1.327	1.769	2.212	2.654	3.097	3.539	3.986	4.424	4.866	5.308
34	.04558	.4558	.9115	1.367	1.823	2.279	2.735	3.190	3.646	4.102	4.558	5.013	5.489
35	.04692	.4692	.9384	1.408	1.877	2.346	2.815	3.284	3.753	4.223	4.692	5.161	5.639
36	.04826	.4826	.9652	1.448	1.930	2.413	2.895	3.378	3.861	4.343	4.826	5.308	5.796
37	.04960	.4960	.9920	1.488	1.984	2.480	2.976	3.472	3.968	4.464	4.960	5.456	5.955
38	.05094	.5094	1.019	1.528	2.038	2.547	3.056	3.566	4.076	4.585	5.094	5.603	6.113
39	.05228	.5228	1.046	1.568	2.091	2.614	3.137	3.660	4.182	4.705	5.228	5.751	6.273
40	.05362	.5362	1.072	1.609	2.145	2.681	3.217	3.753	4.290	4.826	5.362	5.898	6.434
41	.05496	.5496	1.099	1.649	2.198	2.748	3.298	3.847	4.397	4.946	5.496	6.046	6.59
42	.05630	.5630	1.126	1.689	2.252	2.815	3.378	3.941	4.504	5.067	5.630	6.193	6.749
43	.05764	.5764	1.153	1.729	2.306	2.882	3.458	4.035	4.611	5.187	5.764	6.341	6.903
44	.05898	.5898	1.180	1.769	2.359	2.949	3.539	4.129	4.719	5.308	5.898	6.488	7.031
45	.06032	.6032	1.206	1.810	2.413	3.016	3.630	4.223	4.836	5.439	6.032	6.635	7.179
46	.06166	.6166	1.233	1.850	2.467	3.083	3.700	4.316	4.935	5.550	6.166	6.783	7.327
47	.06300	.6300	1.260	1.890	2.520	3.150	3.780	4.410	5.040	5.670	6.300	6.920	7.540
48	.06434	.6434	1.287	1.930	2.574	3.217	3.861	4.504	5.145	5.791	6.434	7.071	7.71
49	.06568	.6568	1.314	1.970	2.627	3.284	3.941	4.598	5.255	5.912	6.568	7.225	7.887
50	.06702	.6702	1.341	2.011	2.681	3.351	4.022	4.682	5.362	6.032	6.702	7.373	8.042

When the efficiency of a motor being given, the size of the conductor can be found from the following formula:

$$\frac{10,400,000 \times \text{H.P.} \times L}{aE^2 \times \text{efficiency}}$$

where a = area of conductor in square inches; E = voltage, 500; drop, 3%; feed to distributing center, 75%.

Therefore, $a = 17,109$ circular mils, or about No. 8 B. & S.

For Long-distance Transmission.

(Designed by the Westinghouse El. & Mfg. Co.)

FOR THE DELIVERY OF ONE MECHANICAL HORSE-POWER AT 1000, 3000, 5000, AND 10,000 VOLTS AT TERMINALS OF LOWERING TRANSFORMERS.

Percentage of voltage drop (drop), equals 20%.

Efficiency, 75%.

Length of single distance, 11,000 feet, to allow for sag and weight of conductors per pound.

3000 v.	4000 v.	5000 v.	10,000 v.
\$0.23	\$0.13	\$0.08	\$0.02
0.93	0.52	0.33	0.08
2.08	1.17	0.75	0.19
3.70	2.08	1.33	0.33
5.78	3.25	2.08	0.52
8.32	4.68	3.00	0.75
11.30	6.37	4.08	1.01
14.80	8.33	5.33	1.33
18.70	10.50	6.74	1.69
23.14	13.01	8.33	2.08
28.00	15.75	10.08	2.52
33.30	18.70	12.00	3.00
39.00	22.00	14.08	3.52
45.30	25.50	16.32	4.08
52.00	29.25	18.72	4.68
59.00	33.30	21.32	5.33
67.00	37.60	24.00	6.00
75.00	42.20	27.00	6.75
83.50	47.00	30.00	7.50
92.60	52.00	33.32	8.33

Method of calculating leads for wiring for electric lighting is given by Hering in Trans. A. I. E. E., 1891. He furnishes sets of diagonal straight-line diagrams so constructed that the general formula for wiring may be found by simply locating three points in succession on the diagram.

The principle upon which the chart is based is that for any variable quantities, one of which is the product of the other two, the "curves" representing their relative values may be represented by a series of straight diagonal lines or zero-point. Such a set of lines will therefore represent calculations graphically for that formula. For example, if V = volts, I = amperes, the constant 746 does not concern the diagonal lines properly spaced will therefore represent horse-power, the volts, or the amperes, when the other horizontal, and the diagonal lines are spaced at one unit for a number of units.

The diagram consists of a set of straight lines the diagonals of which are spaced at one unit for a number of units.

COST OF COPPER REQUIRED TO DELIVER ONE MECHANICAL HORSE-POWER MOTOR-SHAFT WITH VARYING PERCENTAGES OF LOSS IN CONDUCTORS IN THE ASSUMPTION THAT THE POTENTIAL AT MOTOR TERMINALS IS IN EACH CASE 3000 VOLTS.

Distances equal one to twenty miles.

Motor efficiency equals 90%.

Length of conductor per mile of single distance, 11,000 feet, to allow sag.

Cost of copper equals 16 cents per pound.

Miles.	10%	15%	20%	25%	30%
1	\$0.52	\$0.33	\$0.23	\$0.17	\$0.12
2	2.08	1.31	0.93	0.69	0.51
3	4.68	2.95	2.08	1.55	1.21
4	8.32	5.25	3.70	2.77	2.15
5	13.00	8.30	5.78	4.33	3.33
6	18.70	11.75	8.32	6.23	4.80
7	25.50	16.00	11.30	8.45	6.60
8	33.30	21.00	14.80	11.00	8.60
9	42.30	26.60	18.75	14.00	10.90
10	52.05	32.78	23.14	17.31	13.50
11	63.00	39.75	28.00	21.00	16.30
12	75.00	47.30	33.30	24.90	19.40
13	88.00	55.30	39.00	29.20	22.80
14	102.00	64.20	45.30	33.90	26.40
15	117.00	73.75	52.00	38.90	30.30
16	133.00	83.80	59.00	44.30	34.50
17	150.00	94.75	67.00	50.00	39.00
18	169.00	106.00	75.00	56.30	43.80
19	188.00	118.00	83.50	62.50	48.70
20	208.00	131.00	92.60	69.25	54.00

to represent one of the two quantities which is equal to the quotient of the other two, and not the one which is equal to the product of the other two because the curves would then be hyperbolas. In the example given the diagonals must represent volts or amperes, but not horse-powers. The constants in such formulæ affect only the positions of the diagonals; although they increase considerably the work of arithmetically calculating the result they do not affect in the least the graphical calculations after the diagram are once drawn.

The general formula for wiring is :

$$\text{Cross-section} = \frac{\text{current for one lamp} \times \text{No. of lamps} \times \text{distance} \times \text{constant}}{\text{loss in volts}}$$

containing six quantities only, one of which is always constant, being equal to twice the mil-foot resistance of copper, if the cross-section is in circular mils. Calculations involving three of these five quantities may readily be made graphically by means of a single set of diagonal lines.

In Mr. Hering's method the formula is split up into three smaller ones each of which contains no more than three variable quantities. Each formula can then be calculated separately by a simple diagram, as described, thus permitting the whole formula to be calculated graphically.

To do this, let the first diagram perform the calculation,

$$x = \frac{\text{current for one lamp}}{\text{loss in volts}},$$

in which x is a mere auxiliary quantity. Let a second similar diagram perform the next calculation,

$$y = x \times \text{number of lamps};$$

and a third diagram perform the final calculation,

$$\text{cross-section} = y \times \text{distance}.$$

combined with any one of these, it is immaterial what position may at first seem to complicate matters. The quantities, x and y . These, however, are easily arranged by placing the three diagrams together, side by side, so that the two x scales coincide, and similarly the two y scales. It is one has merely to pass directly from one set of diagrams to the other to perform the successive steps of the calculation, without the intermediate auxiliary quantities. These diagrams correspond, and are equal to the successive products obtained in the successive arithmetical multiplications of the five quantities in the formula, which cannot, of course, be made by making the calculations arithmetically.

Formula required for Long-distance Transmission (Trans. Tech. Socy. of the Pacific Coast, vol. 1, p. 100). The following formula:

$$V = \frac{D^2}{E^2} \text{H.P.} \frac{(100 - L)}{L} 266.5,$$

where V is the weight of copper wire in pounds; D , the distance in miles; E , the voltage in hundreds of volts; H.P., the horse-power required; and L , the per cent of line loss.

For example, for a horse-power ten miles with 10 per cent loss, and a voltage of 100, we have

$$\times 200 \times \frac{(100 - 10)}{10} \times 266.5 = 53,300 \text{ lbs.}$$

Long-distance Transmission. (F. R. Hart, *Trans. Tech. Socy. of the Pacific Coast*, vol. 1, p. 100). The mechanical efficiency of a system is the ratio of the output to the input of dynamo-electric machines at one end of the line to the output of the electric motors at the distant end. The commercial efficiency of a system varies with its load. The maximum efficiency should not be under 90% and is seldom above 95% under favorable conditions, then, we must expect a loss of 5% in the motor. The loss in transmission, due to the resistance of the line, or "drop" in the line, is governed by the size of the conductors and the conditions remaining the same. For a long-distance transmission, the efficiency will vary from 5% upwards. With a loss of 5% in the transmission will be slightly under 75%. We may expect the efficiency of the apparatus of to-day to be about 80%. Long-distance power transmission by electricity may be divided into three general classes: (1) Those using continuous current; (2) those using alternating current; and (3) regenerating or "motor-dynamo" systems. The efficiencies of each of these general classes are tabulated as follows:

Low voltage	}	One machine.
		Machines in parallel.
High voltage	}	One machine.
		Machines in parallel.
Wire	}	Machines in series.
		2 machines in series.
		Machines in multiple series.
Using single phase	}	Machines in series.
		Without conversions.
Using multiphase	}	With conversions.
		Without conversions.
Using continuous current	}	With conversions.
		Without conversions.
Using converter; line converter; alternating continuous.		With conversions.
Using continuous-current.		Without conversions.
Using reconversion of any system.		With conversions.

The efficiencies of these systems vary with each particular case, but a general way may be tabulated as follows:

	System.	Advantages.	Disadvantages.
Continuous.	2-wire { Low voltage. High voltage.	Safety, simplicity.	Expense for copper.
		Economy, simplicity.	Danger, difficulty building machines.
	3-wire.	Low voltage on machines and saving in copper.	Not saving enough copper for long tances. Necessity "balanced" system.
	Multiple-wire.	Low voltage at machines and saving in copper.	
Alternating.	Single phase.	Economy of copper.	Cannot start under low efficiency.
	Multiphase.	Economy of copper, synchronous speed unnecessary; applicable to very long distances.	Complexity. Lower efficiency of terminals apparatus. Not as "standard."
	Motor-dynamo.	High-voltage transmission. Low-voltage delivery.	Expensive. Low efficiency.

There are many factors which govern the selection of a system. For a problem considered there will be found certain fixed and certain variable conditions. In general the fixed factors are: (1) capacity of source; (2) cost of power at source; (3) cost of power by other means at point of delivery; (4) danger considerations at motors; (5) operation conditions; (6) construction conditions (length of line, character of country, etc.). The partly fixed conditions are: (7) power which must be delivered, i.e., the efficiency of the system; (8) size and number of delivery units. The variable conditions are: (9) initial voltage; (10) pounds of copper on line; (11) original cost of all apparatus and construction; (12) expenses, operating (for charges, interest, depreciation, taxes, insurance, etc.); (13) liability of trouble and stoppages; (14) danger at station and on line; (15) convenience in operating, making changes, extensions, etc. Assuming that the cost of dynamos, motors, etc., will be approximately the same whatever the line pressure, the great variation in the cost of wire at different pressures, shown by Mr. Hart in the following figures, giving the weights of copper required for transmitting 100 horse-power 5 miles:

Voltage.	Drop 10 per cent.	Drop 20 per cent.
2,000	16,800 lbs.	8,400 lbs.
2,000	7,400 "	3,700 "
10,000	620 "	310 "

Efficiency of a Combined Engine and Dynamo.—A compound double-crank Willans engine mounted on a single base with dynamo of the Edison-Hopkinson type was tested in 1890, with results follows: The low-pressure cylinder is 14 in. diam., 16 in. stroke; steam pressure 120 lbs. It is coupled to a dynamo constructed for an output of 100 amperes at 110 volts when driven at 430 revolutions per minute. The armature is of the bar construction, is plain shunt-wound, and is fitted with commutator of hard-drawn copper with mica insulation. Four brushes are carried on each rocker-arm.

Resistance of magnets	16.	ohms.
Resistance of armature	0.0085	"
I.H.P.	83.3	"
E.H.P.	72.2	"
Total efficiency	86.7	per cent.
Consumption of water per I.H.P. hour	21.6	pounds
Consumption of water per E.H.P. hour	25	"

The engine and dynamo were worked above their full normal output which fact would tend to slightly increase the efficiency. The electrical losses were: Loss in magnet coils, 756 watts, equal to 1.1 per cent. of the output; Loss in dynamo, 1,386 watts, equal to 2.65; so that the electrical efficiency

assistance alone was 96%. The remainder of se-power, is due to friction of engine and e.

Generator and Motor.—A twelve-Bodie, Cal., is described by T. H. Leggett gle-phase alternating current is used. The 0 K. W. constant-potential 12-pole machine.

The motor is a synchronous constant-power. It is brought up to speed by a 10-H.P. the electrical efficiency of the generator and ts:

TEST ON GENERATOR.

	Amperes	Volts.	Watts.
.....	15.8	60	948
.....	18.2	78	1419.6
.....			664.72
.....			3082.32
.....	20	3414	68280

efficiency of generator, 95.550%.

TEST ON MOTOR.

	Amperes	Volts.	Watts.
.....	52	62.4	3244.8
.....			560.0
.....			3804.08
.....	20	3110	62200

al efficiency of motor, 93.883%.

Electrical Pumping-plant. (*Eng. & M.* ig-plant at a mine at Normanton, England, elow:

of 30 $\frac{1}{4}$ \times 48-in. engines running at 20 revs. per ps giving 690 volts and 59 amperes. The ured into the mine by an insulated cable about onected to two 50-h.p. motors which oper-umps, with rams 6 in. and 4 $\frac{1}{4}$ in. diam. and gainst which the pumps operate is 890 feet. s there is also a set of gearing for driving a rope system, and a set of three-throw ram- inch stroke can also be thrown into gear. at either motor can operate any or all three escribed. Indicator-diagrams gave the fol-

.....	6.9 H.P.	9.4%
.....	4.8 "	6.5%
.....	6.7 "	9.4%
.....	umps empty.....	10.2 " 14.0%
.....	gh 890 feet.....	31.5 " 43.1%
.....	nd rising main.....	12.9 " 17.6%
	<u>73.0 H.P.</u>	<u>100.0%</u>

ere obtained the total efficiency of the plant ose to 47%.

Distribution.—Kapp, Electric T ransmission Handbook; Martin an' olications; Hospitalier, Polyphase

ere the load is spasmodic, with variations at most but a few minutes. The stored heat rous in quantity, and responds instantly to a to say, the boiler is an immense reservoir of ain upon it is not continued too long, it will its nominal capacity, and without any effect

t will depend upon the type of engine. With ed by Mr. Church, running non-condensing, an ter actually evaporated per I.H.P. per hour will encies. The engine duty under an average un- ifthing from the duty under a variable load rep- Under the uniform load, 23 pounds of water performance, and the boiler could be propor- figure. Under the violent fluctuations of rail- ty of the engine will rise to about 28 pounds, f load is taken, and the boiler proportioned for efficient margin. Other compound engines not h secures uniformity of duty will range up to at loads, and often to 60 pounds, and represent an an 35 to 40 pounds. The same is true of every engine, whether high speed or low speed, both of falling back of fuel duty under variable load.

ELECTRIC LIGHTING.

y required to produce Light.—Accord- ily of energy, measured in watts, required to pro- candle-power, measured by the light given out s follows for different light-giving substances:

4 watts	Coal gas.....	68 watts.
4 "	Cannel gas.....	48 "
5 "	Incandescent lamp..	15 "
6 "	Arc lamp.....	3 "
7 "		

roduction are about 1 for the arc lamp; 6 for the e mineral-oil lamp; 10 for the gas-light; 67 for the

at Lamps. (*Eng'g*, Sept. 1, 1893, p. 282.)—From srs. Siemens and Halske, Berlin, it appears that cent lamps at different expenditure of watts per

wer.....	1.5	2	2.5	3	3.5
.....	45	200	450	1000	1000

y Tests of Lamps. (P. G. Gossler, *Elec*, mpms burning at a voltage above that for which a greater illuminating power than 16 candles, but is very considerably shortened. It has been ob- from the factory do not average the same candle- ferent invoices; that is, lamps which are received quite uniform throughout that lot, but they vary made at other times.

ow the different illuminating-powers of a 16.c.p., arious voltages from 25 to 80 volts:

50	52.5	55.6	59.5	63	68.2	72.5	80
1.055	1.097	1.161	1.226	1.29	1.419	1.484	1.58
15.8	20.5	28.4	39.3	50.7	74.5	103.2	141
52.73	57.57	64.55	73.92	79.98	96.78	105	
3.34	2.81	2.30	1.96	1.58	1.36		

t. Robinson, M L.C.E., *Eng'g News*, arc-lamp is the most economical.

minating-power of an arc. It is now gener-
ally used for currents of 10 amperes and not less than 45 volts between

The quality of the carbons will determine
the length of the arc, and the most light or not, or
the maximum intensity at one angle or another.
The longer the current passing in an arc, the less is
the resistance. Arcs with 4 amperes will have about 11 ohms,
and with 100 amperes .45 ohm.

When 50 to 60 lights in a series, each demanding
a current of, say, 3000 volts. In going beyond this the
resistance greatly increased.

Electric Lighting.—Noll, How to Wire
Continental Electric-light Central Stations, \$6.00;
Electric Transformers in Theory and Practice, 2 vols.,
Electric Lighting, \$1.50; Algae and Bouliard,
Electric Lighting, and Application, \$5.00.

TRIC WELDING.

Generally used consists of an alternating-current
transformer, the secondary of which is made so
short in length as to supply to the work currents
of 100 to 200 volts, and of very large volume or rate of flow.
Attached to the secondary terminals. Other forms
of transformers constructed to yield alternating currents
are used to the welding-clamps, are used to a limited

extent. The heat of the metal to be welded has a decided influ-
ence on the welding iron from its comparatively low heat conduc-
tivity. (See papers by Sir F. Bramwell, Proc.
Inst. E. E. C., vol. 1, p. 1; and Elihu Thomson, Trans. A. I. M. E., xix.

Engineering, Nov. 28, 1893, gives the following figures show-
ing the time and power required to weld axles and tires:

AXLE-WELDING.

	Seconds.
requires 25 H.P. for.....	45
requires 30 H.P. for.....	48
requires 35 H.P. for.....	60
requires 40 H.P. for.....	70
requires 55 H.P. for.....	95
requires 90 H.P. for.....	100

The time and power required for welding the square
of the extra metal in it, but in part to the care which it
receives in perfect alignment.

TIRE-WELDING.

	Seconds.
requires 11 H.P. for.....	15
requires 23 H.P. for.....	25
requires 30 H.P. for.....	30
requires 23 H.P. for.....	40
requires 29 H.P. for.....	55
requires 42 H.P. for.....	62

The time and power required for welding is of course that required for the actual
welding only, and does not include that consumed by
the machine, the removal of the upset and
the tire. From the data thus submitted, the cost of welding
for any locality where the price of fuel and cost of

the cost of the fuel used under the boilers for produc-
ing the steam for welding is practically the same as the cost of fuel
used in the amount of work, taking into consideration the
fuel used in either case.

It is found that 2½-inch iron tubes ¼ inch
require a net horse-power required at this app-
roximate power) per square inch of section. B

size of arc-lamp at present manufactured requires a current of 6 amperes; but for steadiness and efficiency it is desirable to use not less than 8 amperes. The candle-power of arc-lamps varies considerably, as to the angle at which it is measured. The greatest intensity with any current lamps is found at an angle of about 40° below the horizontal. The following table gives the approximate candle-power at various angles. The height of the lamps should be arranged so as to give an angle less than 7° to the most distant point it is intended to serve.

Lighting-power of Arc-lamps.

Current in Amperes.	Candle-power.				
	Horizontal	At Angle of 7°.	At Angle of 10°.	At Angle of 30°.	Maxim. Angle.
6	92	175	207	322	4
8	156	300	350	546	5
10	230	420	495	770	11

The following data enable the coefficient of minimum lighting streets to be determined:

Let P = candle-power of lamps;

L = maximum distance from lamp in feet;

H = height of lamp in feet;

X = a coefficient.

The light falling on the unit area of pavement varies inversely as the square of the distance from the lamp, and is directly proportional to the sine of the angle at which it falls. This angle is nearly proportional to the height of the lamp divided by the distance. Therefore

$$X = \frac{P}{L^2} \times \frac{H}{L} \text{ or } X = \frac{PH}{L^3}.$$

The usual standard of gas-lighting is represented by the amount of light falling on the unit area of pavement 50 feet away from a 12-c.p. gas lamp, which gives a coefficient as follows:

$$X = \frac{12 \times 9}{50^3} = 0.000864.$$

The minimum standard represents the amount of light on a unit area of pavement 50 feet away from a 24-c.p. lamp, 9 ft. high, and gives the coefficient .000864.

Adopting the first of the above coefficients, Mr. Robinson calculates the before-mentioned sizes of arc-lights will give the same amount of light at the heights and distances stated in Table A. Table B shows the corresponding distances, assuming the minimum standard to be

TABLE A.					TABLE B.				
Hgt. of Lamps.	20 ft.	25 ft.	30 ft.	35 ft.	Height . . .	20 ft.	25 ft.	30 ft.	35 ft.
Current in Amperes.	Max. distances served from lamp, in ft.				Amperes.	Max. distance from Lamp			
6	160	175	190	202	6	130	144	156	166
8	185	202	220	235	8	150	165	180	192
10	205	225	243	260	10	170	190	210	225

The distances the lamps are apart would, of course, be double the distances mentioned in Tables A and B. One arc-lamp will take the place of 3 to 6 gas-lamps, according to the locality, arrangement, and amount of light adopted. A scheme of arc-lighting, based on the substitute standard of light, would require 3½ to 4 gas-lamps, would double the standard of light, while the average standard would be increased 50 per cent.

Candle-power of the Arc-light. (Ellis Thomson.)—With the long arc the maximum intensity of the light is not downward from the horizontal. The spherical candle-power is a fraction of the rated c.p., which is generally taken at the maximum intensity in the most direct direction. For this reason the term 3000 s.c.p.

WELDING.

power of an arc. It is now generally and not less than 45 volts between the carbons will determine the quality of the carbons will determine the intensity of the light or not, or the intensity at one angle or another. The current passing in an arc, the less is the resistance, the more current will pass. With 4 amperes will have about 11 ohms. 100 amperes .45 ohm. 60 lights in a series, each demanding 3,000 volts. In going beyond this the resistance increased.

Electric Lighting.—Noll, How to Wire Electric-light Central Stations, \$6.00; Formers in Theory and Practice, 2 vols., \$1.50; Algae and Boulard, Electric Lighting, \$1.50; Algae and Boulard, Theory and Application, \$5.00.

C WELDING.

used consists of an alternating-current high-potential current to the primary coil of the transformer, the secondary of which is made so long as to supply the work currents, and of very large volume or rate of flow. The secondary terminals. Other forms of welding are constructed to yield alternating currents. The welding-clamps, are used to a limited extent.

The metal to be welded has a decided influence on its comparatively low heat conductivity. (See papers by Sir F. Bramwell, Proc. Inst. Mech. Engrs., London, 1892, p. 11; and Eilhu Thomson, Trans. A. I. M. E., xix, p. 38, 1892, gives the following figures required to weld axes and tires:

AXLE-WELDING.	Seconds.
Requires 25 H.P. for.....	45
Requires 30 H.P. for.....	48
Requires 35 H.P. for.....	60
Requires 40 H.P. for.....	70
Requires 75 H.P. for.....	95
Requires 90 H.P. for.....	100

Time and power required for welding the square ends of the axle, extra metal in it, but in part to the care which it receives in perfect alignment.

TIRE-WELDING.	Seconds.
Requires 11 H.P. for.....	15
Requires 23 H.P. for.....	25
Requires 20 H.P. for.....	30
Requires 23 H.P. for.....	40
Requires 29 H.P. for.....	55
Requires 42 H.P. for.....	62

The cost of the fuel used under the boilers for production of the steam for welding is of course that required for the actual welding, and does not include that consumed by the boiler. The cost of the fuel used in the machine, the removal of the upset and the cost of the tires in the machine, the removal of the upset and the cost of welding. From the data thus submitted, the cost of welding for any locality where the price of fuel and cost of the boiler is known, can be determined.

The cost of the fuel used under the boilers for production of the steam for welding is practically the same as the cost of fuel used in the machine, taking into consideration the same amount of work. It has been found that 2 1/2-inch iron tubes 1 1/2 inch thick were found to require 2 1/2 horse-power at this speed being 25.4 (net horse-power) per square inch of section. Brass tubing

at the radiator per pound of coal burned in the $10 + 2\frac{1}{2} = 872$ H.U. An ordinary steam-heating per lb. of coal for heating; hence the efficiency the efficiency of the steam-heating system as 872 (*Eng'g News*, Aug. 9, '90; Mar. 30, '92; May 15, '93.)

ACCUMULATORS OR STORAGE-BATTERIES.

is divided into two classes; viz., those in which from the substance of the element itself, either electro-chemical action, and those in which the liberated by the application of some easily reduced of the former type are usually called Planté, and "pasted."

finding a solution of acetate of lead found that per- at the positive and metallic lead at the negative elements in a newly and fully charged Planté cell peroxide of lead, PbO_2 , and spongy metallic lead, positive and negative plates.

or if the cell be allowed to remain at rest, the sul- the solution enters into combination with the per- and partially converts it into sulphate. The acid acted from the electrolyte as the discharge proceeds, ion becomes less. In the charging operation this the reducible sulphates of lead which have been decomposed, the acid being reinstated in the liquid n increase in its density.

ential developed by lead and lead peroxide immersed arily as may be, two volts.

gradually loses its electrical energy by local action, ying according to the circumstances of its prepara- f the cell. Various forms of both Planté and Faure in "Practical Electrical Engineering."

sted cells lead plates are coated with minium or ste with acidulated water. When dry these plates dilute H_2SO_4 and subjected to the action of the xide on the positive plate is converted into peroxide negative plate reduced to finely divided or porous

found that the initial electro-motive force of the volts, but after being allowed to rest some little about 2.0 volts. The following tables show the size es of Faure cells, known as the E. P. S. cells. (*Eng-*

E. P. S.'s Storage-cells, L Type.

Working Rate.		Capacity. Ampere hours.	Approximate Exter- nal Dimensions.				Weight of Cell complete with Acid.
Charge	Dis- charge.		Length.	Width.	Height.	Height over all.	
Amper.	Amper.		in.	in.	in.	in.	lbs.
10 to 13	1 to 13	130	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	13 $\frac{1}{4}$	18 $\frac{1}{4}$	20 $\frac{1}{2}$	74
10 " 13	1 " 13	130	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	13 $\frac{3}{4}$	15 $\frac{1}{2}$	68
16 " 22	1 " 22	220	7 $\frac{1}{2}$	13 $\frac{1}{4}$	18 $\frac{1}{2}$	20 $\frac{1}{2}$	107
16 " 22	1 " 22	220	8	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	13 $\frac{3}{4}$	15 $\frac{1}{2}$	101
25 " 30	1 " 30	330	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	13 $\frac{1}{4}$	18 $\frac{1}{2}$	20 $\frac{1}{2}$	143
25 " 30	1 " 30	330	9 $\frac{1}{2}$	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	13 $\frac{3}{4}$	15 $\frac{1}{2}$	100
38 " 46	1 " 46	500	14 $\frac{1}{2}$	13 $\frac{1}{4}$	18 $\frac{1}{2}$	20 $\frac{1}{2}$	157
38 " 46	1 " 46	500	14 $\frac{1}{2}$	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	13 $\frac{3}{4}$	15 $\frac{1}{2}$	107
50 " 60	1 " 60	660	19 $\frac{1}{2}$	13 $\frac{1}{4}$	18 $\frac{1}{2}$	20 $\frac{1}{2}$	203
50 " 60	1 " 60	660	18 $\frac{1}{2}$	12	13 $\frac{3}{4}$	15 $\frac{1}{2}$	157

"E. P. S." Cells, T Type.

Description of Cell.		Weight of Electrolyte.	Working Rate.		Capacity. Amperes hours.	Approx. External Dimensions.			
No. of Plates.	Material of Box.		Charge.	Discharge.		Length.	Width.	Height.	Height over all.
		lbs.	Amper.	Amper.		in.	in.	in.	in.
11	Wood (no lid) ...	10	16 to 20	1 to 20	66	67 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	13 $\frac{1}{2}$
	" (with lid) ...	10	16 " 20	1 " 20	66	67 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	13 $\frac{1}{2}$
	Ebonite (no lid) ...	10	16 " 20	1 " 20	66	67 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	13 $\frac{1}{2}$
15	Wood (no lid) ...	14	24 " 35	1 " 30	95	87 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	13 $\frac{1}{2}$
	" (with lid) ...	14	24 " 35	1 " 30	95	87 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	13 $\frac{1}{2}$
	Ebonite (no lid) ...	14	24 " 35	1 " 30	95	87 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	13 $\frac{1}{2}$
19	Wood (no lid) ...	18	30 " 35	1 " 40	120	111	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	13 $\frac{1}{2}$
	" (with lid) ...	18	30 " 35	1 " 40	120	111	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	13 $\frac{1}{2}$
	Ebonite (no lid) ...	18	30 " 35	1 " 40	120	104 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	13 $\frac{1}{2}$
23	Wood (no lid) ...	22	38 " 42	1 " 50	145	131 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	13 $\frac{1}{2}$
	" (with lid) ...	22	38 " 42	1 " 50	145	131 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	13 $\frac{1}{2}$
	Ebonite ...	22	38 " 42	1 " 50	145	131 $\frac{1}{2}$	8 $\frac{1}{2}$	11 $\frac{1}{2}$	13 $\frac{1}{2}$

For a very full description of various forms of storage batteries "Practical Electrical Engineering," part xii. For theory of the battery practice with the Julien battery, see paper on Electrical Accumulators P. G. Salom, Trans. A. I. M. E., xviii, 348.

Use of Storage-batteries in Power and Light Stations (*Iron Age*, Nov. 2, 1893).—The storage-batteries in the Edison station Fifty-third Street, New York, relieve the other stations at the hours of load, by delivering into the mains a certain amount of current that otherwise have to come, and at greater loss or "drop," from one or all of the stations connecting with the network of mains. Hence the loss can be varied more or less arbitrarily at these stations according to the portion of load that the larger stations are desired or able to carry.

The battery consists of 140 cells each of about 1000 ampere-hour capacity weighing some 750 lbs., and of about 48 inches in length, 21 inches in width and 15 inches in depth. The battery has a normal discharge rate of 200 amperes, but can be discharged, if necessary, at 500 amperes.

A test made when the station was running only 12 hours per day, noon to midnight, showed that the battery furnished about 23.2% of the energy delivered to the mains. The maximum rate of discharge at which the battery was about 270 amperes. Thus, in this case, we have an ample of a battery which is used for the purpose: 1. Of giving a reserve station machinery that would otherwise be idle. 2. Utilizing the energy to increase the rate of output of the station at the time of peak load, which would otherwise necessitate greater dynamo capacity.

The Working Current, or Energy Efficiency, of a cell is the ratio between the value of the current or energy expended in charging operation, and that obtained when the cell is discharged at a specified rate.

In a lead storage cell, if the surface and quantity of active material are accurately proportioned, and if the discharge be commenced immediately after the termination of the charge, then a current efficiency of as high as 98% may be obtained, provided the rate of discharge is low and well regulated. In practice it is found that low rates of discharge are not economical, and as the current efficiency always decreases as the discharge rate increases, it is found that the normal current efficiency seldom exceeds and averages about 85%.

As the normal discharging electro-motive force of a lead secondary cell never exceeds 2 volts, and as an electro-motive force of from 2.4 to 2.6 is required at its poles to overcome both its opposing electro-motive force and its internal resistance, there is an initial loss of 20% between the normal discharging potential and that given out during its discharge.

As the normal discharging potential is continually being reduced during the discharge, it follows that an energy efficiency of 75%

of fact, a maximum of 75% and a mean of of lead-sulphuric-acid storage-cells.

ICAL EQUIVALENTS.

Atomic Weight.	Chemical Equiv- alent.	Electro-chemical Equivalent (mil- ligrammes per coulomb).	Coulombs per gramme.	Grammes per ampere hour.
1.00	1.00	.010984	96293.00	0.09738
9.04	39.04	.40539	2467.50	1.45950
22.99	22.99	.23873	4188.90	0.85942
7.3	9.1	.09449	1058.30	3.40180
9.94	11.97	.12430	804.03	4.47470
6.2	65.4	.67911	1473.50	2.44480
7.66	107.66	1.11800	894.41	4.02500
3.00	31.5	.32709	3058.60	1.17700
3.00	63.00	.65419	1525.30	2.35500
9.8	99.9	1.09740	963.99	3.73450
9.8	199.8	2.07470	481.99	7.46900
7.8	29.45	.30581	3270.00	1.10090
7.8	58.9	.61162	1635.00	2.20180
5.9	18.64	.19356	5166.4	0.69681
5.9	27.95	.29035	3445.50	1.04480
8.6	29.3	.30425	3286.80	1.09530
4.9	32.45	.33696	2967.10	1.21330
6.4	103.2	1.07160	933.26	3.85780
5.96	7.98	.08286		
5.37	35.37	.36728		
6.53	136.53	1.31390		
9.75	79.75	.82812		
4.01	4.67	.04849		

atom-replacing power of an element com-
plicity is unity.

of one atom of each element compared with
is unity.

aday's law showed that the electro-chemical
portional to its chemical equivalent. The
eight, and not to atomic weight + valency,
italier, and others who have copied their
salt is an exception to Thompson's rule, as

CTROLYSIS.

ompound into its constituents by means of
ve the nomenclature relating to electroly-
be decomposed the Electrolyte, and the pro-
poles of the battery he called Electrodes.
essure exists he called the Anode, and the
oducts of decomposition he called Ions.

urrent of one ampere will deposit 0.017253
ver per second on one of the plates of a sil-
yed being a solution of silver nitrate con-
t.

trily set free by a current of one

Knowing the amount of hydrogen thus set free, and the chemical equivalents of the constituents of other substances, we can calculate what weight of their elements will be set free or deposited in a given time by a given current.

Thus the current that liberates 1 gramme of hydrogen will liberate grammes of oxygen, or 107.7 grammes of silver, the numbers 8 and 10 being the chemical equivalents for oxygen and silver respectively.

To find the weight of metal deposited by a given current in a given time, find the weight of hydrogen liberated by the given current in the given time, and multiply by the chemical equivalent of the metal.

Thus: Weight of silver deposited in 10 seconds by a current of 10 amp = weight of hydrogen liberated per second \times number seconds \times current strength \times 107.7 = .00001038 \times 10 \times 10 \times 107.7 = .1178 gramme.

Weight of copper deposited in 1 hour by a current of 10 amperes =
 $.00001038 \times 3600 \times 10 \times 31.5 = 11.77$ grammes.

Since 1 ampere per second liberates .00001038 gramme of hydrogen of strength of current in amperes

$$= \frac{\text{weight in grammes of H. liberated per second}}{.00001038}$$

$$= \frac{\text{weight of element liberated per second}}{.00001038 \times \text{chemical equivalent of element}}$$

The table on page 1057 (from "Practical Electrical Engineering") is calculated upon Lord Rayleigh's determination of the electro-chemical equivalents and Roscoe's atomic weights.

ELECTRO-MAGNETS.

Units of Electro-magnetic Measurements.

C.G.S. unit of force = 1 dyne = 1.01936 milligrammes in localities in which the acceleration due to gravity is 981 centimetres, or 32.185 feet, per second.

C.C.S. unit of energy = 1 erg = energy required to overcome the resistance of 1 dyne at a speed of 1 centimetre per second. 1 watt = 10^7 ergs.

Unit magnetism = that amount of magnetic matter which, if concentrated at another point one centimetre distant with the force of one dyne.

Unit strength of field = that flow of magnetic lines which will exert a mechanical force upon unit pole, or a density of 1 line per square centimetre.

The following definitions of practical units of the magnetic circuit are given in Houston and Kennelly's "Electrical Engineering Leaflets."

Gilbert, the unit of magneto-motive force; such a M.M.F. as would be produced by $\frac{10}{4\pi}$ or 0.7958 ampere-turn.

If an air-core solenoid or hollow anchor-ring were wound with 100 turns of insulated wire carrying a current of 5 amperes, the M.M.F. exerted would be 500 ampere-turns = 638.5 gilberts.

Weber, the unit of magnetic flux; the flux due to unit M.M.F. when the reluctance is one oersted.

Gauss, the unit of magnetic flux-density, or one weber per normal square centimetre.

The flux-density of the earth's magnetic field in the neighborhood of New York is about 0.6 gauss, directed downwards at an inclination of about 73° .

Oersted, the unit of magnetic reluctance; the reluctance of a cubic centimetre of an air-pump vacuum.

Reluctance is that quantity in a magnetic circuit which limits the flux under a given M.M.F. It corresponds to the resistance in the electrical circuit.

The *reluctivity* of any medium is its specific reluctance, and in the C.G.S. system is the reluctance offered by a cubic centimetre of the body between opposed parallel faces. The reluctivity of nearly all substances, other than the magnetic metals, is sensibly that of vacuum, is equal to unity, and independent of the flux density.

Permeability is the reciprocal of magnetic reluctivity.

netic circuit is

$$\frac{\text{gilberts}}{\text{oersteds}};$$

orce \div magnetic reluctance.

oersteds = gilberts \div webers.

creasing the magnetic flux: 1. by in-
the reluctance.

In discussing magnetic and electrical
d that the attractions and repulsions
of a conductor upon iron filings are
e magnet or conductor. The "num-
of the forces acting. As the iron
ric circles, we may assume that the
ves or "loops of force." The follow-
the loops of force in a conductive

the conductor are parallel to the axis

o the conductor are proportional in
r, that is, a definite current generates
hese may be stated as the strength of

re are at right angles to the axis of

a a point is equal at all points on the
cribed by a given radius about that
surface of 4π square centimetres. If
the number of lines of force emanat-
magnetic matter,

$$I = F \div 4\pi.$$

roduct of strength of pole M and its

$$\text{Magnetic moment} = \frac{LM}{4\pi}.$$

ugh each square centimetre of cross-
section induces," and A = cross-section,

$$\text{moment} = \frac{LAB}{4\pi}.$$

magnetic field whose induction is H ,
are all horizontal and at right angles
ill be pulled forward, that is, in the
the south pole will be pulled in the
lucing a torsional moment or torque,
 $\div 4\pi$, in dyne-centimetres.

anating from a point varies inversely
t point. The law of inverse squares,
ism proceeds from a surface of ap-
are small, as in dynamo-electric
ation of Heat," page 467.)

net.—In an electric magnet made by
around a core of soft iron, the space
ence is called the magnetic field, and
length of the field is proportional to
orce surrounding the magnet. Under
rent passing through a given number
agnetic loops will depend upon the
t as the current with a given press-
upon the resistance of the circuit.
ost important principles concerning

of an electro-magnet is nearly pro-
portional to the current, provided the cor-

(2) The magnetic strength is proportional to the number of turns in the magnetizing coil; that is, to the number of ampere turns.

(3) The magnetic strength is independent of the thickness or of the conducting wires.

These laws may be embraced in the more general statement: strength of an electro-magnet, the size of the magnet being the proportional to the number of its ampere turns.

Force in the Gap between Two Poles of a Magnet.

F = force exerted by one of the poles upon a unit pole in the gap; density of lines in the field (that is, that there are m absolute or C.G.S. on each square centimetre of the polar surface of the magnet), surface being large relative to the breadth of the gap, $F = 2\pi m$.

force exerted upon the unit pole by both north and south pole magnet is $2F = 4\pi m$, in dynes = B , or the induction in lines of force per square centimetre. If S = number of square centimetres in each surface, SB = total flow of force, or field strength = F ; $Sm = I$ strength = M , spread over each of the polar surfaces. We then have $4\pi M$, as before; that is, the total field is 4π times the total pole strength.

Total attractive force between the two opposing poles of a magnet, the distance apart is small, = $\frac{SE^2}{8\pi}$, in dynes.

This formula may be used to determine the lifting-power of a magnet, thus:

A bent magnet provided with a keeper is 3 cm. square on each limb, the induction $B = 30,000$ lines per square centimetre. The attractive force of each limb on the keeper in dynes = $\frac{9 \times 30000^2}{8 \times 3.14}$, or in kilogrammes, $\frac{9 \times 400 \times 10^6}{25.12 \times 981000} \times 2 = 292$ kilogrammes.

The Magnetic Circuit.—In the conductive circuit we have

$$\text{Current} = \frac{\text{electro-motive force}}{\text{resistance}} = \frac{\text{volts}}{\text{ohms}}$$

In the magnetic circuit we have

Number of lines, or loops, of force, or magnetism

$$= \frac{\text{Current} \times \text{conductor turns}}{\text{Resistance of magnetic circuit}} = \frac{\text{Ampere turns}}{\text{Resistance of magnetic circuit}}$$

Or, in the new notation, webers = $\frac{\text{gilberts}}{\text{oersteds}}$.

Let N = No. of lines of force, R_m = total magnetic resistance in ampere turns, then $N = \frac{At}{R_m}$.

The magnetic pressure due to the ampere turns = $\frac{4}{10} \pi TC$ = where T = turns and C = amperes, whence $N = \frac{4\pi TC}{R_m} = \frac{1.257T}{R_m}$.

If R_m = total magnetic resistance, and R_a, R_A, R_F the magnetic resistances of the air-spaces, the armature, and the field-magnets, resp.

$$R_m = R_a + R_A + R_F; \text{ and } N = \frac{4\pi TC}{R_a + R_A + R_F}$$

Determining the Polarity of Electro-magnets.—If a wire is wound around a magnet in a right-handed helix, the end at which the current flows into the helix is the south pole. If a wire is wound around an ordinary wood screw, and the current flows around the helix in the direction from the head of the screw to the point, the head of the screw is the south pole. If a magnet is held so that the south pole is opposite to the observer, the wire being wound as a right-handed helix around the magnet, the current flows in a right-handed direction, with the hands of a clock.

TRIC MACHINES.

electric machines, viz.:

al energy of rotation is converted into

ical energy of rotation is converted into

of a direct current is converted into

which the energy of one or more alter-
 chanical energy of rotation.

duct of the potential difference and the

f the energy given off. With alternat-

no current strength is greater than the

the property of reacting upon itself,

c Machines as regards Man-
 Electrical Dictionary.)

machine for the conversion of mechan-

means of magneto-electric induction.

he field-magnets are excited by more

than a single electric source.

ture-coils are grouped in sections com-

a collector, so as to be connected con-

ture-coils, though connected to the suc-

not connected continuously in a closed

eld-magnets are excited by means of

distinct from those which furnish cur-

he field-magnet coils have no connec-

receive their current from a separate

ld-current and the external circuit are

re circuit, so that the entire armature

coils.

e armature-coils, the field, and the ex-

crease in the resistance of the ex-

tro-motive force from the decrease in

se in the resistance of the external cir-

the electro-motive force from the in-

The use of a regulator avoids these

Compound-wound Dynamo.—There are

agnet cores, one of which is connected

the external circuit, and the other with

excited.

ld-magnet coils are placed in a shunt

y a portion of the circuit generated

is, but all the difference of potential of

f the field-circuit.

crease in the resistance of the external

force, and a decrease in the resistance

electro-motive force. This is just the

uous balancing of the current occurs.

between the field and the external cir-

resistance of these circuits, if the resist-

es greater, a proportionately greater

nets, and so causes the electro-motive

contrary, the resistance of the external

es through the field, and the electro-

eased.

wound-wound Dynamo.—The

ills, one of which is in ser-

and the other in shunt w

ound-wound machine.

Compound-wound Dyna

If F_k is taken in kilogrammes,

$$F_k = \frac{ICB}{9810000} = 10.1937ICB10^{-8} \text{ kilogram}$$

EXAMPLE.—The mean strength of field, B , of a dynamo a current of 100 amperes flows through a wire; the force metres of the wire = $10.1937 \times 10 \times 100 \times 5000 \times 10^{-8} =$

In the "English" or Kapp's system of measurement C.G.S. lines is taken to equal one English line. Calling English, or Kapp's, lines per square inch, and B the induction per square centimetre, $B_E = B + 930.04$; and taking l'

pounds, $P_p = 531C'l'B_E 10^{-6}$ pounds.

Torque of an Armature.— P_p in the last formula to move one wire of length l' , which carries a current of the field whose induction is B_E English lines per square through a drum-armature splits at the commutator each half going through half of the wires or bars. upon one of the wires under the influence of a pole-piece number of wires under the pole-pieces, then the total force radius of the armature to the centre of the conductor then the torque = $\frac{1}{2}P_p r$, = $\frac{1}{2} \times 531 \times C'l'B_E \times 10^{-6}$ moment, or pounds acting at a radius of 1 foot.

EXAMPLE.—Let the length l of an armature = 20 in., .5 ft., number of conductors = 120, of which $t = 80$ are of the two pole-pieces at one time, the average induction through the armature-field $B_E = 5$ English lines per inch current passing through the armature = 400 amperes; then

$$\text{Torque} = \frac{1}{2} \times 531 \times 400 \times 20 \times 5 \times 80 \times .5 \times 10^{-6}$$

The work done in one revolution = torque \times circumference
1 foot radius = $434.8 \times 6.28 = 2670$ foot-pounds.

Let the revolutions per minute = 500, then the horse-power

$$= \frac{2670 \times 500}{33000} = 40.5 \text{ H.P.}$$

Electro-motive Force of the Armature C horse-power, calculated as above, together with the armature

$\left. \begin{matrix} -8 \\ 6 \end{matrix} \right\}$ for two-pole machines.

$\left. \begin{matrix} 0^{-1} \\ -6 \end{matrix} \right\}$ for multipolar machines with series-wound armature.

$\left. \begin{matrix} 1.615F\tau C 10^{-10} \\ 7.05Z\tau C 10^{-6} \end{matrix} \right\}$ for two-pole machines.

$\left. \begin{matrix} 3.23F\tau c p 10^{-10} \\ 14.10Z\tau c p 10^{-6} \end{matrix} \right\}$ for multipolar machines.

length of armature $l = 20$ in., diameter = 240 sq. in., induction per sq. in. $B_E = 240 \times 5 = 1200$; then

$$120 \times 500 \times 10^{-8} = 72 \text{ volts.}$$

by Kapp is

$$6 ZNtn10^{-4} C_a$$

$$6 2abmNtn10^{-6} C_a$$

t , per min., $2ab =$ sectional area of armatures per sq. in. of armature-core, $Nt =$ lines cut all around the circumference, $t =$ thickness of plate in the commutator, $N =$ number of English lines of force.

It is known that the density of lines m in the gap which is reached when the core is saturated is reached when $m = 30$. A fair average value for m is $m = 30$, and the area ab must be the net area and not the gross area of the core. 20 C.G.S. lines per square centimetre. Silivisible in continuous-current machines than $B = 17,000$ C.G.S. lines per square

centimetre for the magnetic field in the gap-space = 40,000 lines per sq. in., and 1 lb. for each ampere of current carried.

$$\text{or} = \frac{\text{H.P.} \times 23,000}{\text{ft. per min.} \times C}$$

in which C is the speed of the armature.

Field.—Kapp gives for the total number of C.G.S. lines ($\div 0000$) in the magnetic circuit

$Z =$ number of magnetic lines, $X =$ the number of turns = $4\pi TC$, R_a , R_A , and $RF =$ resistances of the armature, and the field-magnet respectively.

Values of R_a , R_A , and RF for dynamos of wrought iron, with a permeability of $\mu =$

$$R_a = \frac{l}{ab}; \quad RF = 2 \frac{L}{AB};$$

$l =$ length of magnetic circuit in field magnet; a and $b =$ length of magnetic circuit in armature; $L =$ length of magnetic circuit in field magnet; A and $B =$ length of magnetic circuit in armature.

$$\text{For cast-iron magnets, } Z = \frac{0.8X}{1800 \frac{2\delta}{\lambda b} + \frac{l}{ab} + \frac{3L}{AB}}$$

For double horse-shoe magnets of wrought iron,

$$\frac{Z}{2} = \frac{X}{1440 \frac{2\delta}{\lambda b} + \frac{2l}{ab} + \frac{2L}{AB}}$$

$$\text{and of cast iron, } \frac{Z}{2} = \frac{0.8X}{1800 \frac{2\delta}{\lambda b} + \frac{2l}{ab} + \frac{3L}{AB}}$$

These formulæ apply only to cases in which the intensity of magnetism is not too great—say up to 10 Kapp's lines per square inch.

Silvanus P. Thompson gives the following method of calculating the strength of the field, or the magnetic flux, MF , or the whole number of magnetic lines flowing in the circuit in C.G.S. lines:

The magnetic resistance of any magnetic conductor is proportional to its length and inversely to its cross-section and its permeability.

Magnetic resistance = $\frac{L}{S\mu}$, in which L = length of the magnetic conductor passing through any piece of iron, S = section of the magnetic conductor passing through any piece of iron, μ = permeability of that piece of iron.

In a dynamo-machine in which the resistances are three, viz.: 1. The magnet cores; 2. The armature-core; 3. The gaps or air-spaces between them,—

let L_m, S_m, μ_m refer to the field-magnet part of the circuit;

L_a, S_a, μ_a refer to the air-space part of the circuit;

L_a, S_a, μ_a refer to the armature part of the circuit;

the lengths across each of the air-spaces being L_a , and the exposed polar surface at either pole being S_a .

$$\text{Total magnetic resistance} = \frac{L_m}{S_m \mu_m} + \frac{L_a}{S_a \mu_a} + \frac{L_a}{S_a \mu_a}$$

Magnetic flux, or total number of magnetic lines, =

$$MF = \frac{1.257 T \mu C}{\frac{L_m}{S_m \mu_m} + \frac{L_a}{S_a \mu_a} + \frac{L_a}{S_a \mu_a}}$$

T = turns of wires, or number of turns in the spiral;

C = current in amperes passing through spiral.

Application to Designing of Dynamos. (S. P. Thompson)

Suppose in designing a dynamo it has been decided what will be a safe speed, how many conductors shall be wound upon the armature, what quantity of magnetic lines there must be in the field, it then becomes necessary to calculate the sizes of the iron parts and the quantity of iron to be provided for by the field-magnet coils. It being known what is to be, the problem is to design the machine so as to get the best value. Experience shows that in every type of dynamo there is no leakage; also, that it is not wise to push the saturation of the armature to more than 16,000 lines to the square centimetre at the most highly rated part, and that the induction in the field-magnet ought to be greater than this, even allowing for leakage. Leakage may amount to 10 per cent. of the whole; hence, if the magnet-cores are made of same quality as the armature-cores, their cross-section ought to be at least 5/4 as that of the armature-core at its narrowest point. If the field-cores are of cast iron, the section ought to be at least twice as great.

Now, B_a (the induction in the armature-core) = $M_a \div S_a$ (or magnetic flux through armature \div cross-sectional area of the armature; hence B_a is fixed at 16,000 lines per centimetre of cross-section, we at once get $M_a \div B_a$. This fixes the cross-section of the armature-core. (Example: $M_a = 4,000,000$ of lines, then there must be a cross-section equal to 250 square centimetres for $\frac{4,000,000}{16,000} = 250$.)

Circuit.—The size of wires on the armatures which it must carry without risk, current (in ring or drum armatures) passes number is supposed to have been fixed before the quantity of copper that must be put on states that the core should be made so large winding does not exceed $1/8$ of the radial ties the size of the armature-core, from average length of path of the magnetic lines

Area of Air-space.—Experience further and the advantage of making the pole-machines) of at least 135° each, so as to ties *Las* and *Sas*.

cores, etc.—As shown above, the minimum and materials; L_m therefore remains to magnet-cores must be long enough to allow ls, but should not be longer. As a rule, ly in the yoke part, that they do not add of the circuit, then a little extra length as at matter much. It now only remains to -turns of excitation for which it will be

t to rewrite the formula of the magnetic

$$\frac{L_m}{S_m \mu_m} + 2 \frac{L_{as}}{S_{as} \mu_{as}} + \frac{L_a}{S_a \mu_a} \left\{ \right. \\ \left. \frac{1.257}{1.257} \right\};$$

passing through the field-magnet coils; magnet wire; say $5/4$).

$$M_a \frac{\lambda R_m + R_{as} + R_a}{1.257},$$

$$7 \frac{A \times T_{mv}}{\lambda R_m + R_{as} + R_a}$$

the magnetic resistance of magnets, air-

yet, because the values of μ in it depend on on in the various parts. These have to be given below; and, indeed, it is preferable once more, by dividing it into its separate y the ampere-turns requisite to force the es through the separate parts, and then

$$\text{magnet-cores} = \lambda \frac{M_a}{S_m} \times \frac{L_m}{\mu_m} + 1.257,$$

$$\text{air-spaces} = \frac{M_a}{S_{as}} \times 2 \frac{L_{as}}{\mu_{as}} + 1.257,$$

$$\text{armature-core} = \frac{M_a}{S_a} \times \frac{L_a}{\mu_a} + 1.257.$$

the magnet-cores, and reference to the table

the corresponding value of μ_m must be.

o μ_{as} . When the total number of ampere-

determined, the size and length c^p the rise of temperature, and t^s ther in series, or as a shunt.

Permeability.—Materials differ in regard to the resistance they offer to the passage of lines of force; thus iron is more permeable than air. The permeability of a substance is expressed by a coefficient μ , which shows its relation to the permeability of air, which is taken as 1. If H = number of magnetic lines per square centimetre which will pass through a space between the poles of a magnet, and B the number of lines which pass through a certain piece of iron in that space, then $\mu = B \div H$. The permeability varies with the quality of the iron, and the degree of magnetization, reaching a practical limit for soft wrought iron when $B = 20,000$, and for cast iron when $B =$ about 10,000 C.G.S. lines per square centimetre.

The following values are given by Thompson as calculated from Thomson's experiments:

Annealed Wrought Iron.			Gray Cast Iron.		
B	H	μ	B	H	μ
5,000	2	2,500	4,000	5	800
9,000	4	2,250	5,000	10	500
10,000	5	2,000	6,000	21.5	280
11,000	6.5	1,692	7,000	42	167
12,000	8.5	1,412	8,000	80	100
13,000	12	1,083	9,000	127	71
14,000	17	823	10,000	188	53
15,000	28.5	526	11,000	292	38
16,000	52	308			
17,000	105	161			
18,000	200	90			
19,000	350	54			

Permissible Amperage and Permissible Depth of Wiring for Magnets with Cotton-covered Wire. (Walter, *El. Engineer*, Dec. 21, 1892.)—The tables on pp. 1068, 1069, abridged from those of Mr. Dix, are calculated from the formula

$$C = \sqrt{\frac{12 \times W}{\omega_m f \times T \times L}}$$

where C = current;
 W = emissivity in watts per square inch;
 $\omega_m f$ = ohms per mil-foot;
 M = circular mils;
 T = turns per linear inch;
 L = number of layers in depth.

The emissivity is taken at 4 watt per sq. in. for stationary magnets, and at 2 watt per sq. in. for rotating magnets. The rise of temperature of 35° C. (63° F.). For armatures, according to experiments, it is approximately correct to say that .9 watt per sq. in. will be dissipated for a rise of 35° C.

The insulation allowed is .007 inch on No. 0 to No. 11 B. & S.; .008 inch on No. 12 to No. 24; and .0045 inch on No. 25 to No. 31 single; twice the above values for insulation of double-covered wires. Fifteen per cent is allowed for imbedding of the wires.

The standard of resistance employed is 0.612 ohms per mil-foot at a running temperature of tables is taken at 25° + 35° = 60° C. The giving the depth for one layer is the diameter over insulation.

Formulae of Efficiency of Dynamos.

(S. P. Thompson in "Munro and Jamieson's Pocket-Book.")

Total Electrical Energy (per second) of any dynamo (expressed in watt-hours) is the product of the whole E.M.F. generated by armature-coils multiplied by the whole current which passes through the armature.

Useful Electrical Energy (per second), or useful output of the machine, is the product of the useful part of the E.M.F. (i.e., that part which is available for driving the machinery of the machine) into the useful part of the current which flows from the terminals into the load.

ELECTRICITY IN THE LAYERS OF THE COILS OF THE WINDING.

Insul. Bars, inches.	Circum-fer-ence, Mils.	Ohms per foot at 60°C.	Loss, per foot.		Turns per linear inch.	Layers.											
			Bare.	Cover'd		1		6		10		20					
.284	80656	.0001435	.344	.150	3.36	97.8	.308	48.7	1.334	31.0	9.68	81.9	6.25				
.259	67081	.000180	.303	.182	3.66	85.4	.373	58.1	1.952	37.4	9.41	10.1	4.70				
.2576	66873	.000182	.301	.182	3.68	84.6	.3716	57.2	1.916	36.8	9.40	10.0	4.70				
.238	56644	.000213	.172	.150	3.97	76.4	.400	53.6	1.938	35.9	9.31	10.8	4.52				
.2204	52634	.000259	.150	.150	4.11	71.6	.434	31.9	1.000	35.7	9.16	10.0	4.37				
.22	48400	.000249	.146	.150	4.37	67.3	.454	30.0	1.016	31.3	9.07	10.0	4.10				
.2043	41743	.000289	.126	.150	4.58	60.3	.4783	30.9	.980	19.1	1.93	13.0	3.84				
.203	41309	.000292	.125	.150	4.61	60.8	.477	30.7	.974	18.9	1.92	13.4	3.80				
.1819	33102	.000365	.100	.182	5.10	50.8	.500	32.7	.880	16.1	1.73	11.4	3.44				
.165	27225	.000413	.0825	.182	5.16	50.0	.519	32.5	.871	15.8	1.71	11.9	3.40				
.162	26251	.000459	.0794	.182	5.59	44.1	.579	19.7	.804	13.9	1.58	9.85	3.14				
.148	21904	.000551	.0663	.182	6.17	37.6	.642	10.8	.701	13.6	1.50	9.01	3.09				
.1443	20817	.000575	.0628	.182	6.32	36.2	.6583	10.1	.707	11.9	1.43	8.41	3.04				
.134	17356	.000751	.0514	.182	6.70	32.5	.748	14.5	.605	10.3	1.31	7.9	2.78				
.1285	16510	.000731	.0501	.182	7.02	30.6	.825	13.6	.640	9.70	1.26	6.84	2.50				
.12	14400	.000838	.0436	.182	7.46	27.7	.917	12.3	.682	8.78	1.20	6.30	2.30				
.1144	12694	.000922	.0383	.182	7.79	25.7	.984	11.5	.577	8.14	1.13	5.75	2.05				

Permissible Amperage and Permissible Depth of Winding for Magnets with Single Cotton-covered Wire.

Gauge.	Diam. Bare.	Circumf.	Ozms per sq Deg.	Lbs. per foot.	Cov'd	Turns per linear inch.	1		2		3		4		5		6		8		10		12		14		16		18						
							Depth.	Amp.	Depth.	Amp.	Depth.	Amp.	Depth.	Amp.	Depth.	Amp.	Depth.	Amp.	Depth.	Amp.	Depth.	Amp.	Depth.	Amp.	Depth.	Amp.	Depth.	Amp.	Depth.	Amp.	Depth.	Amp.	Depth.	Amp.	Depth.
2	.284	89656	.000150	.844		3.44	96.7	391	68.3	3.76	55.8	8.60	48.4	1.00	39.5	1.55	34.3	2.06	30.7	3.07	27.9	3.08	25.8	3.38	24.2	4.08	22.8	4.40	21.0	4.80	19.0				
3	.259	67081	.000180	.803		3.78	84.3	366	59.6	3.60	48.6	7.3	42.2	1.06	34.4	1.43	29.8	1.89	35.7	2.16	32.3	2.08	28.6	2.30	26.1	2.74	24.1	3.00	22.4	3.38	20.4				
4	.228	50644	.000215	.770		4.18	71.3	346	52.1	3.60	43.8	6.7	37.1	1.10	30.5	1.51	26.1	1.74	33.6	2.01	31.4	1.90	28.0	2.12	25.9	2.81	23.5	3.14	21.5	3.44	19.5	4.18	17.5		
5	.202	44600	.000250	.746	.143	4.23	70.4	3294	49.8	44	40.6	6.5	35.5	1.16	28.9	1.51	24.9	1.67	32.3	1.90	30.9	1.81	28.0	1.97	26.9	2.80	24.6	3.19	22.6	3.52	20.6	4.39	18.5	5.28	16.6
6	.181	39183	.000285	.726	.111	4.41	66.3	297	46.8	43	38.4	6.2	33.1	1.20	27.4	1.51	23.1	1.61	31.0	1.85	29.1	1.74	26.9	1.87	25.0	2.69	23.4	3.15	21.3	3.82	19.4	4.59	17.5	6.22	15.6
7	.165	32400	.000323	.709	.111	5.59	49.0	248	32.3	39	33.8	5.3	31.9	1.30	25.9	1.61	21.7	1.54	25.8	1.67	24.4	1.60	23.5	1.73	22.5	2.50	21.4	2.85	19.4	3.50	17.8	5.11	15.8	8.20	14.0
8	.148	27225	.000443	.6895		6.81	43.2	172	30.5	32	24.9	4.7	31.5	1.35	24.5	1.61	20.0	1.53	23.5	1.65	22.1	1.60	21.5	1.70	20.3	2.30	19.2	2.63	17.6	3.46	15.6	5.95	14.0	9.32	13.2
9	.132	23251	.000459	.6794	.0869	6.92	42.1	169	29.7	32	24.3	4.6	31.1	1.35	23.8	1.61	19.3	1.51	22.8	1.63	21.5	1.59	21.1	1.65	20.0	2.12	19.0	2.43	17.2	3.20	15.2	6.22	13.8	11.0	13.0
10	.118	17856	.000672	.6584	.0714	7.09	33.7	141	22.4	25	18.3	3.9	15.8	1.51	17.5	1.61	17.1	1.51	20.0	1.60	19.0	1.51	18.4	1.51	17.4	1.93	15.9	2.00	13.8	2.85	13.5	8.50	12.5	13.0	13.0
11	.105	16510	.000731	.6501	.0671	7.68	29.9	135	21.2	25	17.2	3.7	14.9	1.51	16.6	1.61	16.8	1.51	18.6	1.61	17.9	1.51	17.9	1.51	16.8	1.93	15.7	1.99	13.7	2.81	13.0	7.47	12.0	10.6	12.4
12	.093	14400	.000838	.6406	.0654	7.87	27.0	127	19.1	23	15.5	3.5	13.5	1.51	15.5	1.61	16.2	1.51	17.9	1.61	16.2	1.51	16.2	1.51	15.1	1.93	15.0	1.99	13.0	2.60	12.7	7.19	10.6	11.0	11.0
13	.082	12480	.001015	.6350	.0654	8.23	23.1	124	17.8	23	14.4	3.3	13.1	1.51	14.4	1.61	15.5	1.51	16.8	1.61	15.5	1.51	15.5	1.51	14.4	1.93	14.3	1.93	12.7	2.43	12.4	6.75	10.6	10.6	10.6
14	.072	10880	.001101	.6314	.0670	9.18	21.3	108	15.1	20	12.9	3.0	12.3	1.51	13.5	1.61	14.3	1.51	15.9	1.61	14.3	1.51	14.3	1.51	13.5	1.93	13.5	1.93	12.0	2.25	12.0	6.25	10.3	10.3	10.3
15	.065	9025	.001296	.6273	.0624	10.34	19.2	102	13.5	16	11.0	2.8	11.0	1.51	12.6	1.61	13.5	1.51	14.8	1.61	13.5	1.51	13.5	1.51	12.6	1.93	12.6	1.93	11.5	2.00	11.5	5.50	10.0	10.0	10.0
16	.060	8234	.001465	.6250	.0624	11.34	17.9	97	12.6	15	10.6	2.7	10.6	1.51	11.9	1.61	12.6	1.51	14.0	1.61	12.6	1.51	12.6	1.51	11.9	1.93	11.9	1.93	11.0	1.80	11.0	5.11	9.5	9.5	9.5
17	.056	6859	.00175	.6208	.0628	11.66	14.9	80	10.5	16	8.6	2.4	9.5	1.51	10.5	1.61	11.6	1.51	13.2	1.61	11.6	1.51	11.6	1.51	10.5	1.93	10.5	1.93	10.0	1.60	10.0	4.80	9.0	9.0	9.0
18	.052	5184	.002325	.6138	.07182	12.39	14.4	77	9.4	14	7.9	2.2	9.2	1.51	9.2	1.61	10.5	1.51	12.3	1.61	10.5	1.51	10.5	1.51	9.2	1.93	9.2	1.93	9.0	1.50	9.0	4.50	8.5	8.5	8.5
19	.048	4252	.002926	.6038	.0714	14.47	10.5	60	7.69	12	6.1	1.9	8.5	1.51	8.5	1.61	9.5	1.51	11.0	1.61	9.5	1.51	9.5	1.51	8.5	1.93	8.5	1.93	8.0	1.40	8.0	4.25	8.0	8.0	8.0
20	.044	4107	.003205	.6034	.0715	16.10	8.56	49	6.82	11	5.6	1.7	8.5	1.51	8.5	1.61	9.2	1.51	10.5	1.61	9.2	1.51	9.2	1.51	8.5	1.93	8.5	1.93	7.5	1.30	7.5	4.00	7.5	7.5	7.5
21	.041	3553	.003670	.6005	.0696	17.92	7.58	40	6.03	10	5.0	1.5	8.3	1.51	8.3	1.61	8.3	1.51	9.5	1.61	8.3	1.51	8.3	1.51	7.5	1.93	7.5	1.93	7.0	1.20	7.0	3.75	7.0	7.0	7.0
22	.038	3040	.004300	.6009	.0714	19.88	6.41	33	5.03	9	4.5	1.4	8.2	1.51	8.2	1.61	7.9	1.51	9.2	1.61	7.9	1.51	7.9	1.51	7.0	1.93	7.0	1.93	6.5	1.10	6.5	3.50	6.5	6.5	6.5
23	.035	2428	.005093	.6005	.0695	21.45	5.40	26	4.03	8	3.8	1.3	8.1	1.51	8.1	1.61	7.6	1.51	8.5	1.61	7.6	1.51	7.6	1.51	6.5	1.93	6.5	1.93	6.0	1.00	6.0	3.25	6.0	6.0	6.0
24	.032	1924	.0118	.6010	.0670	27.03	3.86	20	3.74	6	3.0	1.2	8.0	1.51	8.0	1.61	7.4	1.51	8.5	1.61	7.4	1.51	7.4	1.51	6.0	1.93	6.0	1.93	5.5	.90	5.5	3.00	5.5	5.5	5.5
25	.028	1443	.0149	.6014	.0678	39.45	3.28	16	3.03	5	2.5	1.0	7.8	1.51	7.8	1.61	7.0	1.51	8.5	1.61	7.0	1.51	7.0	1.51	5.5	1.93	5.5	1.93	5.0	.80	5.0	2.75	5.0	5.0	5.0
26	.025	1099	.0210	.6014	.0678	59.45	2.57	12	2.37	4	2.0	.9	7.6	1.51	7.6	1.61	6.5	1.51	9.0	1.61	6.5	1.51	6.5	1.51	5.0	1.93	5.0	1.93	4.5	.70	4.5	2.50	4.5	4.5	4.5

B. & S. Gauge.		Diam. Bare, inches.	Circu- lar Mills.	Turns per foot at 60° C.	Laps. per 1000.		Turns per linear inch.	1		Depth.	Amp.	Depth.	Amp.	Depth.	Amp.
					Bare.	Cover'd		Amp.	Depth.						
2	3	.984	80656	.0001495		.244	3.96	97.8	.998	43.7	1.284	31.0	2.63	91.9	5.33
		.959	67081	.000180		.263	3.68	87.4	.973	38.1	1.252	27.1	2.41	10.1	4.70
		.9576	69373	.000182		.261	3.68	84.6	.976	37.7	1.216	26.8	2.40	18.9	4.76
2	4	.988	59644	.000113		.172	3.97	75.4	.953	33.6	1.158	23.9	2.21	16.8	4.42
3	3	.9594	59634	.000229		.159	4.11	71.5	.9434	31.9	1.090	22.7	2.15	16.0	4.37
		.92	48400	.000249		.146	4.27	67.2	.934	30.0	1.045	21.3	2.07	15.0	4.10
4	4	.9043	41743	.000289		.125	4.58	60.3	.9183	26.9	.980	19.1	1.93	13.5	3.80
5	6	.903	41309	.000292		.125	4.61	59.8	.917	26.7	.974	18.9	1.92	13.4	3.84
6	7	.819	33192	.000305		.100	5.16	50.8	.946	22.7	.880	16.1	1.73	11.4	3.44
7	8	.816	32400	.000325		.0979	5.16	50.0	.941	22.3	.871	15.8	1.71	11.2	3.40
		.862	26251	.000439		.0825	5.59	44.1	.979	19.7	.804	13.9	1.58	9.61	3.09
6	6	.848	21904	.000451		.0794	6.17	43.9	.976	19.1	.791	13.6	1.55	9.61	3.09
7	7	.8443	20817	.0005795		.0683	6.32	36.2	.9583	16.1	.797	11.9	1.43	8.41	2.78
		.834	17956	.000673		.0544	6.76	26.2	.948	14.5	.719	11.5	1.40	8.10	2.78
10	10	.8285	16510	.000731		.0501	7.02	20.6	.931	12.3	.640	10.3	1.31	7.37	2.59
		.82	14400	.000838		.0436	7.46	27.7	.934	12.3	.602	8.78	1.18	6.84	2.50
11	11	.8144	13094	.000922		.0393	7.79	25.7	.9284	11.5	.577	8.14	1.13	6.30	2.35

Alternating Currents, Multiphase Currents, Transformers, etc.—The proper discussion of these subjects would take more space than can be afforded in this work. Consult S. P. Thompson's "Dynamo-Electric Machinery," Bedell and Crehore on "Alternating Currents," Fleming on "Alternating Currents," and Kapp on "Dynamoes, Alternators and Transformers."

The Electric Motor.—The electric motor is the same machine as the dynamo, but with the nature of its operation reversed. In the dynamo mechanical energy, such as from a belt, is converted into electric current; in the motor the current entering the machine is converted into mechanical energy, which may be taken off by a belt. The difference in the action of the machine as a dynamo and as a motor is thus explained by Prof. F. B. Crocker, (*Cassier's Mag.*, March, 1895):

In the case of the dynamo there exists only one E.M.F., whereas in the motor there must always be two.

One kilowatt dynamo, $C = E \div R$; 10 amperes = 100 volts \div 10 ohms.

One kilowatt motor, $C = \frac{E - e}{R_1}$; 10 amperes = $\frac{100 \text{ volts} - 90 \text{ volts}}{1 \text{ ohm}}$.

C is the current; E , the direct E.M.F.; e , the counter E.M.F.; R , the total resistance of the circuit; R_1 , the resistance of the armature. The current and direct E.M.F. are the same in the two cases, but the resistance is only one tenth as much in the case of the motor, the difference being replaced by the counter E.M.F., which acts like resistance to reduce the current. In the case of the motor the counter E.M.F. represents the amount of the electrical energy converted into mechanical energy. The so-called electrical efficiency or conversion factor = counter E.M.F. \div direct E.M.F. The actual or commercial efficiency is somewhat less than this, owing to friction, Foucault currents, and hysteresis.

For full discussions of the theory and practice of electric motors see S. P. Thompson's "Dynamo-Electric Machinery," Kapp's "Electric Transmission of Energy," Martin and Wetzler's "The Electric Motor and its Applications," Cox's "Continuous Current Dynamoes and Motors," and Crocker and Wheeler's "Practical Management of Dynamoes and Motors."

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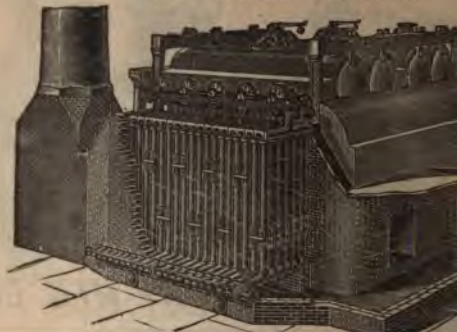
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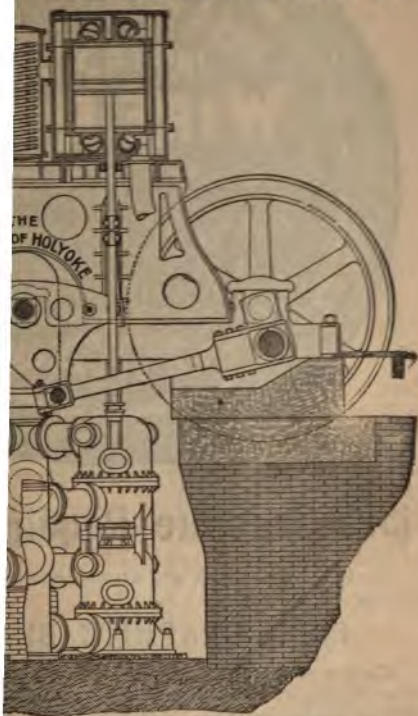
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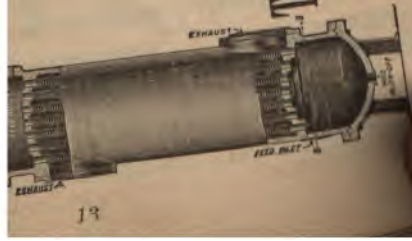
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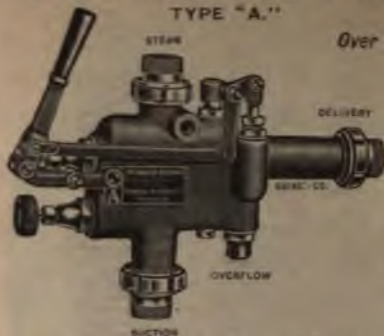
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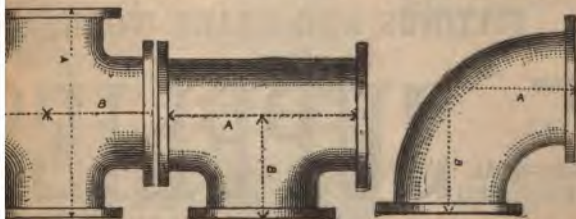
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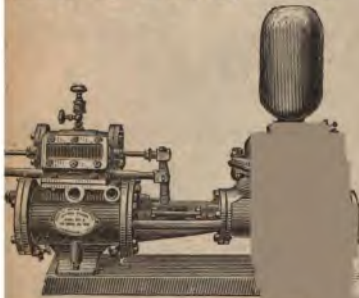
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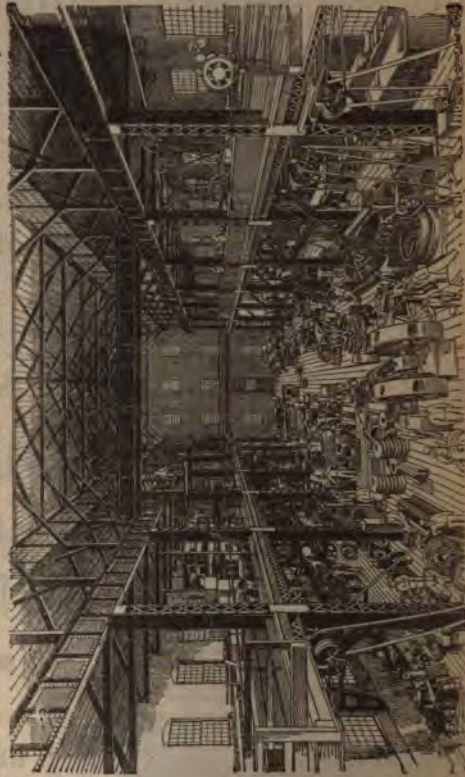
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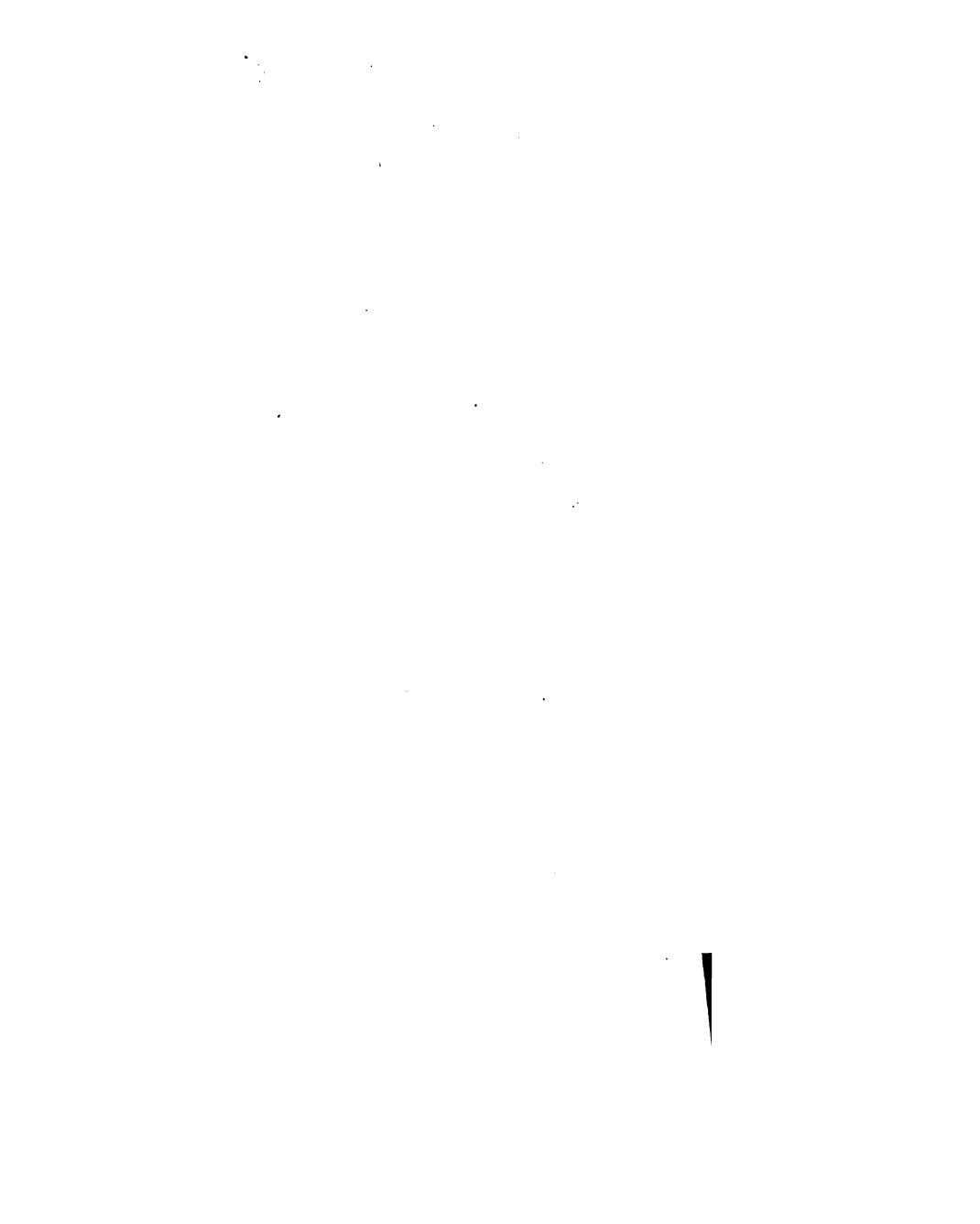
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